The interactions among Native Americans, Europeans, and Africans shaped the history of the Americas. Native Americans struggled to live alongside Europeans and their ever-growing settlements and colonies. Africans tried to adapt to the new continent to which they were brought involuntarily. Studying these early cultural interactions will help you understand the centuries of history that followed. The following resources offer more information about this period in American history.

**Primary Sources Library**
See pages 1048–1049 for primary source readings to accompany Unit 1.

Use the *American History Primary Source Document Library CD-ROM* to find additional primary sources about the meeting of Native Americans, Europeans, and Africans.
“Long before they had heard the word Spaniard, they [Native Americans] had properly organized states, wisely ordered by excellent laws, religion, and custom.”

—Bartolomé de Las Casas, 1550
Converging Cultures

Prehistory to 1520

Why It Matters
Before 1492, the cultures that arose in the Americas had almost no contact with the rest of the world. Then, in the late 1500s, momentous events began taking place that would bring the cultures of Europe and Africa into direct contact with the Americas. This contact had profound effects on the future of the world’s civilizations.

The Impact Today
The convergence of the world’s cultures in the 1400s launched an era of change that still affects our lives today.

- Many of our foods, customs, and traditions were originally introduced in the Americas as a result of this cultural contact.
- Contact among the cultures of the three continents profoundly changed the society of each.
- American society today includes elements of Native American, European, and African cultures.

The American Vision Video
The Chapter 1 video, “America Before the Americans,” examines the early Americas.

- 28,000 B.C.
- First humans migrate to North America from Asia

- 1200 B.C.
- Early Mesoamerican civilizations arise

- 1200 A.D.
- Mayan culture arises in Central America

- 300 A.D.
- Hohokam culture arises in North America

- 1750 B.C.
- Death of Hammurabi in the Middle East

- 3000 B.C.
- Sumerians create cuneiform writing

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

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

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

**The Asian Migration to America**

No one can say for certain when the first people arrived in America. The Folsom discoveries proved that people were here at least 10,000 years ago, but more recent research suggests that humans arrived much earlier. Presently, scientific speculation points to a
period between 15,000 and 30,000 years ago—much earlier than what scientists believed at the time of George McJunkin’s discovery.

How long ago the first Americans appeared remains a hotly debated question. Scientists can state much more confidently, however, who these earliest people were, how they arrived in America, and what their lives were like.

To learn the origins of ancient peoples, scientists study their skulls, bones, and teeth. In recent years they have been able to examine DNA—which stands for deoxyribonucleic acid—a molecule described as the basic building material of all life on Earth. DNA recovered from the bones of people who died many thousands of years ago enables scientists to trace their ethnic, and thus their geographic, origins. From DNA and other evidence, researchers have concluded that the earliest Americans probably came from Asia.

To determine how old objects are, scientists rely on radiocarbon dating. With this method, they measure the radioactivity left in a special type of carbon called carbon 14, which can be taken from fragments of wood and bone. Radiocarbon dating works because all living things absorb carbon. Knowing the rate at which carbon 14 loses its radioactivity, experts can calculate the age of the objects the carbon came from.

Studies of the earth’s history offer other important clues. About 100,000 years ago, the earth began to cool gradually, entering what scientists call a period of glaciation. Such periods are often called Ice Ages. Much of the earth’s water froze into huge ice sheets, or glaciers. As ocean levels dropped, they eventually exposed an area of dry land that connected Asia with the part of North America that is now Alaska. The land was named Beringia, after Vitus Bering, a later explorer of the region. Scientists think that about 15,000 years ago, people from Asia began trekking eastward across this new land bridge to America in search of food. Others may also have come by boat even earlier, hugging the shoreline of Beringia.

These early arrivals were probably nomads, people who continually moved from place to place. In this case, the people were hunters who stalked herds of animals across Beringia. They hunted such massive prey as the wooly mammoth, as well as antelope, caribou, bison, musk ox, and wild sheep. Wild plants, birds, and fish probably made up an important part of their diet, too. These early peoples did not come all at once. Their migrations probably continued until rising seawater once again submerged the land bridge about 10,000 years ago, creating a waterway that today is called the Bering Strait.

Scientists believe that as the last Ice Age ended, the nomads’ favorite prey, the wooly mammoth, began to die out, either from too much hunting or because of the changing environment. Faced with a dwindling food supply, early Americans began to make use of other types of food, including fish, shellfish, nuts, and small game.

**Reading Check**

How do scientists determine the origins of ancient peoples?

**Early Civilizations of Mesoamerica**

As time passed, early Americans learned how to plant and raise crops. This agricultural revolution occurred between 9,000 and 10,000 years ago in Mesoamerica—meso coming from the Greek word for middle. This region includes what is today central and southern Mexico and Central America.

The first crops grown in America included pumpkins, peppers, squashes, gourds, and beans. The most...
important crop of all was a large-seeded grass called **maize**, which is known today as corn. Maize was important because it could be ground into flour to make bread and could be dried and stored for long periods of time.

The shift to agriculture allowed people to abandon their nomadic way of life and stay in one place to tend their crops and store the harvest. With the discovery of agriculture came the first permanent villages. The cultivation of crops also led to many new technologies, including tools for cutting, digging, and grinding. The need to store crops probably led to the development of pottery, and the development of permanent villages led to new construction technologies.

As more people began to live in one place, more complex forms of government developed, as did social classes. People learned specialized skills and traded their products for food and other goods. As these village societies became more complex, America’s first civilizations emerged. A **civilization** is a highly organized society marked by trade, government, the arts, science, and, often, written language.

### The Olmec and the Maya

Anthropologists think the first people to build a civilization in America were the Olmec. Olmec culture emerged between 1500 and 1200 B.C., near where Veracruz, Mexico, is located today. The Olmec developed a sophisticated society with large villages, temple complexes, and pyramids. They also sculpted imposing monuments, including 8-foot-high heads weighing up to 20 tons, from a hard rock known as basalt. Olmec culture lasted until about 300 B.C.

Olmec ideas spread throughout Mesoamerica, influencing other peoples. One of these peoples constructed the first large city in America, called **Teotihuacán** (TAY·oh·TEE·wah·KAHN), about 30 miles northeast of where Mexico City is located today. The city was built near a volcano, where there were large deposits of **obsidian**, or volcanic glass. Obsidian was very valuable. Its sharp, strong edges were perfect for tools and weapons. Teotihuacán built up an elaborate trade network and greatly influenced the development of Mesoamerica. The city lasted from about 300 B.C. to about A.D. 650.

Around A.D. 200, as Teotihuacán’s influence spread, the Mayan culture emerged in the Yucatán peninsula and expanded into what is now Central America and southern Mexico. The Maya had a talent for engineering and mathematics. They developed complex and accurate calendars linked to the positions of the stars. They also built great temple pyramids. These pyramids formed the centerpieces of Mayan cities, such as Tikal and Chichén Itzá. Marvels of engineering, some pyramids were 200 feet (61 m) high. Topping each pyramid was a temple where elaborately dressed priests performed ceremonies dedicated to the many Mayan gods.

Although trade and a common culture linked the Mayan people, they were not unified. Each city-state controlled its own territory. Because of the fragmented nature of Mayan society, the different cities frequently went to war.

### The Toltec and the Aztec

Despite their frequent wars, the Mayan people continued to thrive until the A.D. 900s, when their cities in the Yucatán were abandoned for unknown reasons. Some anthropologists believe Mayan farmers may have exhausted the region’s soil. This in turn would have led to famine, riots, and the collapse of the cities. Others believe that invaders from the north devastated the region.
Mayan cities in the highlands of what is today Guatemala flourished for several more centuries, although by the 1500s, they too were in decline.

In the meantime, people known as the Toltec began building a city called Tula. The Toltec were master architects. They built large pyramids and huge palaces with pillared halls. They were among the first Native Americans to use gold and copper for art and jewelry.

About A.D. 1200, Tula fell to invaders from the north, known as the Chichimec. One group of Chichimec, called the Mexico, established the city of Tenochtitlán (tay·NAWCH·teet·LAHN) in 1325 on the site of what is today Mexico City. The Mexico took the name Aztec for themselves, from the name of their original homeland, Aztlan. Aztlan is thought to have been located somewhere in the American Southwest.

The Aztec created a mighty empire by conquering neighboring cities. Using their military power, the Aztec controlled trade in the region and demanded tribute, or payment, from the cities they conquered. They also brought some of the people they conquered to Tenochtitlán to serve as human sacrifices in their religious ceremonies. When the Europeans arrived in the 1500s, an estimated five million people were living under Aztec rule.

**Reading Check**  
Examine: How did the shift to agriculture allow early peoples to advance beyond mere survival?

## North American Cultures

North of Mesoamerica, other peoples developed their own cultures and civilizations. Many anthropologists think that the agricultural technology of Mesoamerica spread north into the American Southwest and up the Mississippi River. There it transformed many of the scattered hunter-gatherers of North America into farmers.

**The Hohokam** Beginning in A.D. 300 in what is now south-central Arizona, a group called the Hohokam created a civilization that featured a very elaborate system of irrigation canals. The Hohokam used the Gila and Salt Rivers as their water supply. Their canals carried water hundreds of miles to their farms.

The Hohokam grew large crops of corn, cotton, beans, and squash. They also made decorative red-on-buff pottery and turquoise pendants, and they created the world’s first etchings by using cactus juice to etch shells. Hohokam culture flourished for more than 1,000 years. In the 1300s, they began to abandon their irrigation systems, most likely due to floods. Increased competition for farmland probably led to wars and emigration. By 1500 the Hohokam had vanished from history.

**The Anasazi** Between A.D. 700 and 900, the people living in villages in the Four Corners area, where Utah, Colorado, Arizona, and New Mexico now meet, came together to create a civilization. We know these people only by the name the Navajo gave them—Anasazi, or “ancient ones.”

In the harsh desert environment of the American Southwest, the Anasazi accumulated water for their crops by building networks of basins and ditches to channel rain into stone-lined depressions with high earthen banks.

Between A.D. 850 and 1100, the Anasazi living in Chaco Canyon in what is now northwest New Mexico began constructing large, multi-story buildings of adobe and cut stone with connecting passageways.
and circular ceremonial rooms called **kivas.** Early Spanish explorers called these structures **pueblos,** the Spanish word for villages. The Anasazi built these pueblos at junctions where streams of rainwater, draining from the canyon, ran together. One particular pueblo in Chaco Canyon, called Pueblo Bonito, covered more than three acres. Its 600 rooms probably housed at least 1,000 people. Later, at Mesa Verde in what is today southwestern Colorado, the Anasazi built equally impressive cliff dwellings.

Beginning around A.D. 1130, Chaco Canyon experienced a devastating drought that lasted at least 50 years. This probably caused the Anasazi to abandon their pueblos. The Mesa Verde pueblos lasted for another 200 years, but when another drought struck in the 1270s, they too were abandoned. Some anthropologists think that epidemics or attacks by hunter-gatherers may have caused the Anasazi civilization to collapse.

**The Adena and Hopewell Cultures** About the same time that the Olmec people began to build a civilization in Mesoamerica, the people living in North America’s eastern woodlands were developing their own unique cultures. The people of the eastern woodlands developed woodworking tools, including stone axes and gouges. They built dugout canoes and made nets to snare birds. They also made clay pots by stacking up coils of clay.

Beginning about 1000 B.C., the people of the region began burying their dead under massive domeshaped mounds of earth. The most important early mound-building culture was the Adena culture, which lasted from 1000 B.C. to about A.D. 200. The Adena culture originated in the Ohio River valley and spread east into what is now New York and New England.

As the people of the Ohio valley began to plant crops and build permanent settlements between 200 and 100 B.C., another new civilization known as the Hopewell culture rose to prominence. It featured huge, geometric earthworks to serve as ceremonial centers, observatories, and burial places. The Hopewell culture mysteriously began to decline after A.D. 400.

**The Mississippian Culture** Between A.D. 700 and 900, as agricultural technology and improved strains of maize and beans spread north from Mexico and up the Mississippi River, another new culture—the Mississippian—emerged. It began in the Mississippi River valley, where the rich soil of the flood plains...
Checking for Understanding
1. Define: radiocarbon dating, Ice Age, glacier, nomad, agricultural revolution, maize, civilization, obsidian, kiva, pueblo.
2. Identify: Beringia, Aztec, Chaco Canyon, Cahokia.
3. Explain how the agricultural revolution led to the establishment of permanent settlements.

Reviewing Themes
4. Geography and History How did Asians migrate to America?

Critical Thinking
5. Evaluating Choose an early culture group in Mesoamerica or North America. What kind of civilization did this group develop?
6. Categorizing Use a graphic organizer like the one below to list the advances of early culture groups in North America.

Analyzing Visuals
7. Picturing History Study the photographs on this page and on page 16. How did the Native Americans in each region adapt to their environments?

8. Expository Writing Using library or Internet resources, find more information on one of the culture groups discussed in this section. Use the information to write an in-depth report about the culture group.

Explaining By what route did agricultural technology spread from Mesoamerica into North America?

Adena and Hopewell Culture The Great Serpent Mound in southern Ohio (above) is an example of the earthen mounds built by the Adena culture. The copper falcon (right) is a Hopewell design. These artifacts help scientists learn more about the culture of ancient civilizations. For what did Native Americans use their earthen mounds?

Cahokia itself collapsed around A.D. 1300. An attack by other Native Americans may have caused its destruction, or the population may simply have become too large to feed, resulting in famine and emigration. Another possibility is that an epidemic may have devastated the population. Although Cahokia came to an end, many aspects of Mississippian culture survived in the Southeast until the Europeans arrived in America.
Cut marks on this bone from a mammoth found in Blue Fish Cave indicate that pieces have been intentionally flaked off. The bone is part of mounting evidence suggesting that people may have lived in Beringia more than 23,000 years ago.

When glaciers formed during the last Ice Age, sea levels fell to expose new shorelines (below, left). As the Ice Age ended, melting glaciers reversed the process, raising sea levels and creating the present-day island shoreline (below, right).

Early American Sites

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extent of present-day ice cap</th>
<th>Vegetation and glaciation as of 21,000 years ago is shown on map</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>More than 13,500 years ago</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Map showing ice cap extent" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10,900 to 13,500 years ago</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Map showing ice cap extent" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7,000 to 10,900 years ago</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Map showing ice cap extent" /></td>
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Animal remains and artifacts

- More than 13,500 years ago: ![Icon](image)
- 10,900 to 13,500 years ago: ![Icon](image)
- 7,000 to 10,900 years ago: ![Icon](image)

Human remains and artifacts

- More than 13,500 years ago: ![Icon](image)
- 10,900 to 13,500 years ago: ![Icon](image)
- 7,000 to 10,900 years ago: ![Icon](image)
During the last Ice Age, the Bering Strait that now separates Alaska and Siberia was dry land. Across this so-called land bridge, bands of fur-clad hunter-gatherers from Asia trekked to the northwestern corner of America (purple arrows at left). As they followed herds of woolly mammoths and other big game animals, they slowly spread east through a corridor between two glaciers and then pushed south into the interior of the continent.

These intrepid travelers have been held up as the original Americans. They flourished on the Great Plains and the Southwest of the present-day United States. In less than a thousand years, their descendants had settled most of the hemisphere, from the Arctic Circle to the tip of South America.

The intercontinental land bridge that made this amazing journey possible was up to 1,000 miles (1,609 km) wide. Known as Beringia, it emerged when vast ice sheets absorbed the water, dropping the sea level about 300 feet (91 km) to reveal the floor of the Bering Sea. Many scientists agree that the Beringia migration began between 14,000 and 15,000 years ago. Recently, however archaeologists have found artifacts that suggest people were in America even before the land corridor had opened. The new evidence has led to theories suggesting other possible routes to the Americas.

One theory proposes that people crossed from northeast Asia in skin-covered boats, skirting the shore and landing occasionally to hunt for food and water (red arrows at left). Continuing south along the coast, they would have reached South America quicker than by any land route (see inset map below). The Pacific crossing theory suggests that migrants from Southeast Asia went south to Australia and across the Pacific Ocean, hopping from island to island until they reached South America. Yet a third theory, the Atlantic crossing theory, suggests that America’s earliest inhabitants were from southwestern Europe (modern-day southern France and Spain). Hugging the edge of the glaciers of the North Atlantic, they may have sailed from Iceland and Greenland down to North America. A skull found in Brazil has also prompted some people to consider the possibility of an early migration from Africa.

The peopling of the Americas was probably a more complex process than migration across the Bering land bridge alone. Settlers may have arrived in many waves of migration and by a number of routes. As shown in the map at left, they may have traveled from Europe or Australia as well as from Asia.

**LEARNING FROM GEOGRAPHY**

1. What geographical event made the sea level drop to reveal the land bridge between Asia and America?
2. What other ways may settlers have made their way to the Americas?
Did the Natchez people of the southeastern United States descend from the Toltec of Mesoamerica? A Natchez man told this story to a European explorer in the mid-1700s:

“Before we came into this land we lived yonder under the sun (pointing with his finger nearly south-west, by which I understood that he meant Mexico). . . . There our Suns [Mexican rulers were called Suns] had their abode and our nation maintained itself for a long time. . . . Our nation extended itself along the great water [Gulf of Mexico] where this large river [the Mississippi] loses itself; but as our enemies were become very numerous . . . our Suns sent some of their subjects who lived near this river, to examine whether we could return into the country through which it flowed. The country on the east side of the river being found extremely pleasant, the Great Sun, upon the return of those who had examined it, ordered all his subjects who lived in the plains, and who still defended themselves against the ancients of the country, to remove into this land, here to build a temple. . . .”

—quoted in America in 1492

The West

Although Mesoamerican civilization may have shaped Natchez society, the culture of most Native Americans developed in response to their environments. By the time the first Europeans arrived, Native Americans were fragmented into many small groups
that had adapted to the different regions of North America. Fragmentation in the American West was especially severe because of the great variations in the region’s climate and geography.

**The Southwest** The descendants of the Anasazi and Hohokam lived in small groups in the arid Southwest. These groups included the Zuni, Hopi, and other Pueblo peoples. The people of the Southwest depended on corn to survive. Farmers cultivated several species of corn whose seeds could withstand the dry soil. With a long taproot, the corn grew deep, reaching moisture far below the surface. The farmers also grew squash and beans.

Among these groups, when a man married, he joined the household of his bride’s mother. Within the family, men’s and women’s work was separate. Men farmed and herded sheep. They also performed most ceremonies, made moccasins, and wove clothing and blankets. It was women’s work to take care of the house. In addition, women crafted pottery and baskets and hauled water. The women also helped the men in two occupations—farming and constructing houses.

When boys turned six, they joined the kachina cult. A kachina was a good spirit. The Pueblo people believed kachinas visited their town each year with messages from the gods. Members of the kachina cult would wear masks symbolizing the spirits, and they would dance to bring the spirits to the town.

Sometime around the 1500s, two other peoples—the Apache and the Navajo—came to the region from the far northwest of North America. Although many of the Apache remained primarily nomadic hunters, the Navajo learned farming from the Pueblo people and lived in widely dispersed settlements, where they grew corn, beans, and squash.

**The Pacific Coast** Many different groups, including the Tlingit, Haida, Kwakiutl, Nootka, Chinook, and Salish peoples, lived in the lands bordering the Pacific Ocean from what is now southeastern Alaska to Washington state. Although they did not practice agriculture, these groups dwelt in permanent settlements. They looked to the dense coastal forests for lumber, which they used not only to build homes and to fashion canoes, but also to create elaborate works of art, ceremonial masks, and totem poles. They were able to stay in one place because the region’s coastal waters and many rivers teemed with fish, particularly salmon. Farther inland, between the Cascade Range and the Rocky Mountains, the Nez Perce, Yakima, and other groups fished, hunted deer, and gathered roots and berries.

South of the Nez Perce’s territory, between the Sierra Nevada and Rocky Mountains, the climate was much drier. There, groups such as the Ute and Shoshone lived a nomadic life. Because the land was too arid for farming, they roamed widely in search of food that was often scarce.

West of the Ute lands in what is today central California, several groups enjoyed abundant wildlife and a mild climate. The Pomo, for example, gathered acorns, caught fish in nets and traps, and snared small game and birds. Pomo hunters, working together, would drive deer toward a spot where the village’s best archer waited, hidden and disguised in a deer-head mask. Sometimes, the hunters stampeded game into a corral, where the animals could be easily killed. When game was scarce, however, the Pomo relied upon the acorn, which they had learned to convert from a hard, bitter nut into an edible flour.

**The Great Plains** When Europeans arrived in America, the people of the Great Plains were nomads. Before this, up until about 1500, people living on the Great Plains practiced agriculture. Influenced by the Hopewell and Mississippian cultures, these peoples lived near the Missouri and other rivers, where they could plant corn and find wood to build their homes.

Around 1500 the peoples of the western plains abandoned their villages and became nomads, possibly because of war or drought. Those in the east—including the Pawnee, Kansas, and Iowa peoples—continued to farm as well as hunt. Peoples of the western plains, such as the Sioux, followed migrating buffalo herds on foot and lived in cone-shaped tents called tepees.

Life for the Sioux and others on the Great Plains changed dramatically after they began taming horses. The Spanish had brought horses to North America in the 1500s. Over the next few centuries, as horses either escaped or were stolen, the animals spread northward, eventually reaching the Great Plains. There the Sioux encountered and mastered them, and in the process became some of the world’s greatest mounted hunters and warriors.

Sioux men achieved fame in the community through bravery in both hunting and war. Sioux warriors would take the scalps of enemies they had killed, but they could gain even greater glory through
the dangerous but nonviolent act of “counting coup,” from the French word meaning “blow” or “touch.” A warrior would charge into a group of the enemy and simply touch one of them with a stick—as a means of humiliating the enemy—then gallop away.

**Reading Check**  **Contrasting** How did Native Americans respond to the different climates of the American West?

### The Far North

Two different Native American groups made the Far North their home. The most northern and widespread were the Inuit, whose territory stretched across the Arctic from present-day Alaska to Greenland. The Aleut settled Alaska’s Aleutian Islands. The Inuit and Aleut depended heavily upon hunting for their livelihood. They hunted seals, walruses, whales, polar bears, caribou, musk oxen, and smaller game. Over time, they invented a wide variety of devices to cope with the harsh environment, including the harpoon, the kayak, the dogsled, boots with ivory spikes for walking on ice, and special goggles to prevent snow blindness. They also were the only Native Americans to develop lamps. They used whale oil and blubber for fuel. Occupying a harsh and unforgiving land, they lived in groups—from a single family to a few hundred people—spaced widely apart.

**Reading Check**  **Identifying** What technologies did the Native Americans of the Far North develop?
The Eastern Woodlands

East of the Mississippi River and south of the Great Lakes lay almost a million square miles of woodlands. This landscape supported an amazing range of plant and animal life. Almost all of the Native Americans in the Eastern Woodlands provided for themselves by combining hunting and fishing with farming. Deer were plentiful in the region, and deer meat regularly supplemented the corn, beans, and squash the people planted. Deer hide was also used for clothing.

The Peoples of the Northeast

Most of the peoples of the Northeast were divided into two major language groups—those who spoke Algonquian (al·GAHN·kwe·UHN) languages and those who spoke Iroquoian (IHR·uh·KWOY·uhn) languages. The Algonquian-speaking peoples included most of the groups living in what later became known as New England. Among these peoples were the Wampanoag in Massachusetts, the Narragansett in Rhode Island, and the Pequot in Connecticut. Farther south in what is today Virginia lived the Algonquian-speaking peoples of the Powhatan Confederacy. Native Americans in New England and Virginia were among the first to encounter English settlers.

Other Algonquian-speaking peoples included the Delaware who lived near the Delaware River and the Shawnee who lived in the Ohio River valley. Words from the Algonquian language used in English today include succotash, hominy, moccasin, and papoose.

Stretching west from the Hudson River across what is today New York and southern Ontario and north to Georgian Bay were the Iroquoian-speaking peoples. They included the Huron, Neutral, Erie, Wenro, Seneca, Cayuga, Onondaga, Oneida, and Mohawk.

Many peoples in the Northeast, including the Algonquians of New England and the Iroquoians of New York, practiced slash-and-burn agriculture. By cutting down parts of forests and then burning the cleared land, they were left with nitrogen-rich ashes, which they then worked into the soil, making it more fertile.

The early peoples of the Northeast used several types of houses. Many villages, enclosed by wooden stockades, had large rectangular longhouses with barrel-shaped roofs covered in bark. Others built wigwams. These dwellings were either conical or dome-shaped and were made using bent poles covered with hides or bark.

The Iroquoian and Algonquian peoples shared some traits. Both made beads of white and purple shells that they arranged on strings and wove into belts called wampum. The designs on the wampum recorded important events and agreements. Both groups also viewed land as a resource for a group of people to use, and not for one person to buy or sell.

GOVERNMENT

The Iroquois League All of the Iroquoian peoples had similar cultures. They lived in longhouses in large towns, which they protected by building stockades. The people lived in large kinship groups, or extended families, headed by the elder women of each clan. Iroquois women occupied positions of power and importance in their communities. They were responsible for the planting and harvesting of crops. Up to 10 related families lived together in each longhouse.
Despite their similar cultures, war often erupted among the Iroquoian groups. In the late 1500s, five of the nations in western New York—the Seneca, Cayuga, Onondaga, Oneida, and Mohawk—formed an alliance to maintain peace. This alliance was later called the **Iroquois League** or Iroquois Confederacy.

Europeans called these five nations the Iroquois, even though other nations spoke Iroquoian as well. According to Iroquois tradition, **Dekanawidah** (DEK·uh·nuh·WEE·duh), a shaman or tribal elder, and **Hiawatha**, a chief of the Mohawk, founded the League. They were worried that war was tearing the five nations apart at a time when the more powerful Huron people threatened them all. The five nations agreed to the Great Binding Law, a constitution that defined how the confederacy worked.

Although the 50 chiefs who made up the ruling council of the Iroquois League were all men, the women who headed the kinship groups selected them. Council members were appointed for life, but the women could also get rid of an appointee if they disagreed with his actions. In this way, Iroquois women enjoyed considerable political influence.

**The Peoples of the Southeast** Almost all of the people in the Southeast lived in towns. Women did most of the farming, while the men hunted deer, bear, wildfowl, and even alligator. The Mississippian culture influenced many of the people in the Southeast. The town buildings were arranged around a central plaza. Stockades usually surrounded the towns, although moats and earthen walls were also used. The houses were built out of poles and covered with grass, mud, or thatch.

The Cherokee were the largest group in the Southeast. They lived in what is today western North Carolina and eastern Tennessee. About 20,000 Cherokee lived in some 60 towns when the Europeans arrived. The Cherokee and a nearby group of people called the Tuscarora were Iroquoian speakers. Other people in the Southeast included the Choctaw, Chickasaw, Natchez, and Creek. The Creek were a large group living in what is today Georgia and Alabama. They lived in about 50 villages that were divided into War Towns, where the war leaders lived and men trained for war, and Peace Towns, where the political leaders lived.

By the 1500s, Native Americans had created a wide array of cultures and languages. They had also developed economies and lifestyles well suited to the geography and climate in their particular corners of North America.

**Reading Check** Analyzing How did some Woodlands Native Americans increase their crop yield?

**HISTORY Online** Study Central™ To review this section, go to tav.glencoe.com and click on Study Central™.

Pass the Popcorn Native Americans perfected the popular American snack of popcorn at least 5,000 years ago. In order to pop, a corn kernel must contain at least 14 percent water. When heated, this water turns into steam, which expands and forces the kernel to explode into its familiar shape. Native Americans developed corn with a high water content suitable for popping, as well as sweet corn to eat off the cob and feed corn for animals. According to legend, popcorn made up part of the menu at the first Thanksgiving feast in 1621.

**Critical Thinking**

5. **Analyzing** Why were some Native American groups more nomadic than others?

6. **Categorizing** Use a graphic organizer like the one below to list North American regions and the ways Native Americans living in these regions obtained food.

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

7. **Analyzing Maps** Examine the map of North American cultures on page 22. Which method of acquiring food was used over the largest geographical area of North America?

**Writing About History**

8. **Descriptive Writing** Take on the role of a Sioux teenager living in North America around 1500. Write a journal entry describing a typical day in your life. Be sure to discuss where you live and how your family obtains food.
Among the Native American groups with the richest oral literary traditions are the Iroquois. The Iroquois lived in what is today New York state. For a long time, they were a mighty and warlike people given to fighting amongst themselves. During the 1500s a shaman, or tribal elder, named Dekanawidah urged the Iroquois to stop fighting and unite to protect themselves from their common enemies. Dekanawidah’s ideas led to the formation of the Iroquois Confederation of the Five Nations, commonly known as the Iroquois League.

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

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

from The Constitution of the Five Nations

I am Dekanawidah and with the Five Nations’ Confederate Lords I plant the Tree of Great Peace. . . .

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

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

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

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

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

Interdisciplinary Activity
Government Imagine that you and several classmates are leaders of five small nations that are going to join together as one. In small groups, develop a new constitution under which all members of the new nation will live.
In 1324 Mansa Musa, ruler of the Mali empire, made a pilgrimage to the Arabian city of Makkah (Mecca), a place holy to his religion, Islam.

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

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

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

—adapted from Wonders of the African World

### West Africa

Between the 400s and 1500s, three great empires—Ghana, Mali, and Songhai—rose and fell in West Africa. These realms grew and prospered in large measure by trading in two precious commodities—gold and salt.
The Lay of the Land  Africa’s geography helped determine where these empires arose. West Africa is an immense bulge of territory bordered on the north by the Mediterranean Sea and on the west and south by the Atlantic Ocean. Its northern and southern perimeters are well watered and fertile, but between them lies the vast expanse of the Sahara, whose name comes from an ancient Arabic word meaning desert. At the edges of the Sahara, regions of scrub forest and a kind of rolling grassland called savannah make for a more hospitable landscape.

From the western tip of the continent, where the Atlantic coast curves eastward to form West Africa’s southern edge, a tropical rain forest grows. Civilizations both large and small arose in the rain forest and in the savannah along the Niger River, which cuts through West Africa and long served as its major path for east-west migration and trade.

Other important trade routes in West Africa crossed the vast Sahara. Early merchants bravely trekked through the desert using oxen, donkeys, and horses to carry their wares. Although pack oxen could travel a few days without water, long distance trade was rare and risky. For centuries most trade across the Sahara remained local. People living on the edge of the Sahara would exchange food for salt mined in the desert.

When Arab merchants introduced camels to the region between the third and fifth centuries A.D., they revolutionized trans-Saharan trade. Camels could carry more weight than oxen or horses, and they could walk for a much longer period each day. Most importantly, camels could go for over a week without water and could easily withstand the desert’s scorching days and cold nights.

Although crossing the Sahara was still risky, camels enabled merchants to open up long-distance trade routes across the desert. Gold, ivory, ostrich feathers, and furs from south of the Sahara soon became more available to North Africa and Europe. As the demand for West African products increased, large trading settlements developed at the northern and southern boundaries of the Sahara.

Islam and West African Civilizations  Ideas as well as goods traveled along these African trade routes. Among the most significant of these were the religious ideas of Islam.

In the early A.D. 600s, Islam began winning converts outside of its native Arabia. By 711 Islam, whose followers are called Muslims, had spread all the way across northern Africa to the Atlantic Ocean. Through both armed conquest and the sense of religious solidarity that Islam promoted, this new creed won wide acceptance.

By the 900s, the nomadic peoples who controlled the trade caravans in the Sahara had become Muslim as well. They in turn carried Islam across the Sahara into the heart of West Africa, where many people living in the region’s cities and market towns would eventually embrace it.

The Lure of Gold  West Africa prospered primarily because of the gold trade. The Muslim conquest of North Africa greatly increased the demand for gold in the 800s and 900s because the new Muslim states of the region used gold coins.

Later, in the 1200s, trade between Europe and North Africa experienced an economic revival as the rulers of Europe shifted from silver and copper coins to gold coins. By the 1300s, as much as two-thirds of the gold in Europe and North Africa had come from trade with West Africa.

Reading Check  Explaining  Why were camels better than horses or oxen for traveling in the desert?

The Empires of West Africa  The African peoples who lived on the southern edge of the Sahara were perfectly positioned to benefit from the growing trade in gold. Being in the middle of the trade, they had access both to the gold from the south and the salt and other goods coming from the north. Their ability to control this trade increased their wealth and power and enabled them to build large empires.

Ghana  The earliest empire to emerge was Ghana in the A.D. 400s. Located between the gold mines of Bambuk (just east of present-day Senegal) and the salt mines of Taghaza in the Sahara, the Soninke, as the people of Ghana were called, controlled the region’s trade and built West Africa’s first empire. A visitor from Spain, Abu Hamid al-Andalusi, wrote of Ghana:
In the sands of that country is gold, treasure inexpressible. . . . Merchants trade with salt for it, taking the salt on camels from the salt mines. They . . . travel in the desert as it were upon the sea, having guides to pilot them by the stars or rocks. . . . They take provisions for six months, and when they reach Ghana they weigh their salt and sell it against a certain unit of weight of gold. . . .

—quoted in *African Kingdoms*

After the Muslim conquest of North Africa and the Sahara in the 600s and 700s, Ghana’s merchants grew wealthy from the gold and salt trade. Muslim traders from the north found a warm welcome in Ghana’s capital of Kumbi-Saleh, where the ruler even permitted them to build their own mosques—Muslim places of worship. Ghana’s ruler taxed the trade and became very wealthy as well. Most of Ghana’s people, however, were farmers and herders who did not profit from the trade.

Despite this success, Ghana’s empire had collapsed by the early 1200s. Although Ghana had become a Muslim kingdom in the 1100s, it was hurt by frequent wars with the Muslims of the Sahara. Equally contributing to Ghana’s collapse was a change in the environment. Ghana’s land was exhausted, and its farmers could no longer feed its people.

At the same time that these factors were combining to weaken Ghana, new gold mines opened in Bure (located in what is today northeast Guinea). Trade routes to these mines bypassed Ghana to the east, depriving Ghana’s rulers of the wealth they needed to keep their empire together.

**Mali**  East of Ghana, the Malinke people controlled the upper Niger Valley. This enabled them to direct the gold trade from Bure. With their new wealth and power, the Malinke conquered the Soninke of Ghana and built the empire of Mali.

By the mid-1300s, the empire of Mali had spread east down the Niger River past Timbuktu and west down the Senegal and Gambia Rivers to the Atlantic Ocean. The ruler of Mali was called the mansa. The government of Mali was similar to that of Ghana. In both empires, a bureaucracy of scribes and treasurers lived in the capital city with the emperor.

In outlying towns, traditional rulers stayed in power and managed local affairs. To stay in power, local leaders had to collect tribute from the farmers and send a portion to the capital. To enforce the system, the mansa kept a large army ready and made army leaders important officials in his government. Although the rulers and traders of Mali adopted Islam, many of the people—especially the farmers—clung to their traditional belief in “spirits of the land,” whom they thought ensured the growth of their crops.

The empire of Mali reached its peak in the 1300s under the leadership of Mansa Musa and his brother Mansa Sulayman. By that time, new gold mines had opened in the Akan region (located in what is today Ghana), shifting the trade routes farther east and leading to the rise of Timbuktu as a great center of trade and Muslim scholarship.

**Songhai**  The Sorko people who lived along the middle Niger, east of Mali, built the Songhai empire. The Sorko fashioned canoes and fished for a living. They also used their canoes to control the river and trade with peoples to the north and south, gaining both wealth and power. By the 800s they had created the kingdom of Songhai. Although Songhai had contact with Mali, most of its territory never came under Mali’s control.

When Mali began to decline, the ruler of Songhai, Sonni Ali, used a powerful army of cavalry backed by a fleet of war canoes to seize Timbuktu in 1468. Until his death in 1492, Ali led his cavalry and war canoes in a series of wars of conquest. After taking Timbuktu, Ali pushed northward into the Sahara to...
the Taghazi salt mines, and then he expanded southward down the Niger about 200 miles (322 km) to capture the town of Jenne. According to legend, Sonni Ali’s army never lost a battle.

Sonni Ali’s son and successor proved to be an ineffectual ruler, and within a year a Songhai general named Askiya Muhammad seized the throne. Askiya Muhammad, a devout Muslim, revived Timbuktu as a great center of learning, encouraged more trade across the Sahara, and centralized power in the Songhai capital, Gao. Visiting Gao in 1513, a young Moroccan named Leo Africanus wrote:

“Its inhabitants are rich merchants who travel constantly about the region with their wares. A great many Blacks come to the city bringing quantities of gold with which to purchase goods imported from the Berber country [North Africa] and from Europe, but they never find enough goods on which to spend all their gold and always take half or two-thirds of it home.”

—quoted in African Kingdoms

Songhai remained a powerful and wealthy empire until 1591, when Moroccan troops, armed with guns and cannon, defeated Songhai’s armies. After the battle shattered its army, the Songhai empire began to decline.

Reading Check Describing Why did the empire of Ghana begin to decline?

The Forest Kingdoms of Guinea

Ghana, Mali, and Songhai arose on the wide vistas of West Africa’s savannah, an open landscape that made it easier to control large territories. The situation differed in the dense, almost impenetrable forests of West Africa’s southern coast, an area called Guinea. There, smaller states and kingdoms, such as Ife and Benin, developed.

Both the Yoruba people of Ife and the Edo people of Benin were a mixture of hunters, farmers, and traders living in small village communities. The rich farmlands and tropical climate enabled the people of the forest kingdoms to produce surplus food that was then used to support rulers, government officials, artisans, and artists. Surplus food was also traded for copper and salt from the Sahara. Ife artists produced some of the most impressive art in West Africa. They carved wood and ivory, made terra-cotta sculptures, and cast metal.

To the south and east of Ife, the Edo people developed the city-state of Benin in the eleventh or twelfth century. By 1400, Benin was a large, walled city measuring several miles across. The ruler of Benin was called the oba. In the mid-1400s, Oba Ewuare assembled a

West African Empire This turreted mosque in Djenné, Mali, dates back to the 1300s. It still provides a vital worship center in the Sahara, much as it did during the days of the West African empires. Why did so many empires arise in West Africa?
powerful army and built Benin into an empire that stretched from the Niger delta west to where the city of Lagos, Nigeria, is located today.

After establishing his empire, Ewuare appointed district chiefs to replace the local rulers he had conquered. Benin's leaders also began trading enslaved people they had captured in war to the Portuguese in exchange for Portuguese goods. They then sold the Portuguese ivory, pepper, gum, and cotton. Later, when Benin collapsed into civil war in the 1700s, many Benin citizens were themselves enslaved and traded to the Portuguese.

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Central and Southern Africa

To the southeast of Benin lay the impenetrable reaches of the rain forests. There, the dense vegetation made the movement of people and goods difficult. Many Central African villages, located on rivers, gained a living from fishing but also grew wheat and raised livestock. The villagers had complex family structures and maintained close links to their communities. Other Central Africans lived nomadic lives and subsisted by hunting and gathering.

Like the Iroquois in America, many Central African societies were matrilineal. People traced their lineage, or descent, through their mothers rather than through their fathers. Upon marriage a man became a member of his bride’s family.

Though women took responsibility for child rearing and cooking, they also played a major role in trade. In many places the women farmed while the men hunted, fished, and raised livestock. Tribal chiefs were almost always male, but a chief’s son could not expect to succeed his father. Instead, the son of the chief’s eldest sister inherited the post. Thus, Central and Southern African women of the time enjoyed far more influence and authority than women in many other parts of the world.

The Central African kingdom of Kongo originated around 1400 in a group of prosperous villages along the Zaire River, which flows southwestward through the region to the Atlantic. Fertile soil and abundant rainfall allowed the farmers who lived in these villages to produce food surpluses. By the early 1500s, the Kongo king ruled over a large region from the Atlantic to the Kwango River. South of Kongo, another large kingdom arose among the Mbundu-speaking people in the region that is now Angola.

Reading Check

1. Interpreting Maps Which African empire claimed the most territory?
2. Applying Geography Skills What natural feature determined the location of these empires?

Reading Check

Examine Why were the states and kingdoms smaller in Guinea than in West Africa’s savannah area?

Slavery

As in other parts of the world, slavery existed in African society. Most of the people enslaved in African societies had been captured in war. A few were convicted criminals who had been enslaved as punishment. Before the Arabs and Europeans began purchasing enslaved Africans, most African societies would either ransom captives back to their people or absorb them into their own society. With hard work and good luck, enslaved Africans had a chance to improve their difficult position. In rare instances, they could purchase their freedom by selling produce they had grown or marry into their captor’s society and improve their social status.
African slavery began to change with the arrival of Islam. Muslims in the Middle East were permitted to enslave non-Muslims. Arab traders began to trade horses, cotton, and other goods in exchange for enslaved Africans captured in war.

**The Gold Trade** The gold trade also changed slavery in West Africa. In the early 1400s, the Akan people began mining gold and trading it to the Mali empire. To increase their production, they acquired enslaved Africans from Mali traders for use in clearing the land and mining the gold.

In the 1420s, the Portuguese began exploring the west coast of Africa and trading with West African merchants. They traded European goods for African gold, ivory, pepper, and palm oil. When Portuguese merchants arrived on the coast south of the Akan region, they began to supply the Akan people with enslaved Africans in exchange for gold. They also purchased enslaved Africans to work on Portuguese sugar plantations.

**Sugar and Slavery** Europeans learned about the cultivation and processing of sugarcane from the Muslims during the 1100s. The introduction of sugar changed the diet of Europeans, who had formerly used honey and fruit juices to sweeten their foods. Demand for sugar began to rise steadily. Eventually about 20 percent of all calories consumed in Europe came from sugar.

Europeans set up sugar plantations on the Mediterranean islands of Cyprus and Sicily. These locations, unlike most of Europe, provided the specific climate and type of soil sugarcane needs to grow well. Sugarcane cultivation requires heavy manual labor. The cane is tough and thick and has to be chopped down using heavy knives. A huge amount of sugarcane has to be cut to produce a pound of sugar. Consequently, plantation owners needed a large labor force. To get people to do the work, they either had to pay very high wages or find a way to force people to do the work without paying them. As a result, the introduction of sugarcane farming encouraged Europeans to use enslaved workers and to enter into the slave trade.

The first enslaved workers used by the Europeans on sugar farms were captured Muslims and Slavic peoples. Rising demand for sugar in the 1400s led Spain and Portugal to establish sugarcane plantations on the Canary and Madeira Islands off the west coast of Africa. They then brought in enslaved Africans to work the fields. The limited amount of land available to Europeans to plant sugarcane kept their participation in the slave trade limited during the 1400s. This would change dramatically after Europeans introduced sugarcane to America.

As the European demand for slave labor rose following the colonization of America, slavery in Africa completely changed. Traders took enslaved Africans from their homes and sent them across the Atlantic. For the most part, enslaved Africans shipped to America had little chance of winning their freedom. Torn from their own cultures, they had to learn a completely new way of life amid often horrifying conditions.

**Reading Check** Why did Europeans want slaves?

**Analyzing** Why did Europeans want slaves?
In 1095 Pope Urban II, the head of the Roman Catholic Church, was a worried man. The Holy Land, the birthplace of Christianity, was in the hands of Muslims, who, Urban feared, would no longer allow Christians access to holy religious sites. To meet this threat, Urban organized a great meeting of Christians in Clermont, France. On November 18, before a huge outdoor crowd of bishops, knights, and common people, Urban made an impassioned speech, calling on Europeans to seize control of Christianity’s holiest sites by armed conquest. A cleric known as Robert the Monk recorded the Pope’s speech in these words:

“Jerusalem is the navel of the world. . . . This is the land which the Redeemer of mankind illuminated by his coming, adorned by his life, consecrated by his passion, redeemed by his death, and sealed by his burial. This royal city, situated in the middle of the world, is now held captive by his enemies. . . . It looks for help from you, especially, because God has bestowed glory in arms upon you more than on any other nation. Undertake this journey, therefore, for the remission of your sins, with the assurance of ‘glory which cannot fade’ in the kingdom of heaven.”

—quoted in The Discoverers

European Society

Pope Urban II’s call to arms launched nearly two centuries of armed struggle to regain the Holy Land. These expeditions were called the Crusades, from the Latin word *crux*, meaning “cross.” The Crusades helped pry western Europe out of centuries of isolation.
isolation and triggered a series of events that revolutionized European society and encouraged a new desire for exploration.

For centuries, the Roman Empire had dominated much of Europe, imposing a stable social and political order. By A.D. 500, however, the Roman political and economic system had collapsed, isolating western Europe from the rest of the world. Trade declined. Cities, bridges, and roads fell into disrepair. Law and order vanished, and money was no longer used. For most people, life did not extend beyond the tiny villages where they were born, lived, and died. This period, lasting roughly from 500 to 1400, is known as the Middle Ages.

Feudalism  With the weakening of central government, a new political system known as feudalism developed in western Europe. Under this system, a king would give estates to nobles in exchange for their loyalty and military support. Eventually, the nobles owning the estates became strong enough to assume many of the powers usually held by government. They raised their own armies, dispensed justice, and even minted coins. In return, the nobles swore an oath of loyalty and promised to provide knights, or mounted warriors, for the royal army.

By 1100 feudalism had spread throughout much of Europe. Because the system lacked a strong central government, warfare occurred frequently in feudal society. As a result, most nobles built castles, or fortified manor houses, for defense.

The Manorial System  The wealth of a feudal lord came from the labor of the peasants who lived on his land. Since the fall of the Roman Empire, many peasants had worked for large landowners, in part because they could not obtain their own land and in part for protection.

A lord’s manor, or estate, varied in size from several hundred to several hundred thousand acres. Each manor included the lord’s house, pastures for livestock, fields for crops, forest, and a peasant village. While feudalism describes the political relationships between nobles, manorialism describes the economic ties between nobles and peasants.

In return for protection, peasants provided various services for the lord. Chief among these were farming the lord’s land and making various payments of goods. Warfare and bandits made trade difficult, so the manor had to produce nearly everything its residents needed.

Peasants rarely left the manor. Most were serfs, people who were bound to the manor and could not leave it without permission. Serfs were not considered enslaved, however, since they could not be sold from the land where they lived and worked. Serfs typically lived in tiny, one-room houses with dirt floors, a hole in the roof for a chimney, and one or two crude pieces of furniture. Coarse bread, a few vegetables, and grain for porridge made up their usual diet. They spent most of their waking hours working. Here, an English monk describes a serf’s account of his day:

“I work very hard. I go out at dawn, driving the oxen to the field, and I yoke them to the plough; however hard the winter I dare not stay home for fear of my master; but, having yoked the oxen and made the ploughshare and coulter fast to the plough, every day I have to plough a whole acre or more.”
—quoted in Colloquy

An Improving Economy  The economy of western Europe, devastated since the fall of Rome, began to improve around 1000. The invention of a better plow allowed farmers to produce more food, as did the invention of the horse collar, which allowed farmers to use horses instead of oxen. Horses could pull a plow faster than an ox, enabling farmers to plant more crops each year.
The ability of many villages to produce a surplus of food helped to revive trade in Europe and encouraged the growth of towns. Some European rulers succeeded in building strong central governments. Warfare and raids by bandits decreased, and roads were soon filled with traders carrying goods to market. The number of towns in western Europe grew tremendously between 1000 and 1200.

**The Church** The Roman Catholic Church struggled mightily against the social and political fragmentation of Europe that followed the fall of Rome. In the face of civil chaos and personal insecurity, it promoted stability and order. It had its own laws and courts that dealt with cases related to the clergy, doctrine, marriage, and morals.

Disobedience to Church laws resulted in severe penalties for common persons and rulers alike—including excommunication for those who committed grave offenses. Excommunication barred people from participating in Church rites. They also lost political and legal rights.

**Reading Check** Describing What was the social order in Europe during the Middle Ages?

**Expanding Horizons**

Pope Urban II’s call for Christians to free their religion’s holy places from the Muslims launched a period of profound change in Europe. The Crusades
helped change western European society by bringing western Europeans into contact with the Muslim and Byzantine civilizations of eastern Europe and the Middle East. The western European presence in this region heightened demand at home for Eastern luxury goods: spices, sugar, melons, tapestries, silk, and other items. Trade increased in the eastern Mediterranean area and especially benefited Italian cities such as Venice, Pisa, and Genoa.

By 1200 Italian and Arab merchants controlled much of the trade in the eastern Mediterranean. Chinese and Indian traders sold silk, spices, and other goods to Arab merchants, who then moved the goods overland to the Mediterranean coast, where they reaped huge profits selling the goods to Italian merchants.

As trade increased, merchants found that many Arab traders would only accept money in payment. European merchants therefore needed a common medium of exchange, and this led to the rise of an economy based on money. The increasing demand for gold from Africa to make gold coins during the 1200s was a direct result of Europe’s expanding trade with Asia.

The rise of the Mongol empire in the 1200s helped to increase the flow of goods from China and other parts of Asia. Mongol horsemen swept out of central Asia in the early part of the century and built one of largest empires in world history. The Mongol conquest integrated much of Asia’s economy. It broke down trade barriers, opened borders, and secured the roads against bandits, encouraging even more trade between Asia and Europe.

By the 1300s Europe was importing vast quantities of spices, silks, and other goods from Asia. To the frustration of European merchants, however, the Mongol empire collapsed in the 1300s, and Asia again separated into dozens of independent kingdoms and empires. The flow of goods from Asia declined, and the price of spices, already very high, rose even more. Increasingly European merchants and rulers began to look for a route to Asia that bypassed the Muslim kingdoms. If they could not reach China by land, they thought, perhaps they could reach it by sea.

**Reading Check** Summarizing Describe the effects of the Crusades on Europe.

**New States, New Technology**

The wealth that could be earned by trading directly with Asia had given Europeans a compelling motive to begin exploring the world. Before the 1300s, however, western European rulers and merchants did not have the ability to look for a direct sea route to Asia.

Feudalism had created a society so fragmented and torn by war that no western European kingdom had the wealth to finance exploration and overseas trade. Western Europeans also lacked the technology to even attempt to reach China by sea. Beginning in the 1300s, however, a number of major changes took place in Europe that enabled the Europeans to begin sending ships into the Atlantic Ocean in search of a water route to China.

**GOVERNMENT**

**Strong States Emerge** Western Europeans began exploring the world in the 1400s and 1500s for several reasons. First of all, feudalism was in decline. Both the Crusades and trade with Asia had helped to weaken this system. The rise of towns and merchants had provided kings and queens with a new source of wealth they could tax. They could now use their armed forces to open up and protect trade routes and to enforce uniform trade laws and a common currency.
within their kingdoms. Merchants, who stood to benefit as well from increased trade, loaned money to monarchs to further finance their operations.

The revenue from trade meant that European rulers did not have to rely as much upon the nobility for support. Increasingly, western European monarchs asserted their power over the nobles. They began to unify their kingdoms and create strong central governments. By the mid-1400s, four strong states—Portugal, Spain, England, and France—had emerged in western Europe. Starting with Portugal in the early 1400s, all four began financing voyages of exploration in the hope of expanding their trade and national power.

**The Renaissance Spurs Discoveries** The political and economic changes that encouraged western Europeans to begin exploring the world would not have mattered had they not had the technology necessary to launch their expeditions. Fortunately, at about the same time that new unified kingdoms were emerging in western Europe, an intellectual revolution known as the Renaissance began as well. This period began around A.D. 1350 and lasted until around 1600. Renaissance is a French word that means “rebirth.” In this case, it referred to a rebirth of interest in the culture of ancient Greece and Rome. European scholars rediscovered the works of Greek and Roman philosophers, geographers, and mathematicians. They also began to read works by Arab scholars. The Renaissance started with a renewed interest in the past, but it quickly became much more. The Renaissance not only produced spectacular works of art, it also marked a renewed commitment to learning and helped to trigger a scientific revolution.

**New Technology** If western Europeans were going to find a water route to Asia, they needed navigational instruments that would enable sailors to travel out of sight of land and still find their way home. They also required ships capable of long-distance travel across the ocean. By the early 1400s, Europeans had acquired these technologies.

By studying Arab texts, western Europeans learned about the astrolabe, a device invented by the ancient Greeks and refined by Arab navigators. An astrolabe uses the position of the sun to determine direction, latitude, and local time. Europeans also acquired the
compass from Arab traders. Invented in China, this device reliably showed the direction of magnetic north.

Navigational tools were important to exploration, but not as essential as ships capable of long-distance travel. Late in the 1400s, European shipwrights began to outfit ships with triangle-shaped lateen sails perfected by Arab traders. These sails made it possible for ships to sail against the wind. Shipwrights also began using multiple masts with several smaller sails hoisted one above the other, which made ships travel much faster. Also, moving the rudder from the side to the stern made ships easier to steer.

In the 1400s a Portuguese ship called the caravel incorporated all these improvements. A caravel was a small vessel capable of carrying about 130 tons (118 t) of cargo. Because a caravel needed little water to sail, it allowed explorers to venture up shallow inlets and to beach the ships to make repairs. Caravels and ships with similar technology finally enabled Europe to explore the world.

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

Portuguese Exploration

Sailing their caravels, Portuguese explorers became the first Europeans to find a sea route to Asia. In 1419 Prince Henry of Portugal, known as Henry the Navigator, set up a center for astronomical and geographical studies at Sagres on Portugal’s southwestern tip. He invited mapmakers, astronomers, and shipbuilders from throughout the Mediterranean world to come there to study and plan voyages of exploration.

Beginning in 1420, Portuguese explorers began mapping Africa’s west coast. In 1488 a Portuguese ship commanded by Bartolomeu Dias reached the southern tip of Africa, later named the Cape of Good Hope. Nine years later, four ships commanded by Vasco da Gama sailed from Portugal, rounded Africa, and then headed across to India and landed on India’s southwest coast. A water route to eastern Asia had been found.

Reading Check Describing How did Henry the Navigator help encourage exploration?

The Compass

While the Europeans made numerous advances in navigation, it was the Chinese who invented one of the more important seafaring tools: the compass. Evidence of this fact includes a Chinese document from 1086 that talks of sea captains relying on a “south-pointing needle” to help them find their way in foggy weather. The date on the document is more than 100 years earlier than the first recorded use of the compass in Europe.

What other inventions aided European exploration?

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

Critical Thinking

5. Synthesizing How did the Renaissance lead to European exploration?
6. Organizing Use a graphic organizer similar to the one below to list the effects of the Crusades.

Analyzing Visuals

8. Examining Maps Study the map of European exploration on page 34. How do you think the Crusades assisted the development of the trade routes throughout the European and Asian continents?

Writing About History

9. Descriptive Writing Imagine you are a serf living in Europe in the year 1100. Write a letter to a relative describing your daily life.

SECTION 4 ASSESSMENT

Checking for Understanding

2. Identify: Crusades, Roman Empire, lateen sail, Henry the Navigator, Bartolomeu Dias, Vasco da Gama.
3. Describe how feudalism brought about social and political order during the Middle Ages.

Reviewing Themes

4. Science and Technology How did scientific advancements affect geographical knowledge?

Examining What political and technological developments made it possible for Europeans to begin exploring the world?
In 1492 Christopher Columbus led 90 sailors on a voyage into the unknown. On September 9 Columbus noted in his log: “This day we completely lost sight of land, and many men sighed and wept for fear they would not see it again for a long time.” As the voyage dragged on, the sailors grew nervous and began plotting mutiny. Columbus wrote:

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

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

—an adapted from The Log of Christopher Columbus

The Vikings Arrive in America

Although his historic journey set the stage for permanent European settlement in the Americas, Christopher Columbus was not the first European to arrive there. Strong archaeological evidence credits that accomplishment to the Norse, or Vikings, a people who came from Scandinavia.
Beginning in the late A.D. 700s, Viking ships, called longboats, began to venture outward from their homeland. Most headed south, some to trade with the wealthier peoples to the south and others to raid their settlements. Still others braved the violent North Atlantic Ocean and headed west.

Sometime around A.D. 1000, Leif Ericsson and 35 Vikings explored the coast of Labrador and may have stayed the winter in Newfoundland. Although the Vikings later tried to set up colonies in the region, their attempts failed, in large part because the Native Americans opposed them. Unlike later European colonists, the Vikings did not have better weapons than those of the Native Americans, who outnumbered them. It would take a new series of European expeditions, embarking in the 1400s and 1500s from points much farther south, to establish a permanent European presence in the Americas.

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

Spain Sends Columbus West

For more than 400 years after the Vikings abandoned their settlements in North America, there is no convincing evidence that Europeans traveled to the Americas. In the mid-1400s, the Renaissance renewed European interest in the world’s geography. With many European states eager to find a sea route to Asia, a few persons, including an Italian navigator named Christopher Columbus, became interested in sailing west across the Atlantic.

A New Geography By the 1400s most educated Europeans knew that the world was round. On the most accurate European maps of the time, however, only the Mediterranean, Europe, the Middle East, and Africa’s northern coast showed any detail. Then a book appeared that revolutionized European exploration.

Twelve centuries earlier, a Greek-educated Egyptian geographer and astronomer named Claudius Ptolemy had drawn maps of a round world, complete with 360 lines of longitude, one degree apart, projected onto a flat surface. Ptolemy’s Geography was rediscovered in 1406 and printed in 1475. It became very influential, and its basic system of lines of latitude and longitude is still used today.

European mariners also consulted the work of a twelfth century Arab geographer named al-Idrisi, who had traveled widely in the Middle East. In 1154 al-Idrisi published a geographical survey of as much of the world as was then known to Europeans and Muslims. By studying the maps of Ptolemy and al-Idrisi, Western mariners finally obtained a reliable idea of the geography of the eastern African coast and the Indian Ocean.

Columbus’s Plan Despite its usefulness, Ptolemy’s Geography had seriously underestimated the distance that each degree of longitude represented, making the earth seem much smaller than it actually was. Basing his own calculations on Ptolemy’s, Christopher Columbus predicted with wild optimism that “the end of Spain and the beginning of India are not far apart . . . and it is known that this sea is navigable in a few days’ time with favoring wind.”

Columbus sought Portuguese financial backing to make a voyage across the Atlantic to Asia. In 1484 he applied to the king of Portugal, who referred him to a committee of experts in navigation. Basing their decision on sources other than Ptolemy’s maps, the scholars reasoned correctly that Columbus had greatly underestimated the distance to Asia. Furthermore, when news arrived in 1488 that Bartolomeu Dias had successfully rounded the southern tip of Africa, the Portuguese lost all interest in supporting Columbus.
For the next few years, Columbus tried to win backing from other rulers. His brother Bartholomew, a respected mapmaker in Europe, tried and failed to secure financing for Columbus’s expedition from the rulers of England and France. Having no success with them, he spent six years trying to persuade King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella of Spain that his scheme would bring them wealth, empire, and converts to Catholicism. Finally, in 1492, after it became clear that Portugal was about to reach Asia by going east around Africa, Ferdinand agreed.

**TURNING POINT**

**The First Voyage** Columbus and his three ships—the *Niña*, the *Pinta*, and the *Santa Maria*—finally left Spain in August 1492. First he sailed south to the Canary Islands to take on fresh supplies. Then he embarked on the harrowing voyage westward across the mysterious and frightening Atlantic until, unaware of where he was, he reached the Caribbean and landed in the Bahamas, probably on what is today San Salvador Island. There, for the first time, he encountered the Taino people, a part of the Arawak. He called the people *Indians* because he thought he had reached the fabled Indies. Columbus noticed that some of the local people had a small piece of gold “hanging from a hole which they have in their nose.” After several attempts to ask where the gold had come from, he learned that “there was a king who had large vessels of it, and possessed much gold. . . .” Columbus then headed deeper into the Caribbean, determined to find this gold he had heard about. He found the island of Cuba, and he also found Hispaniola, which today is divided into the countries of Haiti and the Dominican Republic. Columbus mistakenly concluded that Cuba was the coast of China and that Hispaniola was Japan.

Columbus and his sailors felt equal parts admiration and curiosity toward the Native Americans that they encountered in the Bahamas and Hispaniola. Columbus wrote the following of the Arawak:

> [They are] artless and generous with what they have, to such a degree as no one would believe but he who had seen it. Of anything they have, if it be asked for, they never say no, but do rather invite the person to accept it, and show as much lovingness as though they would give their hearts.

—quoted in *500 Nations*

For their part, the Arawak must have been equally curious about the white-skinned, bearded Spanish. Columbus recorded his interpretation of their reaction to him and his men:

> The people kept coming down to the beach, calling to us and giving thanks to God. Some brought us water, some food; others, seeing that I did not wish to go ashore, swam out to us. . . . One old man climbed into the boat, and the others, men and women, kept shouting, ‘Come and see the men who have come from Heaven; bring them food and drink.’

—quoted in *The Voyage of Christopher Columbus*

Like other Native Americans, the Arawak had an intense spiritual life. To Columbus, however, they appeared to have no religion. He predicted that “they would become Christians very easily.”
On Christmas Eve Columbus’s flagship, the Santa Maria, struck a reef off Hispaniola and broke apart. He built a small fort called La Navidad on the island and left 40 crew members to search for gold while he headed home with his remaining ships.

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

**Columbus’s Later Voyages** Less than six months after Columbus returned to Spain, he headed back across the Atlantic, this time with 17 ships and over 1,200 Spanish colonists. In November 1493 he anchored off the coast of Hispaniola, only to learn that the men he had left behind had been killed and their fort destroyed. Abandoning the ruins, Columbus founded a new colony, called Isabella.

Many of the colonists were Spanish nobles. They had come expecting to get rich, and they refused to plant crops or do other manual labor. They accused Columbus of misleading them with false promises of gold, and many of them headed back to Spain to complain to the government.

Hoping to find more gold and save his reputation, Columbus began exploring the interior of Hispaniola. There he discovered enough loose gold to make mining worthwhile. He then decided to enslave the local Taino and force them to work for the Spanish, mining gold and planting crops.

In 1496 Columbus headed back to Spain. In the meantime, his brother Bartholomew founded a new town named Santo Domingo on the south coast of Hispaniola closer to the gold mines. Santo Domingo became the first capital of Spain’s empire in America.

Columbus made a third voyage to America in 1498. After arriving on the northern coast of South America and studying the volume of fresh water at the mouth of the Orinoco River, he wrote in his journal, “I believe that this is a very great continent, which until today has been unknown.” Columbus made one final voyage in 1502. He mapped the American coastline from Guatemala to Panama before turning back.

**Spain Claims America**

After Columbus had shown the way, Spanish explorers and settlers flocked to the Caribbean hoping to become wealthy through conquest and trade. By the early 1500s, the Spanish had explored the major Caribbean islands, established colonies on Hispaniola, Cuba, Jamaica, and Puerto Rico, and begun exploring the American mainland.

**The Treaty of Tordesillas** Before colonization could begin, however, Ferdinand and Isabella had to establish their claim to the new lands. Portugal had claimed the right to control the Atlantic route to Asia. To resolve the issue peacefully, they appealed to the pope for a decision.
In 1493, to prevent a war between the two rival Catholic nations, Pope Alexander VI established a **line of demarcation**, an imaginary north-to-south line running down the middle of the Atlantic. This line granted Spain control of everything west of the line and Portugal control of everything east. King John II of Portugal accepted the idea of division, but he asked for the line to be moved farther west.

The following year the two countries resolved their differences over the dividing line in the **Treaty of Tordesillas**, named for a town northwest of the Spanish capital, Madrid. The treaty moved the line almost 1,000 miles (1,609 km) to the west.

The Treaty of Tordesillas did two things. It confirmed Portugal’s right to control the route around Africa to India, and it also confirmed Spain’s claim to the new lands of America. Unknowingly, however, the line had been drawn so far west that it cut through part of South America, giving much of the land that is now Brazil to Portugal.

**Naming America** Interestingly enough, Columbus did not give his name to the new land he had encountered while trying to reach Asia. In 1499 an Italian named Amerigo Vespucci, sailing under the Spanish flag, repeated Columbus’s initial attempt to sail west to Asia. Exploring part of the coast of South America, Vespucci, like Columbus, assumed that he had reached Asia.

Vespucci made his next voyage in 1501, this time commissioned by Portugal. He sailed far south along the coast of South America, and he eventually came to the conclusion that this large land mass could not be part of Asia. Vespucci’s descriptions of America were published and widely read in Europe. In 1507 a German scholar named Martin Waldseemüller published a study in which he proposed that the new continent be named America for “Amerigo the discoverer.”

**Continuing Spanish Expeditions** Even though Europe now knew that the Americas were not a part of Asia, explorers continued to chart the region. In 1513 the Spanish governor of Puerto Rico, Juan Ponce de Leon, sailed north. According to a traditional story, he was searching for a wondrous fountain that was said to magically restore youth, although historians have disputed whether or not

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**Why It Matters**

**The Columbian Exchange**

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

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

**Animals**

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

**Plants**

By about 1600, American maize and sweet potatoes were staple crops in China. They contributed to a worldwide population explosion beginning in this period.
this was really his motivation. In any event, De Leon did discover a land full of blooming wildflowers and fragrant plants. Before leaving, he gave it the name **Florida**, which means “land of flowers.”

Spanish explorers continued to search for a passage to China and India by sailing west. In 1510 **Vasco de Balboa**, a planter from Hispaniola trying to escape his creditors, stowed away on a ship heading to the American mainland. There he founded a colony on the Isthmus of Panama. After hearing tales from Native Americans of a “south sea” that led to an empire of gold, Balboa hacked his way across steamy, disease-ridden jungles and swamps until he reached the opposite coast. There, in 1513, Balboa became the first European to reach the Pacific coast of America.

In 1520 **Ferdinand Magellan**, a Portuguese mariner working for Spain, discovered the strait later named for him at the southernmost tip of South America. After navigating its stormy narrows, he sailed into the ocean Balboa had seen. Its waters seemed so peaceful, or **pacific**, that Magellan gave the new ocean that name. Although Magellan died in the Philippine Islands, his crew continued west, arriving in Spain in 1522. They became the first known people to **circumnavigate**, or sail around, the globe.

**Reading Check**  Analyzing Why was the Treaty of Tordesillas important?

### The Columbian Exchange

The arrival of European colonists in the Americas set in motion a series of complex interactions between peoples and environments. These interactions, called the **Columbian Exchange**, permanently altered the world’s ecosystems and changed nearly every culture around the world.

**From America to Europe**  Native Americans taught the Europeans local farming methods and introduced them to new crops. Corn, which colonists soon adopted as a basic food, traveled back to Spain on Columbus’s very first journey and then spread to the rest of Europe. Other American foods, such as squash, pumpkins, beans, sweet potatoes, tomatoes, chili peppers, peanuts, chocolate, and potatoes also made their way to Europe, as did tobacco and chewing gum.

Europeans also unwittingly brought many diseases to the Americas, including measles, mumps, chicken pox, and typhus. The consequences were devastating to Native Americans. Some Native American groups suffered a 90 percent population loss in the first century after European contact. This catastrophe reduced the labor supply available to Europeans, who then turned to enslaving Africans. Thus slavery in the Western Hemisphere is traceable in part to the Columbian Exchange.
Perhaps the most important discovery for Europeans was the potato. European farmers learned that if they planted potatoes instead of rye, about four times as many people could live off the same amount of land. Europeans also adopted many devices invented by Native Americans, including the canoe, the snowshoe, the hammock, the poncho, the toboggan, and the parka.

From Europe to America The Europeans introduced Native Americans to wheat, oats, barley, rye, rice, coffee, dandelions, onions, bananas, and oranges and other new citrus fruits, none of which existed in America. Europeans also brought over domestic livestock such as chickens, cattle, pigs, sheep, and horses. In addition, they introduced Native Americans to a range of technologies, including new types of metal-working, new techniques of shipbuilding, and new forms of weapons, including firearms.

No beneficial European import, however, could ever offset the dreadful effects of an invisible one—the bacteria and viruses that caused such diseases as influenza, measles, chicken pox, mumps, typhus, and smallpox. Native Americans had never experienced these diseases and had no immunity. Exposure led to catastrophic epidemics in which millions of Native Americans died.

The movement of disease, however, was not one-way. Native American illnesses made their way to Europe as well, where they infected millions of people. Unlike European diseases, Native American illnesses did not lead to a catastrophic collapse of the European population.

No one in Columbus’s time could have imagined the course of events in the Americas that have led to the present day. Some people feel that the tragic epidemics and military conquests that devastated the Native Americans and the subsequent introduction of slavery overshadow the positive effects of the exchange Columbus initiated. The human drama that unfolded over the next few centuries, however, also led ultimately to the founding of the United States. Despite tragic events along the way, the people of the United States managed to build a nation that honors the worth of the individual and protects the rights and freedoms of its citizens and others around the globe. This too is one of the legacies of Christopher Columbus.

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

**Why Learn This Skill?**

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

**Learning the Skill**

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

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

**Practicing the Skill**

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

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

**Skills Assessment**

Complete the Practicing Skills questions on page 47 and the Chapter 1 Skill Reinforcement Activity to assess your mastery of this skill.

**Applying the Skill**

**Reading a Time Line** Extend the time line on this page to include at least five additional events that took place in North America between A.D. 500 and 1000.

Glencoe’s *Skillbuilder Interactive Workbook CD-ROM, Level 2*, provides instruction and practice in key social studies skills.
Reviewing Key Terms

On a sheet of paper, use each of these terms in a sentence.

1. radiocarbon dating
2. Ice Age
3. glacier
4. nomad
5. agricultural revolution
6. maize
7. civilization
8. obsidian
9. kiva
10. pueblo
11. kachina
12. slash-and-burn agriculture
13. longhouse
14. wigwam
15. kinship group
16. savannah
17. mosque
18. matrilineal
19. feudalism
20. manorialism
21. serf
22. Renaissance
23. astrolabe
24. caravel
25. line of demarcation
26. circumnavigate
27. Columbian Exchange

Reviewing Key Facts

28. Identify: Dekanawidah, Hiawatha, Henry the Navigator, Bartolomeu Dias, Vasco da Gama, Christopher Columbus, Claudius Ptolemy, Pope Alexander VI, Amerigo Vespucci.

29. How and why did Asians migrate to the Americas during the Ice Age?

30. How do scientists determine the age of ancient artifacts?

31. Why did some Native American groups settle in villages while other Native American groups were nomads?

32. How and why did the arrival of camels affect the trans-Saharan trade in West Africa?

33. How did the religion of Islam spread throughout West Africa?

34. What were four major factors that encouraged European exploration in the 1400s and 1500s?

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

36. What new inventions increased agricultural yields in Europe in the Middle Ages?

North America

• About 30,000 years ago: Asians begin migrating to North America.
• Between 9,000 and 10,000 years ago: Agricultural revolution begins.
• A.D. 200–late 1500s: Various Native American culture groups shaped by the environment develop.
• 1500s: Native American groups begin to be affected by European diseases and military conquests.
• 1565–early 1600s: Spanish and French establish towns in St. Augustine, Quebec, and Santa Fe.

Europe

• A.D. 1095–late 1400s: The Crusades, the emergence of strong states, the Renaissance, and new technology lead to European exploration of Africa and North America.
• 1400s: European explorers discover gold and sugarcane, which leads to the first enslavement of African peoples by Europeans.
• Late 1400s: Europeans encounter the Americas and later colonize the area, leading to the expansion of the slave trade.

Africa

• A.D. 400–1450: Various African groups with different cultures shaped by the environment developed in West, Central, and Southern Africa.
• 1300s and 1400s: The arrival of Arabs and Europeans leads to the beginning of the slave trade; many cultures are destroyed by the demand for enslaved Africans.
Critical Thinking

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

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

39. **Sequencing**  Use a graphic organizer similar to the one below to list some major events in the early history of the Americas.

Practicing Skills

40. **Reading a Time Line**  Refer to the time line on page 45. Then answer the following questions.
   a. **Interpreting Time Lines**  What is the time span on this time line?
   b. **Synthesizing Information**  How much time elapsed between the publication of Ptolemy’s *Geography* and Columbus’s landing in America?

Chapter Activities

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

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

Writing Activity

43. **Portfolio Writing**  Choose an early civilization described in the chapter and write a script for a scene in a documentary about it. Describe the location of the scene, what the scene would be like, and what the people in the scene would be doing. Place the script in your portfolio.

Geography and History

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

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**HISTORY Online**

**Self-Check Quiz**

Visit the American Vision Web site at tav.glencoe.com and click on **Self-Check Quizzes—Chapter 1** to assess your knowledge of chapter content.

**Standardized Test Practice**

**Directions:** Choose the best answer to the following question.

As part of the Columbian Exchange, Spanish explorers brought such things as chocolate and tobacco from the Americas to Europe. What is one thing they brought from Europe to the Americas?

A  Hieroglyphic writing  
B  Democratic government  
C  Horses  
D  Corn

**Test-Taking Tip:** Eliminate answers that don’t make sense. For instance, the Spanish had a monarchy, not a democracy. Therefore, it would be illogical for them to bring democratic government to the Americas.