California Connections

This material is designed to help you think about large historical topics in a manageable and meaningful way and to connect the content to the California standards.

How were most societies organized in the 1700s?

Even though distinct cultural differences arose in Asia, Africa, the Middle East, and Europe, similar social patterns existed in the societies that developed in these regions. By the 1700s most societies were based on a hierarchical social structure. Each had a single ruler, such as a king or emperor, who ruled the empire as a result of his and sometimes her dynastic lineage. Below this supreme ruler existed a level of social elites or the upper class. This level generally included wealthy landowners of noble birth, government officials, and religious and military leaders. The next level was usually made up of a middle class, such as merchants and artisans. This level began to gain a more permanent place in society, especially as cities started to develop. Wealthier merchants or higher-ranking officials of the middle class might eventually advance into the upper classes, while poorer shopkeepers or lower-middle-class wage earners might drop into the low classes. The lower class, at the very bottom of the social structure, consisted of the majority of a society’s population. This often included peasants and poor farmers.

As you will read in Lessons 1 and 3, a dynastic ruler of a state or empire might be overthrown by a strong noble or through conquest. This would establish a new ruling dynasty. However, the traditional social structure of the state or empire would usually remain unchanged. In some societies members of one level of society could move up to a level of higher social status. In China, for example, young scholars could take a civil service exam that would allow them to rise up from the peasantry into the role of a scholar-official. You will learn more about this in Lesson 3. However, in most societies, social level was primarily dictated by a person’s birth.

The inherent disproportion of wealth helped maintain the social structure of most states and empires. By the 1700s the social structures had developed many strong similarities across cultures. The peasants were subsistence farmers, who could barely make ends meet. The small middle class earned money through trade. The elite held great wealth through land ownership and the benefits and privileges that accompanied their titles and positions. Such titles and positions were generally inherited. Most states or empires were ruled by the heavy hand of a single powerful ruler. Figures such as Timur the Great, of the Timurid Empire; emperors of the Qing Dynasty, such as Kangxi; and the Mughal rulers Babur and Akbar all grew and established their empires around a single individual, namely themselves. During their rules their empires often saw great success and expansion. However, when weaker rulers inherited the throne, these empires would struggle to maintain their conquests and internal stability. You will learn more about these figures and others like them in Lessons 1 and 3.

Who held power in the 1700s? Why?

By the 1700s most states and empires were ruled by an individual ruler. This ruler was called a king, tsar, sultan, emperor, shah, or prince, depending on where the state or empire was located. These rulers generally inherited this position as it was passed from one generation to another. Family dynasties could last for hundreds of years. A dynastic ruler would gain legitimacy through his or her birth and the support of the nobility and religious elite. However, a weak ruler might be overthrown or conquered by outside forces. If such a dynasty was overthrown, a new dynasty would take over and the state or empire would once again be set up under the rule of a single individual. This new ruler would usually establish his legitimacy through military power, gaining support from the nobility and religious elite over time.

The elite class was generally made up of nobles, government officials, and religious and military leaders. This level of society was often considered the ruling class, as they had great governmental authority under the ruler. Being a member of the elite often came with special rights and privileges, such as receiving additional land from the favor of the ruler, gaining wealth through taxation, and acquiring tax exemptions from the crown itself. At the same time, if the ruler considered a member of the elite to be unsupportive or threatening, the nobles or officials could lose their lands, money, titles, and even their lives.

To maintain their power and authority, sovereigns and the elite were hesitant about giving any power to the lower tiers of society. As you will read in Lesson 1, in an effort to keep the ruling class in his empire from gaining too much power, the Mughal ruler Akbar the Great would give land grants to his bureaucrats. However, upon their death he would redistribute the land to others. By doing so, Akbar the Great prevented hereditary transfers of titles and wealth and was able to limit the power of his subordinates. Rulers maintained these social structures primarily through the use of political and religious customs, laws, and propaganda. Lower social groups were often excluded from such benefits, as the loss of power might leave nobles or other elites feeling like their wealth and privileges were threatened. During the Qing Dynasty, for instance, marriage between classes was forbidden, and some people were barred from taking the civil service exam. However, some individuals were still able to achieve social mobility through education, which you will read about in Lesson 3.
ACTIVITY

Social Hierarchy Comparisons

When comparing the social structures of different cultures of premodern states and empires, there is a tendency to make gross generalizations and to oversimplify the comparisons. The societies of Mughal India, Qing China, the Ottoman Empire, Safavid Persia, Spain, France, and England may have been based on similar hierarchical systems, but they had significant differences as well. Each state or empire was unique because of its location and culture. Who made up each social tier, how the social status quo was maintained, and what methods, if any, were available for social mobility were different among these empires.

Your task is to compare and contrast the social structures of two different states or empires and create a chart illustrating their similarities and differences.

Compare and contrast the social structure of two of the following: Mughal India, Qing China, the Ottoman Empire, Safavid Persia, Spain, France, and England. Create a chart illustrating their similarities and differences.

1. Conduct Research  Use the Internet or your library to research the social structures of two premodern states or empires.

2. Analyzing the Structures  Consider the following questions as you create your chart and analyze each social structure:

   • Who was considered to be at the top of the social hierarchy and what was his or her title?
   • How did the top social tier maintain its legitimacy?
   • How many tiers made up the state or empire’s social structure, and what members of society made up each tier?
   • What groups and titles were associated with the elite social tier?
   • Could members from the different tiers move from one to another? If so, how?
   • What measures, if any, were used to keep each tier in its place?

Create a chart illustrating both social structures. The chart should:

   • illustrate the hierarchical structures of the states or empires you selected;
   • describe the groups or people who make up each tier;
   • provide your analysis of the similarities and differences of the two social structures;
   • make sound generalizations and be free of misleading oversimplifications.

3. Reviewing and Proofreading  Make sure that your chart accurately shows the social hierarchies you selected and your analysis is clear and specific. Also make sure to edit your writing for proper spelling and grammar. Properly cite credible sources that you used in your research.

FOCUS ON CALIFORNIA

The Income Gap

Although we do not have a strict social hierarchy in American society today, certain social structures and statuses still exist. Many of these structures in our society are based on income. The income gap in modern society is similar to the gap between the elites and the lower classes of the premodern states and empires of the 1700s. However, the comparison can be a bit misleading. The presence of democratic governments, a fundamental development of the modern era, is a key difference between modern society and the states of the 1700s. This institution is a major factor in present-day social hierarchies and the modern income gap.

According to a 2016 report by the Public Policy Institute of California, the gap between Californians with high incomes and Californians with low incomes has doubled since 1980. Although the gap is narrowing in some regions of California, in other regions the gap is quite significant. For example, people with high incomes in the Central Valley and northern California earn about 14 times as much as poor people in the same regions. This is primarily due to the fact that these regions, especially the Central Valley, are heavily based on agriculture. This industry tends to have large numbers of low-skilled and low-income workers. However, even in regions with large cities, such as Los Angeles County, the top percentile is making over 12 times more than the lowest percentile.

In 2014 a family of four in California had a median income of about $69,000, a low-income family of four made $15,000 or less, and the top incomes for a family of four were $198,000 or higher. Fortunately, there are government programs, such as CalWORKS and General Assistance, which support low-income families and help reduce the income gap. However the division between the high-skilled/high-income and the low-skilled/low-income tiers of California’s society still remains.
Module 2

Expansion, Exploration, and Encounters

**Essential Question**
Why were peoples of the Age of Exploration willing to risk lives and fortunes to expand the influence of their homelands?

About the Painting: Japanese merchants and Jesuit missionaries await the arrival of a Portuguese ship at Nagasaki in the 1500s in this painting on wood panels.

In this module you will learn about the era of exploration and colonization and how lands and empires in both the Eastern and Western hemispheres were forever changed.

Videos, including...
- Life in Jamestown
- The Mughals of India: Taj Mahal
- Ancient China: Masters of the Wind and Waves
- African Slave Trade

**10.4.1** Describe the rise of industrial economies and their link to imperialism and colonialism (e.g., the role played by national security and strategic advantage; moral issues raised by the search for national hegemony, Social Darwinism, and the missionary impulse; material issues such as land, resources, and technology).

**10.4.2** Discuss the locations of the colonial rule of such nations as England, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, Russia, Spain, Portugal, and the United States.

**CST.1** Students compare the present with the past, evaluating the consequences of past events and decisions and determining the lessons that were learned.

**CST.2** Students analyze how change happens at different rates at different times; understand that some aspects can change while others remain the same; and understand that change is complicated and affects not only technology and politics but also values and beliefs.

**CST.3** Students use a variety of maps and documents to interpret human movement, including major patterns of domestic and international migration, changing environmental preferences and settlement patterns, the frictions that develop between population groups, and the diffusion of ideas, technological innovations, and goods.

**HREP.1** Students distinguish valid arguments from fallacious arguments in historical interpretations.

**HREP.2** Students evaluate major debates among historians concerning alternative interpretations of the past, including an analysis of authors’ use of evidence and the distinctions between sound generalizations and misleading oversimplifications.

**HREP.3** Students construct and test hypotheses; collect, evaluate, and employ information from multiple primary and secondary sources; and apply it in oral and written presentations.

**HREP.4** Students understand the meaning, implication, and impact of historical events and recognize that events could have taken other directions.
### Timeline of Events, 1400–1800

**Europe & Asia**

- **1405** Zheng He takes first voyage.
- **1419** Portugal’s Prince Henry founds navigation school.
- **1511** First enslaved Africans arrive in the Americas.
- **1521** Cortés conquers Aztec empire.
- **1526** Babur founds Mughal Empire.
- **1533** Pizarro conquers Incan Empire.
- **1539** Spain and Portugal sign Treaty of Tordesillas.
- **1492** Columbus makes first voyage.

**Americas**

- **1494** Spain and Portugal sign Treaty of Tordesillas.
- **1511** First enslaved Africans arrive in the Americas.
- **1521** Cortés conquers Aztec empire.
- **1522** Magellan’s crew sails around the world.
- **1526** Babur founds Mughal Empire.
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**Key Events (1400–1800)**

- **1492** Columbus makes first voyage.
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The Mughal Empire in India

**The Big Idea**
The Mughal Empire brought Turks, Persians, and Indians together in a vast empire.

**Why It Matters Now**
The legacy of great art and deep social division left by the Mughal Empire still influences southern Asia.

**Key Terms and People**
- Mughal
- Babur
- Akbar
- Sikh
- Shah Jahan
- Taj Mahal
- Aurangzeb
- Shivaji

**Setting the Stage**
The Gupta Empire crumbled in the late 400s. First, Huns from Central Asia invaded. Then, beginning in the 700s, warlike Muslim tribes from Central Asia carved northwestern India into many small kingdoms. The people who invaded descended from Muslim Turks and Afghans. Their leader was a descendant of Timur the Lame and of the Mongol conqueror Genghis Khan. They called themselves **Mughals**, which means “Mongols.” So, although the Mongols themselves did not directly affect much of India, their descendants had a long-lasting impact on Indian history and culture.

**Early History of the Mughals**
The eighth century began with a long clash between Hindus and Muslims in this land of many kingdoms, as Muslim groups migrated into various lands, including border areas. For almost 300 years, the Muslims were able to advance only as far as the Indus River valley. Starting around the year 1000, however, well-trained Turkish armies swept into India. Led by Sultan Mahmud (muh•MOOD) of Ghazni, they devastated Indian cities and temples in 17 brutal campaigns. These attacks left the region weakened and vulnerable to other conquerors. Delhi eventually became the capital of a loose empire of Turkish warlords called the Delhi Sultanate. These sultans treated the Hindus as conquered people.

**Delhi Sultanate** Between the 13th and 16th centuries, 33 different sultans ruled this divided territory from their seat in Delhi. In 1398, Timur the Lame destroyed Delhi. The city was so completely devastated that according to one witness, “for months, not a bird moved in the city.” Delhi eventually was rebuilt. But it was not until the 16th century that a leader arose who would unify the empire.

**Babur Founds an Empire** In 1494, an 11-year-old boy named **Babur**, who counted both Timur the Lame and
Genghis Khan as ancestors, inherited a kingdom in Central Asia. It was only a tiny kingdom, and his elders soon took it away and drove him south. But Babur built up an army. In the years that followed, he swept down into what is now part of Pakistan and northern India and laid the foundation for the vast Mughal Empire.

Babur was a skillful general. In 1526, for example, he led 12,000 troops to victory against an army of 100,000 commanded by a sultan of Delhi. A year later, Babur also defeated a massive Rajput army—soldiers who belonged to regional warrior clans. After Babur’s death, his incompetent son, Humayun, lost most of the territory Babur had gained. Babur’s 13-year-old grandson followed Humayun.

**Akbar’s Golden Age**

Babur’s grandson was called Akbar, which means “Great.” Akbar certainly lived up to his name, ruling India with wisdom and tolerance from 1556 to 1605.

**A Military Conqueror** Akbar recognized military power as the root of his strength. In his opinion, a king must always be aggressive so that his neighbors will not try to conquer him. Like the Safavids and the Ottomans, Akbar equipped his armies with heavy artillery. Cannons enabled him to break into walled cities and extend his rule into much of the Deccan plateau. He also appointed some Rajputs as officers. In this way he turned potential enemies into allies. This combination of military power and political wisdom enabled Akbar to unify a land of at least 100 million people—more than in all of Europe put together.

**A Liberal Ruler** Akbar was a genius at cultural blending. He continued the Islamic tradition of religious freedom. He permitted people of other religions to practice their faiths. He proved his tolerance by marrying Hindu princesses without forcing them to convert. He allowed his wives to practice their religious rituals in the palace. He proved his tolerance again by abolishing both the tax on Hindu pilgrims and the hated jizya, or tax on non-Muslims. He even appointed a Spanish Jesuit to tutor his second son.

Akbar governed through a bureaucracy of officials. Natives and foreigners, Hindus and Muslims, could all rise to high office. This approach contributed to the quality of his government. Akbar’s chief finance minister, Todar Mal, a Hindu, created a clever—and effective—taxation policy. He levied a tax similar to the present-day graduated income tax of the United States, calculating it as a percentage of the value of the peasants’ crops. Because this tax was fair and affordable, the number of peasants who paid it increased. This payment brought in much needed money for the empire.

Akbar’s land policies had more mixed results. He gave generous land grants to his bureaucrats. After they died, however, he reclaimed the lands and distributed them as he saw fit. On the positive side, this policy prevented the growth of feudal aristocracies. On the other hand, it did not encourage dedication and hard work by the Mughal officials.
children would not inherit the land or benefit from their parents’ work. So the officials apparently saw no point in devoting themselves to their property.

**Blended Cultures** As Akbar extended the Mughal Empire, he welcomed influences from the many cultures in the empire. This cultural blending affected art, education, politics, and language. Persian was the language of Akbar's court and of high culture. The common people, however, spoke Hindi, a language derived from Sanskrit. Hindi remains one of the most widely spoken languages in India today. Out of the Mughal armies, where soldiers of many backgrounds rubbed shoulders, came yet another new language. This language was Urdu, which means “from the soldier’s camp.” A blend of Arabic, Persian, and Hindi, Urdu is today the official language of Pakistan.
Akbar (1542–1605)

Akbar was brilliant and curious, especially about religion. He even invented a religion of his own—the “Divine Faith”—after learning about Hinduism, Jainism, Christianity, and Sufism. The religion attracted few followers, however, and offended Muslims so much that they attempted a brief revolt against Akbar in 1581. When he died, so did the “Divine Faith.”

Surprisingly, despite his wisdom and his achievements, Akbar could not read. He hired others to read to him from his library of 24,000 books.

The Arts and Literature  The arts flourished at the Mughal court, especially in the form of book illustrations. These small, highly detailed, and colorful paintings were called miniatures. Mughal miniatures combined Persian and Hindu influences. They were brought to a peak of perfection in the Safavid Empire. Babur’s son, Humayun, brought two masters of this art to his court to teach it to the Mughals. Some of the most famous Mughal miniatures adorned the Akbarnamah (“Book of Akbar”), the story of the great emperor’s campaigns and deeds.

Hindu literature also enjoyed a revival in Akbar’s time. The poet Tulsi Das, for example, was a contemporary of Akbar’s. He retold the epic love story of Rama and Sita from ancient Sanskrit poem the Ramayana (rah•MAH•yuh•nuh) in Hindi. This retelling, the Ramcharitmanas, is now even more popular than the original, having spread to places like the Caribbean, South Africa, and Southeast Asia over the centuries.

Architecture  Akbar devoted himself to architecture too. The style developed under his reign is still known as Akbar period architecture. Its massive but graceful structures are decorated with intricate stonework that portrays Hindu themes. The capital city of Fatehpur Sikri is one of the most important examples of this type of architecture. Akbar had this red-sandstone city built to thank a Sufi saint, Sheik Salim Chisti, who had predicted the birth of his first son.

Akbar’s Successors

With Akbar’s death in 1605, the Mughal court changed to deal with the changing times. The next three emperors each left his mark on the Mughal Empire.

Jahangir and Nur Jahan  Akbar’s son called himself Jahangir (juh•hahn•geer), or “Grasper of the World.” However, for most of his reign, he left the affairs of state to his wife, who ruled with an iron hand.
Jahangir’s wife was the Persian princess Nur Jahan. She was a brilliant politician who perfectly understood the use of power. As the real ruler of India, she installed her father as prime minister in the Mughal court. She saw Jahangir’s son Khusrau as her ticket to future power. But when Khusrau rebelled against his father, Nur Jahan removed him. She then shifted her favor to another son.

This rejection of Khusrau affected more than the political future of the empire. It was also the basis of a long and bitter religious conflict that fostered future disputes over authority and power. Jahangir tried to promote Islam in the Mughal state, but was tolerant of other religions. When Khusrau rebelled, he turned to the Sikhs. Sikhism had emerged as a major religion and was gaining followers because of its egalitarian message. It was this message of equality between human beings regardless of their religion, gender, or caste that had drawn Khusrau to the Sikhs. Their prophet, Guru Arjun, sheltered Khusrau and defended him. In response, the Mughal rulers had Guru Arjun arrested and tortured to death. The Sikhs became the target of the Mughals’ particular hatred.

Shah Jahan  

Jahangir’s son and successor, Shah Jahan, could not tolerate competition and secured his throne by assassinating all his possible rivals.

Now and Then

Women Leaders of the Indian Subcontinent

Since World War II, the subcontinent of India has seen the rise of several powerful women. Unlike Nur Jahan, however, they achieved power on their own—not through their husbands.

Indira Gandhi headed the Congress Party and dominated Indian politics for almost 30 years. She was elected prime minister in 1966 and again in 1980. She suspended democracy during an era known as “The Emergency.” Gandhi was assassinated in 1984 by her Sikh bodyguards.

Benazir Bhutto took charge of the Pakistan People’s Party after her father was assassinated. She became prime minister in 1988, the first woman to run a modern Muslim state. Reelected in 1993, she was dismissed from office in 1996 and went into exile. She returned from exile in 2007 but was killed by a suicide bomb attack just months later.

Chandrika Bandaranaike Kumaratunga was the fifth president of Sri Lanka. She was first elected in 1994 and served until 2005. She survived an assassination attempt in 1999 and was reelected.

Khaleda Zia became Bangladesh’s first woman prime minister in 1991. She was reelected several times, the last time in 2001.

Pratibha Patil, elected in 2007, was India’s first female president. She retired from office in 2012.
He had a great passion for two things: beautiful buildings and his wife Mumtaz Mahal (moom•TAHZ mah•HAHL). Nur Jahan had arranged this marriage between Jahangir’s son and her niece for political reasons. Shah Jahan, however, fell genuinely in love with his Persian princess.

In 1631, Mumtaz Mahal died at age 39 while giving birth to her 14th child. To enshrine his wife's memory, he ordered that a tomb be built “as beautiful as she was beautiful.” Fine white marble and fabulous jewels were gathered from many parts of Asia. This memorial, the **Taj Mahal**, has been called one of the most beautiful buildings in the world. Its towering marble dome and slender minaret towers look like lace and seem to change color as the sun moves across the sky.

**The People Suffer** But while Shah Jahan was building gardens, monuments, and forts, his country was suffering. There was famine in the land. Furthermore, farmers needed tools, roads, and ways of irrigating their crops and dealing with India’s harsh environment. What they got instead were taxes and more taxes to support the building of monuments, their rulers’ extravagant lifestyles, and war.

All was not well in the royal court either. When Shah Jahan became ill in 1657, his four sons scrambled for the throne. The third son, **Aurangzeb** (AWR•uhng•zehb), moved first and most decisively. In a bitter civil war, he executed his older brother, who was his most serious rival. Then he arrested his father and put him in prison, where he died several years later. After Shah Jahan’s death, a mirror was found in his room, angled so that he could look out at the reflection of the Taj Mahal.

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**History in Depth**

**Building the Taj Mahal**

The Taj Mahal in Agra, India, is one of the world’s architectural marvels. Some 20,000 workers from all over India and central Asia labored for 22 years to build the famous tomb. It is made of white marble brought from 250 miles away. The minaret towers are about 130 feet high. The spires atop the building guide one’s eyes upward.

The design of the building is a blend of Hindu and Muslim styles. The pointed arches are of Muslim design, and the perforated marble windows and doors are typical of a style found in Hindu temples.

The main structure is a dazzling white marble mausoleum that overlooks a garden. The inside of the building is a glittering garden of thousands of carved marble flowers inlaid with tiny precious stones. One tiny flower has 60 different inlays.

Often called the most beautiful building in the world, the Taj Mahal is a monument to love and the Mughal Empire.
Aurangzeb's Reign  A master at military strategy and an aggressive empire builder, Aurangzeb ruled from 1658 to 1707. He expanded the Mughal holdings to their greatest size. However, the power of the empire weakened during his reign.

This loss of power was due largely to Aurangzeb’s oppression of the people. He rigidly enforced Islamic laws by outlawing drinking, gambling, and other activities viewed as vices. He appointed censors to police his subjects’ morals and make sure they prayed at the appointed times. He also tried to erase all the gains Hindus had made under Akbar. For example, he brought back the hated tax on non-Muslims and dismissed Hindus from high positions in his government. He banned the construction of new temples and had Hindu monuments destroyed. Not surprisingly, these actions outraged the Hindus.

The Hindu Rajputs, whom Akbar had converted from potential enemies to allies, rebelled. Aurangzeb defeated them repeatedly, but never completely. In the southwest, a Hindu warrior community called Marathas founded their own state. Their greatest leader was Shivaji, an influential warrior king whose government included modern concepts, such as a cabinet of advisers. Aurangzeb captured Shivaji, but he escaped, and the Marathas remained unconquered. Meanwhile, after Aurangzeb executed
Guru Tegh Bahadur for refusing to convert to Islam, the Sikhs continued to develop and transformed themselves into a brotherhood of warriors, emerging as a major power. Sikhism was concentrated in the Punjab, an area in northwest India. A series of military conflicts between the Sikhs and Mughal forces took place there in the early 17th century. Punjab is still the center of Sikhism today.

Aurangzeb levied heavy taxes to pay for these wars against increasing numbers of enemies. He had done away with all taxes not authorized by Islamic law, so he doubled the taxes on Hindu merchants. This increased tax burden deepened the Hindus’ bitterness and led to further rebellion. As a result, Aurangzeb needed to raise more money to increase his army. The more territory he conquered, the more desperate his situation became.

The Empire’s Decline and Decay

By the end of Aurangzeb’s reign, he had drained the empire of its resources. More than 2 million people died in a famine while Aurangzeb was away waging war. Most of his subjects felt little or no loyalty to him. Meanwhile, the power of local lords grew. After Aurangzeb’s death, his sons fought a war of succession. In fact, three emperors reigned in the first 12 years after Aurangzeb died. The Mughal emperor was nothing but a wealthy figurehead. He did not rule a united empire, but a patchwork of independent states.

As the Mughal Empire rose and fell, Western traders slowly built their own power in the region. The Portuguese were the first Europeans to reach India. In fact, they arrived just before Babur did. Next came the Dutch, who in turn gave way to the French and the English. However, the great Mughal emperors did not feel threatened by the European traders. In 1661, Aurangzeb responded to these outsiders by casually handing them the port of Bombay. Aurangzeb had no idea that he had given India’s next conquerors their first foothold in a future empire.

Lesson 1 Assessment

1. **Organize Information** Create a timeline similar to the one shown and fill it in with the names and key dates for the following Mughal emperors: Babur (given for you), Humayun, Akbar, Jahangir (and Nur Jahan), Shah Jahan, and Aurangzeb.

   ![Timeline](image)

   Which of the emperors on your timeline had a positive effect on the empire? Which had negative effects?

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

3. **Compare** How did Akbar demonstrate tolerance in his empire, and how did his policy compare to earlier interactions between Muslims and Hindus?

4. **Draw Conclusions** What pattern is seen in the ways individuals came to power in the Mughal Empire?

5. **Analyze Causes** Why did the empire weaken under the rule of Aurangzeb?

6. **Summarize** Why were Akbar’s tax policies so successful?

7. **Make Inferences** Why was Nur Jahan able to hold so much power in Jahangir’s court?
Cultural Blending in Mughal India

Mughal India enjoyed a golden age under Akbar. Part of Akbar’s success—indeed, the success of the Mughals—came from his religious tolerance. India’s population was largely Hindu, and the incoming Mughal rulers were Muslim. The Mughal emperors encouraged the blending of cultures to create a united India.

This cultural integration can be seen in the art of Mughal India. Muslim artists focused heavily on art with ornate patterns of flowers and leaves, called arabesque or geometric patterns. Hindu artists created naturalistic and often ornate artworks. These two artistic traditions came together and created a style unique to Mughal India. As you can see, the artistic collaboration covered a wide range of art forms.

DECORATIVE ARTS

Decorative work on items from dagger handles to pottery exhibits the same cultural blending as other Mughal art forms. This dagger handle shows some of the floral and geometric elements common in Muslim art, but the realistic depiction of the horse comes out of the Hindu tradition.

ARCHITECTURE

Mughal emperors brought to India a strong Muslim architectural tradition. Indian artisans were extremely talented with local building materials—specifically, marble and sandstone. Together, they created some of the most striking and enduring architecture in the world, like Humayun’s Tomb shown here.
Mughal fabrics included geometric patterns found in Persian designs, but Mughal weavers, like other Mughal artisans, also produced original designs. Common themes in Mughal fabrics included landscapes, animal chases, floral latticeworks, and central flowering plants like the one on this tent hanging.

Mughal painting was largely a product of the royal court. Persian artists brought to court by Mughal emperors had a strong influence, but Mughal artists quickly developed their own characteristics. The Mughal style kept aspects of the Persian influence—particularly the flat aerial perspective, which demonstrated an artistic ideal. But, as seen in this colorful painting, the Indian artists incorporated more naturalism and detail from the world around them.

**Critical Thinking**

1. **Clarify** What does the art suggest about the culture of Mughal India?
2. **Form Opinions** What are some modern examples of cultural blending in art? What elements of each culture are represented in the artwork? Consider other art forms, such as music and literature, as well.
Europeans Explore the East

**The Big Idea**
Advances in sailing technology enabled Europeans to explore other parts of the world.

**Why It Matters Now**
European exploration was an important step toward the global interaction existing in the world today.

**Key Terms and People**
- Prince Henry
- Bartolomeu Dias
- Vasco da Gama
- Treaty of Tordesillas
- Dutch East India Company

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**Setting the Stage**

By the early 1400s, Europeans were ready to venture beyond their borders. The Renaissance encouraged, among other things, a new spirit of adventure and curiosity. This spirit of adventure, along with several other important factors, prompted Europeans to explore the world around them. This module describes how these explorations began a long process that would bring together the peoples of many different lands and permanently change the world.

**For “God, Glory, and Gold”**

Europeans had not been completely isolated from the rest of the world before the 1400s. Beginning around 1100, European crusaders battled Muslims for control of the Holy Lands in Southwest Asia. In 1275, the Italian trader Marco Polo reached the court of Kublai Khan in China. For the most part, however, Europeans had neither the interest nor the ability to explore foreign lands. That changed by the early 1400s. The desire to grow rich and to spread Christianity, coupled with advances in sailing technology, spurred an age of European exploration.

**Europeans Seek New Trade Routes**
The desire for new sources of wealth was the main reason for European exploration. Through overseas exploration, merchants and traders hoped ultimately to benefit from what had become a profitable business in Europe: the trade of spices and other luxury goods from Asia. The people of Europe had been introduced to these items during the Crusades, the wars fought between Christians and Muslims from 1096 to 1270. After the Crusades ended, Europeans continued to demand such spices as nutmeg, ginger, cinnamon, and pepper, all of which added flavor to the bland foods of Europe. Because demand for these goods was greater than the supply, merchants could charge high prices and thus make great profits.
The Muslims and the Italians controlled trade from East to West. Muslims sold Asian goods to Italian merchants, who controlled trade across the land routes of the Mediterranean region. The Italians resold the items at increased prices to merchants throughout Europe.

Other European traders did not like this arrangement. Paying such high prices to the Italians severely cut into their own profits. By the 1400s, European merchants—as well as the new monarchs of England, Spain, Portugal, and France—sought to bypass the Italian merchants. This meant finding a sea route directly to Asia.

**The Spread of Christianity** The desire to spread Christianity also motivated Europeans to explore. The Crusades had left Europeans with a taste for spices, but more significantly with feelings of hostility between Christians and Muslims. European countries believed that they had a sacred duty not only to continue fighting Muslims, but also to convert non-Christians throughout the world.

Europeans hoped to obtain popular goods directly from the peoples of Asia. They also hoped to Christianize them. Bernal Díaz del Castillo, an early Spanish explorer, explained his motives: “To serve God and His Majesty, to give light to those who were in darkness and to grow rich as all men desire to do.”

**Technology Makes Exploration Possible** While “God, glory, and gold” were the primary motives for exploration, advances in technology made the voyages of discovery possible. During the 1200s, it would have been nearly impossible for a European sea captain to cross 3,000 miles of ocean and return again. The main problem was that European ships could not sail against the wind. In the 1400s, shipbuilders designed a new vessel, the caravel. The caravel was sturdier than earlier vessels. In addition, triangular sails adopted from the Arabs allowed it to sail effectively against the wind.

Europeans also improved their navigational techniques. To better determine their location at sea, sailors used the astrolabe, which Islamic astronomers and mathematicians had perfected. The astrolabe was a brass circle with carefully adjusted rings marked off in degrees. Using the rings to sight the stars, a sea captain could calculate latitude, or how far north or south of the equator the ship was. Explorers were also able to more accurately track direction by using a magnetic compass, a Chinese invention. Some historians believe the magnetic compass was exchanged between the Chinese and other groups during journeys that ran along various transportation routes.

The Portuguese are credited with perfecting a 16-point wind rose, a tool that showed from which direction the wind was blowing. Captains wrote down the measurements obtained from these tools, as well as observed ocean current patterns, in pilot books, or navigation charts, for use during future voyages.
Portugal Leads the Way

The leader in developing and applying these sailing innovations was Portugal. Located on the Atlantic Ocean at the southwest corner of Europe, Portugal was the first European country to establish trading outposts along the west coast of Africa. Eventually, Portuguese explorers pushed farther east into the Indian Ocean.

The Portuguese Explore Africa  Portugal took the lead in overseas exploration in part due to strong government investment. The nation's most enthusiastic supporter of exploration was Prince Henry, the son of Portugal’s king. Henry's dreams of overseas exploration began in 1415 when he helped conquer the Muslim city of Ceuta in North Africa. There, he had his first glimpse of the dazzling wealth that lay beyond Europe. In Ceuta, the Portuguese invaders found exotic stores filled with pepper, cinnamon, cloves, and other spices. In addition, they encountered large supplies of gold, silver, and jewels.

Henry returned to Portugal determined to reach the source of these treasures in the East. The prince also wished to spread the Christian faith. In 1419, Henry founded a navigation school on the southwestern coast of Portugal. Mapmakers, instrument makers, shipbuilders, scientists, and sea captains gathered there to perfect their trade.

Within several years, and with considerable investment from the monarchy, Portuguese ships began sailing down the western coast of Africa. By the time Henry died in 1460, the Portuguese had established a series of trading posts along western Africa's shores. There, they traded with Africans for such profitable items as gold and ivory. Eventually, they traded for African captives to be used as slaves. Having established their presence along the African coast, Portuguese explorers plotted their next move. They would attempt to find a sea route to Asia.

Prince Henry
(1394–1460)

For his role in promoting Portuguese exploration, historians call Prince Henry “the Navigator.” Although he never went on voyages of discovery, Henry was consumed by the quest to find new lands and to spread Christianity. A devout Catholic, he wanted “to make increase in the faith of our lord Jesus Christ and bring to him all the souls that should be saved.”

To that end, Henry used his own fortune to organize more than 14 voyages along the western coast of Africa, which was previously unexplored by Europeans. As a result, Henry died in debt. The Portuguese crown spent more than 60 years paying off his debts.

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The Tools of Exploration

Out on the open seas, winds easily blew ships off course. With only the sun, moon, and stars to guide them, few sailors willingly ventured beyond the sight of land. In order to travel to distant places, European inventors and sailors experimented with new tools for navigation and new designs for sailing ships, often borrowing from other cultures.

⚠️ Here, a French mariner uses an early navigation instrument that he has brought ashore to fix his ship’s position. It was difficult to make accurate calculations aboard wave-tossed vessels.

⚠️ The sextant replaced the astrolabe in the mid-1700s as the instrument for measuring the height of the stars above the horizon to determine latitude and longitude.

⚠️ This 17th-century compass is typical of those taken by navigators on voyages of exploration. The compass was invented by the Chinese.

1. The average caravel was between 65 and 75 feet long. This versatile ship had triangular sails for maneuverability and square sails for power.

2. The large cargo area could hold the numerous supplies needed for long voyages.

3. Its shallow draft (depth of the ship’s keel below the water) allowed it to explore close to the shore.

⚠️ The sextant replaced the astrolabe in the mid-1700s as the instrument for measuring the height of the stars above the horizon to determine latitude and longitude.

**Critical Thinking**

1. **Analyze Motives** Why did inventors and sailors develop better tools for navigation?

2. **Summarize** What types of navigational or other tools do sailors use today? Choose one type of tool and write a brief explanation of what it does.
Analyze Effects
How did Prince Henry’s experiences in Africa impact his decision to open a navigation school?

Portuguese Sailors Reach Asia  The Portuguese believed that to reach Asia by sea, they would have to sail around the southern tip of Africa. In 1488, Portuguese captain Bartolomeu Dias ventured far down the coast of Africa until he and his crew reached the tip. As they arrived, a huge storm rose and battered the fleet for days. When the storm ended, Dias realized his ships had been blown around the tip to the other side. Dias explored the southeast coast of Africa and then considered sailing to India. However, his crew was exhausted and food supplies were low. As a result, the captain returned home.

With the tip of Africa finally rounded, the Portuguese continued pushing east. In 1497, Portuguese explorer Vasco da Gama began exploring the east African coast. In 1498, he reached the port of Calicut, on the southwestern coast of India. Da Gama and his crew were amazed by the spices, rare silks, and precious gems that filled Calicut’s shops. The Portuguese sailors filled their ships with such spices as pepper and cinnamon and returned to Portugal in 1499. Their cargo was worth 60 times the cost of the voyage. Da Gama’s remarkable voyage of 27,000 miles had given Portugal a direct sea route to India.

Spain Also Makes Claims
As the Portuguese were establishing trading posts along the west coast of Africa, Spain watched with increasing envy. The Spanish monarchs also desired a direct sea route to Asia.

In 1492, an Italian sea captain, Christopher Columbus, convinced Spain to finance a bold plan: finding a route to Asia by sailing west across the Atlantic Ocean. In October of that year, Columbus reached an island in the
Caribbean. He was mistaken in his thought that he had reached the East Indies. But his voyage would open the way for European colonization of the Americas—a process that would forever change the world. The immediate impact of Columbus’s voyage, however, was to increase tensions between Spain and Portugal.

The Portuguese believed that Columbus had indeed reached Asia. Portugal suspected that Columbus had claimed for Spain lands that Portuguese sailors might have reached first. The rivalry between Spain and Portugal grew more tense. In 1493, Pope Alexander VI stepped in to keep peace between the two nations. He suggested an imaginary dividing line, drawn north to south, through the Atlantic Ocean. All lands to the west of the line, known as the Line of Demarcation, would be Spain’s. These lands included most of the Americas. All lands to the east of the line would belong to Portugal.

Portugal complained that the line gave too much to Spain. So it was moved farther west to include parts of modern-day Brazil for the Portuguese. In 1494, Spain and Portugal signed the Treaty of Tordesillas, in which they agreed to honor the line. The era of exploration and colonization was about to begin in earnest.

Trading Empires in the Indian Ocean

With da Gama’s voyage, Europeans had finally opened direct sea trade with Asia. They also opened an era of violent conflict in the East. European nations scrambled to establish profitable trading outposts along the shores of South and Southeast Asia. All the while, they battled the region’s inhabitants, as well as each other.

Portugal’s Trading Empire In the years following da Gama’s voyage, the Portuguese monarchy’s investment in global exploration began to pay off. Portugal built a bustling trading empire throughout the Indian Ocean. As the Portuguese moved into the region, they took control of the spice trade from Muslim merchants. In 1509, Portugal extended its control over the area when it defeated a Muslim fleet off the coast of India, a victory made possible by the cannons they had added aboard their ships. Five years later, Portugal established control of the Strait of Hormuz, connecting the Persian Gulf and Arabian Sea, and helped stop Muslim traders from reaching India. The Portuguese also oversaw the destruction of mosques and Hindu temples in the lands they took, forcing locals to convert to Christianity.

In 1510, the Portuguese captured Goa, a port city on India’s west coast. They made it the capital of their trading empire. They then sailed farther east to Indonesia, also known as the East Indies. In 1511, a Portuguese fleet attacked the city of Malacca on the west coast of the Malay Peninsula. In capturing the town, the Portuguese seized control of the Strait of Malacca. Seizing this waterway gave them control of the Moluccas. These were islands so rich in spices that they became known as the Spice Islands.
In convincing his crew to attack Malacca, Portuguese sea captain Afonso de Albuquerque stressed his country’s intense desire to crush the Muslim-Italian domination over Asian trade:

“If we deprive them [Muslims] of this their ancient market there, there does not remain for them a single port in the whole of these parts, where they can carry on their trade in these things. . . . I hold it as very certain that if we take this trade of Malacca away out of their hands, Cairo and Mecca are entirely ruined, and to Venice will no spiceries . . . [be] . . . conveyed except that which her merchants go and buy in Portugal.”

—Afonso de Albuquerque, from The Commentaries of the Great Afonso Dalboquerque

Portugal did break the old Muslim-Italian domination on trade from the East, much to the delight of European consumers. Portuguese merchants brought back goods from Asia at about one-fifth of what they cost when purchased through the Arabs and Italians. As a result, more Europeans could afford these items.

In time, Portugal’s success in Asia attracted the attention of other European nations. As early as 1521, a Spanish expedition led by Ferdinand Magellan arrived in the Philippines. Spain claimed the islands and began settling them in 1565. By the early 1600s, the rest of Europe had begun to descend upon Asia. They wanted to establish their own trade empires in the East.

**Other Nations Challenge the Portuguese** Beginning around 1600, the English and Dutch began to challenge Portugal’s dominance over the Indian Ocean trade. The Dutch Republic, also known as the Netherlands, was a small country situated along the North Sea in northwestern Europe. Since the early 1500s, Spain had ruled the area. In 1581, the people of the region declared their independence from Spain and established the Dutch Republic.

In a short time, the Netherlands became a leading sea power. By 1600, the Dutch owned the largest fleet of ships in the world. Pressure from Dutch and also English fleets eroded Portuguese control of the Asian region. The Dutch and English then battled one another for dominance of the area.

Both countries had formed an East India Company to establish and direct trade throughout Asia. These companies had the power to mint money, make treaties, and even raise their own armies. The Dutch East India Company was richer and more powerful than England’s company. As a result, the Dutch eventually drove out the English and established their dominance over the region.
While the Dutch were similar to Spain and Portugal in their desire to develop profitable trade, they were different in other ways. For one, the Dutch East India Company was founded by the government, not a monarch. Another difference was that the Dutch were not seeking to spread the Christian faith. They were only interested in expanding economically.

**Dutch Trade Outposts** In 1619, the Dutch established their trading headquarters at Batavia on the island of Java. From there, they expanded west to conquer several nearby islands. In addition, the Dutch seized both the port of Malacca and the valuable Spice Islands from Portugal. Throughout the 1600s, the Netherlands increased its control over the Indian Ocean trade. With so many goods from the East traveling to the Netherlands, the nation’s capital, Amsterdam, became a leading commercial center. By 1700, the Dutch ruled much of Indonesia and had trading posts in several Asian countries. They also controlled the Cape of Good Hope on the southern tip of Africa, which was used as a resupply stop.

**British and French Traders** Also by 1700, Britain and France had gained a foothold in the region. Having failed to win control of the larger area, the
Now and Then

Trading Partners
Global trade is important to the economies of Asian countries now just as it was when the region first began to export spices, silks, and gems centuries ago. Today, a variety of products, including automobiles, electronic goods, tea, and textiles, are shipped around the world. (Hong Kong harbor is pictured.)
Regional trade organizations help to strengthen economic cooperation among Asian nations and promote international trade. They include the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) and the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC).

Reading Check
Recognize Effects
How did the arrival of the Europeans affect the peoples of the East in general?

English East India Company focused much of its energy on establishing outposts in India. There, the English developed a successful business trading Indian cloth in Europe. In 1664, France also entered the Asia trade with its own East India Company. It struggled at first, as it faced continual attacks by the Dutch. Eventually, the French company established an outpost in India in the 1720s. However, it never showed much of a profit.

As the Europeans battled for a share of the profitable Indian Ocean trade, their influence inland in Southeast Asia remained limited. European traders did take control of many port cities in the region. But their impact rarely spread beyond the ports. From 1500 to about 1800, when Europeans began to conquer much of the region, the peoples of Asia remained largely unaffected by European contact. European traders who sailed farther east to seek riches in China and Japan had even less success in spreading Western culture.

Lesson 2 Assessment

1. Organize Information  Create a timeline similar to the one shown and write on it the names and dates of the following key events in the European exploration of the East: Portuguese gain control of Strait of Malacca; Dias sails around tip of Africa; Prince Henry founds navigation school; Da Gama reaches Calicut. Which event is the most significant?

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

3. Synthesize  What was Prince Henry’s goal and who actually achieved it?

4. Make Inferences  What did the Treaty of Tordesillas reveal about Europeans’ attitudes toward non-European lands and peoples?

5. Analyze Motives  What were the motives behind European exploration in the 1400s? Explain.

6. Recognize Effects  In what ways did Europeans owe some of their sailing technology to other peoples?
Lesson 3

China and Japan
Reject Expansion

The Big Idea
China under the Ming and Qing dynasties and Japan under the Tokugawa regime were uninterested in European contact.

Why It Matters Now
China and Japan's economic independence from the West continues today, though China is pursuing new economic ties with the outside world.

Key Terms and People
- Ming Dynasty
- Hongwu
- Yonglo
- Zheng He
- Manchus
- Qing Dynasty
- Kangxi
- daimyo
- Oda Nobunaga
- Toyotomi Hideyoshi
- Tokugawa Shogunate
- haiku
- kabuki

Setting the Stage
The European voyages of exploration had led to opportunities for trade. Europeans made healthy profits from trade in the Indian Ocean region. They began looking for additional sources of wealth. Soon, European countries were seeking trade relationships in East Asia, first with China and later with Japan. By the time Portuguese ships dropped anchor off the Chinese coast in 1514, the Chinese had driven out their Mongol rulers and had united under a new dynasty.

China Under the Powerful Ming Dynasty
China had become the dominant power in Asia under the Ming Dynasty (1368–1644). In recognition of China's power, vassal states from Korea to Southeast Asia paid their Ming overlords regular tribute, which is a payment by one country to another to acknowledge its submission. China expected Europeans to do the same. Ming rulers were not going to allow outsiders from distant lands to threaten the peace and prosperity the Ming had brought to China when they ended Mongol rule.

The Rise of the Ming
A peasant's son, Hongwu, commanded the rebel army that drove the Mongols out of China in 1368. That year, he became the first Ming emperor. Hongwu continued to rule from the former Yuan capital of Nanjing in the south. He began reforms designed to restore agricultural lands devastated by war, erase nearly all traces of the Mongol past, and promote China's power and prosperity. Hongwu's agricultural reforms increased rice production and improved irrigation. He also encouraged fish farming and growing commercial crops, such as cotton and sugar cane.

Hongwu used respected traditions and institutions to bring stability to China. For example, he encouraged a return
to Confucian moral standards. He improved imperial administration by restoring the merit-based civil service examination system. Later in his rule, however, when problems developed, Hongwu became a ruthless tyrant. Suspecting plots against his rule everywhere, he conducted purges of the government, killing thousands of officials.

**Yonglo** Hongwu’s death in 1398 led to a power struggle. His son **Yonglo** (yung•lu) emerged victorious. Yonglo continued many of his father’s policies, although he moved the royal court to Beijing.

Yonglo also had a far-ranging curiosity about the outside world. In 1405, before Europeans began to sail beyond their borders, he launched the first of seven voyages of exploration. He hoped they would impress the world with the power and splendor of Ming China. He also wanted to expand China’s tribute system.

**The Voyages of Zheng He** A Chinese Muslim admiral named **Zheng He** (jung-huh) led all of the seven voyages. His expeditions were remarkable for their size. Everything about them was large—distances traveled, fleet size, and ship measurements. The voyages ranged from Southeast Asia to eastern Africa. From 40 to 300 ships sailed in each expedition. Among them were fighting ships, storage vessels, and huge “treasure” ships measuring more than 400 feet long. The fleet’s crews numbered over 27,000 on some voyages. They included sailors, soldiers, carpenters, interpreters, accountants, doctors, and religious leaders. Like a huge floating city, the fleet sailed from port to port along the Indian Ocean.

Everywhere Zheng He went, he distributed gifts such as silver and silk to show Chinese superiority. As a result, more than 16 countries sent tribute to the Ming court. Even so, Chinese scholar-officials complained that the voyages wasted valuable resources that could be used to defend against barbarians’ attacks on the northern frontier. After the seventh voyage, in 1433, China withdrew into isolation.
History in Depth

The Forbidden City

When Yonglo moved the Chinese capital to Beijing, he ordered the building of a great palace complex to symbolize his power and might. Construction took 14 years, from 1406 to 1420. Red walls 35 feet in height surrounded the complex, which had dozens of buildings, including palaces and temples. The complex became known as the Forbidden City because commoners and foreigners were not allowed to enter.

Hall of Supreme Harmony
Taihe Hall, or the Hall of Supreme Harmony, is the largest building in the compound. It measures 201 by 122 feet and stands about 125 feet high. This hall was used for important ceremonies, such as those marking the emperor’s birthday or the day the crown prince took the throne.

Nine-Dragon Wall
This wall, or screen, of glazed tiles shows nine dragons playing with pearls against a background of sea and sky. From ancient times, the dragon was the symbol of the imperial family. This is the largest of three famous nine-dragon screens in China.

Hall of Central Harmony
Zhonge Hall, or the Hall of Central Harmony, was a smaller square building between the two main halls. It was a sort of private office where the emperor could stop to rest on his way to ceremonies.

Interpret Visuals
1. Analyze Motives Why do you think the emperor wanted to keep common people out of the Forbidden City?
2. Draw Conclusions What aspects of the Forbidden City helped to convey the power of the emperor?
History in Depth

Different Realms Circa 1400

By the year 1400, the size and power of the world’s Muslim, Confucian, and Christian realms varied widely across the Eastern Hemisphere.

**Islam**  Muslim dynasties and empires occupied lands across the Middle East, large portions of Africa, and parts of Europe. The Ottoman Empire controlled land around the Mediterranean Sea, including present-day Turkey and Greece. Around 1400, it was expanding into territories of the Byzantine Empire. The Delhi Sultanate in present-day India had begun breaking up by 1400. The wealthy Songhai Empire of West Africa had a powerful military that controlled the trans-Saharan trade routes in the region. Predominantly Muslim trading cities like Mogadishu and Kilwa dotted Africa’s east coast.

**Confucianism**  In 1400, there was a renewed focus on Confucianism in China under the Ming dynasty. Ming China covered the eastern half of modern-day China and was powerful enough to demand tribute from surrounding states, such as Korea. Korea, too, was a Confucian state in 1400.

**Christianity**  The Christian realm in the year 1400 could be divided into two broad parts: Western Christianity, which referred to Catholicism in Europe, and Eastern Christianity, which included Eastern Orthodox and Oriental Orthodox Christian populations. Catholicism was in the midst of a division called the Great Western Schism. Two popes had been elected and their followers were split along national lines. This exacerbated rivalries between various European Christian states. Eastern Orthodoxy was prevalent in Russia, Hungary, Greece, and parts of Turkey, but the Byzantine Empire had already suffered more than 100 years of decline and lost much territory. Oriental Orthodoxy was found in Egypt, Ethiopia, pockets of the Middle East, and a region of India.

**Ming Relations with Foreign Countries**  China’s official trade policies in the 1500s reflected its isolation. To keep the influence of outsiders to a minimum, only the government was to conduct foreign trade, and only through three coastal ports: Canton, Macao, and Ningbo. In reality, trade flourished up and down the coast. Profit-minded merchants smuggled cargoes of silk, porcelain, and other valuable goods out of the country into the eager hands of European merchants. Usually, Europeans paid for purchases with silver, much of it from mines in the Americas.

Demand for Chinese goods had affected the economy. Industries such as silk-making and ceramics grew rapidly. Manufacturing and commerce increased. But China did not become highly industrialized for two main reasons. First, the idea of commerce offended Confucian beliefs. Second, Chinese economic policies traditionally favored agriculture. Taxes on agriculture stayed low. Taxes on manufacturing and trade skyrocketed.

Christian missionaries accompanied European traders into China. They brought Christianity and knowledge of European science and technology, such as the clock. The first missionary to have an impact was an Italian Jesuit named Matteo Ricci. He gained special favor at the Ming court through his intelligence and fluency in Chinese.
Still, many educated Chinese opposed the European and Christian presence.

“But I was careful not to refer to these Westerners as ‘Great Officials,’ and corrected Governor Liu Yin-shu when he referred to the Jesuits Regis and Fridelli . . . as if they were honored imperial commissioners. For even though some of the Western methods are different from our own, and may even be an improvement, there is little about them that is new. The principles of mathematics all derive from the Book of Changes, and the Western methods are Chinese in origin: this algebra—‘A-erh-chu-pa-erh’—springs from an Eastern word. And though it was indeed the Westerners who showed us something our ancient calendar experts did not know—namely how to calculate the angles of the northern pole—this but shows the truth of what Chu Hsi arrived at through his investigation of things: the earth is like the yolk within an egg.”

—Kangxi, quoted in Emperor of China: Self-Portrait of K’ang-Hsi

Interpret Maps

1. **Region**  About what percentage of modern-day China did the Ming Dynasty occupy?

2. **Place**  What about Korea’s location made it susceptible to Ming pressures, such as having to pay tributes?
Ming China’s relationship to its neighbors was reflected in its expansion of the Great Wall. The wall had been repaired during previous dynasties, including the Song, but during the Ming, it saw its greatest extension. Fearing a Mongol invasion, Ming leaders ordered the wall to be maintained and strengthened.

A Stable and Diverse Society After Hongwu expelled the Mongols, he reorganized the government, replaced the Yuan laws with new codes based on Confucian teachings, and established the emperor as the head of the state. Because he was a strong leader, this arrangement created a stable government. It would work less well for later, ineffectual leaders.

The Ming government required candidates for high civil office to pass an official examination based on Confucian traditional texts. This ensured that administrators were highly literate and led to the appointment of many competent officials who were well versed in the Confucian ideals promoted by the Ming.

An institution called the Hanlin Academy, established during the Tang dynasty, issued the official interpretation of primary Confucian books. Hanlin scholars advised the Chinese emperor on history and Confucian thought. Under Hongwu, this Tang-era institution became more political. In his effort to exert direct control over Chinese provinces, Hongwu transformed the Hanlin Academy into an institution of six secretaries that governed various aspects of the empire. These secretaries reported directly to Hongwu.

By 1430, a department called the Censorate was created to enforce anti-corruption laws. Officials of the Censorate traveled to the provinces to complete inspections and could remove corrupt officials from office. Knowing they could be punished by the Censorate encouraged officials to obey the laws and deal honestly with others.

In more diverse provinces, Ming leaders used the military to manage China’s ethnic diversity. For example, in hopes of strengthening Ming control of Yunnan province, whose population included both Han Chinese and non-Han Chinese, the military pushed more Han into the area.

During the Ming era, religion flourished, particularly Buddhism, Confucianism, and Taoism. Temples and other new places of worship were built, and monks taught and wrote about religious ideas. Ming politics and society reflected the dynasty’s religious diversity. For example, officials had Daoist priests perform rituals at the imperial court and for common
people. Daoist priests also composed official hymns at the request of the emperor. The Jesuit missionaries arriving from Europe blended into Chinese society and served as musicians, astronomers, and cartographers at the imperial court. Buddhist monks were officially sanctioned to perform rituals for common people. Many Buddhist and Daoist sects integrated Confucian ideals into their own teachings.

**Manchus Found the Qing Dynasty**

By 1600, the Ming had ruled for more than 200 years, and the dynasty was weakening. Its problems grew—ineffective rulers, corrupt officials, and a government that was out of money. Higher taxes and bad harvests pushed millions of peasants toward starvation. Civil strife and rebellion followed.

Northeast of the Great Wall lay Manchuria. In 1644, the Manchus (MAN•chooz), the people of that region, invaded China and the Ming Dynasty collapsed. The Manchus seized Beijing, and their leader became China’s new emperor. As the Mongols had done in the 1300s, the Manchus took a Chinese name for their dynasty, the Qing (chihng) Dynasty. They would rule for more than 260 years and expand China’s borders to include Taiwan, Chinese Central Asia, Mongolia, and Tibet.

**China Under the Qing** Many Chinese resisted rule by the non-Chinese Manchus. Rebellions flared up periodically for decades. The Manchus, however, slowly earned the people’s respect. They upheld China’s traditional Confucian beliefs and social structures. They made the country’s frontiers safe and restored China’s prosperity. Two powerful Manchu rulers contributed greatly to the acceptance of the new dynasty.

The first, Kangxi (kahng•shee), became emperor in 1661 and ruled for some 60 years. He reduced government expenses and lowered taxes. A scholar and patron of the arts, Kangxi gained the support of intellectuals by offering them government positions. He also enjoyed the company of the Jesuits at court. They told him about developments in science, medicine, and mathematics in Europe.

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**Kangxi (1654–1722)**

The emperor Kangxi had too much curiosity to remain isolated in the Forbidden City. To calm the Chinese in areas devastated by the Manchu conquest, Kangxi set out on a series of “tours.”

“On tours I learned about the common people’s grievances by talking with them. . . . I asked peasants about their officials, looked at their houses, and discussed their crops.”

In 1696, with Mongols threatening the northern border, Kangxi exhibited leadership unheard of in later Ming times. Instead of waiting in the palace for reports, he personally led 80,000 troops to victory over the Mongols.
Under his grandson Qian-long (chyahn•lung), who ruled from 1735 to 1795, China reached its greatest size and prosperity. An industrious emperor like his grandfather, Qian-long often rose at dawn to work on the empire’s problems. These included armed nomads on its borders and the expanding presence of European missionaries and merchants in China.

**Manchus Continue Chinese Isolation** To the Chinese, their country—called the Middle Kingdom—had been the cultural center of the universe for 2,000 years. If foreign states wished to trade with China, they would have to follow Chinese rules. These rules included trading only at special ports and paying tribute.

The Dutch were masters of the Indian Ocean trade by the time of Qian-long. They accepted China’s restrictions. Their diplomats paid tribute to the emperor through gifts and by performing the required “kowtow” ritual. This ritual involved kneeling in front of the emperor and touching one’s head to the ground nine times. As a result, the Chinese accepted the Dutch as trading partners. The Dutch returned home with traditional porcelains and silk, as well as a new trade item, tea. By 1800, tea would make up 80 percent of shipments to Europe.

Great Britain also wanted to increase trade with China. But the British did not like China’s trade restrictions. In 1793, Lord George Macartney delivered a letter from King George III to Qian-long. It asked for a better trade arrangement, including Chinese acceptance of British manufactured goods. Macartney refused to kowtow, and Qian-long denied Britain’s request. China, in the emperor’s view, was self-sufficient.

In the 1800s, the British, Dutch, and others would attempt to chip away at China’s trade restrictions until the empire itself began to crack.

**Korea Under the Manchus** In 1636, even before they came to power in China, the Manchus invaded Korea and made the country change its allegiance from the Ming to the Manchus. Although Korea remained independent, it existed in China’s shadow. Koreans organized their government according to Confucian principles. They also adopted China’s technology, its culture, and especially its policy of isolation.

When the Manchus established the Qing dynasty, Korea’s political relationship with China did not change. But Korea’s attitude did. The Manchu invasion, combined with a Japanese attack in the 1590s, provoked strong feelings of nationalism in the Korean people. This sentiment was most evident in their art. Instead of traditional Chinese subjects, many artists chose to show popular Korean scenes.

**Life in Ming and Qing China**

In the 1600s and 1700s, there was general peace and prosperity in China. Life improved for most Chinese.

**Families and the Role of Women** Most Chinese families had farmed the land the same way their ancestors had. However, during the Qing Dynasty, irrigation and fertilizer use increased. Farmers grew rice and new crops,
China’s Population Boom

China’s population grew dramatically from 1650 to 1900. General peace and increased agricultural productivity were the causes.

The Growth of Early Modern China

![Graph showing the growth of China's population from 1650 to 1900.]

Interpret Graphs
Compare By what percentage did China’s population increase between 1650 and 1900?

such as corn and sweet potatoes, brought by Europeans from the Americas. As food production increased, nutrition improved and families expanded. A population explosion followed.

These expanded Chinese families favored sons over daughters. Only a son was allowed to perform vital religious rituals. A son also would raise his own family under his parents’ roof, assuring aging parents of help with the farming. As a result, females were not valued, and many female infants were killed. Although men dominated the household and their wives, women had significant responsibilities. Besides working in the fields, they supervised the children’s education and managed the family’s finances. While most women were forced to remain secluded in their homes, some found outside jobs such as working as midwives or textile workers.

Cultural Developments The culture of early modern China was based mainly on traditional forms, and these traditions were apparent in all areas of the humanities. The great masterpiece of traditional Chinese fiction was written during this period. *Dream of the Red Chamber* by Cao Zhan examines upper class Manchu society in the 1700s. Most artists of the time painted in traditional styles, which valued technique over creativity. In pottery, technical skill as well as experimentation led to the production of high-quality ceramics, including porcelain. Drama was a popular entertainment, especially in rural China where literacy rates were low. Plays that presented Chinese history and cultural heroes entertained and also helped unify Chinese society by creating a national culture.

Vocabulary
midwife a woman trained to assist women in childbirth
Comparing Renaissance and Ming Cultures

The cultural expansion that occurred under the Ming and Qing dynasties can be compared to the European Renaissance in a few general ways. The movements were similar in that they both sought to connect to their own cultural traditions. The subject matter of these traditions, however, was different.

For example, the Ming court asked painters to imitate the styles and subjects of earlier dynasties. In Italy, Renaissance thinkers and artists focused on classical Roman and Greek topics like astronomy and philosophy for inspiration. Interest in Christianity, which was held by Northern European Renaissance figures, was not shared by Chinese thinkers, who looked instead to traditional Confucian teachings and texts.

One shared value was a focus on individual artistic expression. For example, many Chinese artists developed their own style of calligraphy. In calligraphy, the painting of Chinese characters attains great beauty. The personal style of a calligrapher was not unlike a Renaissance artist’s own painterly style.

A deep exploration of human nature was characteristic of both movements, as well, especially in works of literature. Dream of the Red Chamber has been praised for its rich characters as much as Shakespeare’s plays have. Chinese writers, like their Renaissance counterparts, also excelled at writing in the vernacular.

Architecture was an area where China and Europe diverged. Achievements in European Renaissance architecture centered largely on Christian churches and cathedrals. The main notable work of Chinese architecture is the Forbidden City, built for the glory of the emperor. One more area in which the two cultures differed was patronage. Wealthy patrons supported Renaissance artists, but in China, the court directed all cultural activities.

A New Feudalism Under Strong Japanese Leaders

In the 1300s, the unity that had been achieved in Japan in the previous century broke down. Shoguns, or military leaders, in the north and south fiercely fought one another for power. Although these rival courts came back together, a series of politically weak shoguns lost control of the country. The whole land was torn by factional strife and economic unrest.

Local Lords Rule  In 1467, civil war shattered Japan’s old feudal system. The country collapsed into chaos. Centralized rule ended. Power drained away from the shogun to territorial lords in hundreds of separate domains. A violent era of disorder followed. This time in Japanese history, which lasted from 1467 to 1568, is known as the Sengoku, or “Warring States,”
period. Powerful samurai seized control of old feudal estates. They offered peasants and others protection in return for their loyalty. These warrior-chieftains, called daimyo (DY•mee•OH), became lords in a new kind of Japanese feudalism. Daimyo meant “great name.” Under this system, security came from this group of powerful warlords. The emperor at Kyoto became a figurehead who had a leadership title but no actual power.

The new Japanese feudalism resembled European feudalism in many ways. The daimyo built fortified castles and created small armies of samurai on horses. Later they added foot soldiers with muskets (guns) to their ranks. Rival daimyo often fought each other for territory. This led to disorder throughout the land.

**New Leaders Restore Order** A number of ambitious daimyo hoped to gather enough power to take control of the entire country. One, the brutal and ambitious Oda Nobunaga (oh•dah-noh•boo•nah•gah), defeated his rivals and seized the imperial capital Kyoto in 1568.

Following his own motto “Rule the empire by force,” Nobunaga sought to eliminate his remaining enemies. These included rival daimyo as well as wealthy Buddhist monasteries aligned with them. In 1575, Nobunaga’s 3,000 soldiers armed with muskets crushed an enemy force of samurai cavalry. This was the first time firearms had been used effectively in battle in Japan. However, Nobunaga was not able to unify Japan. He committed seppuku, the ritual suicide of a samurai, in 1582, when one of his own generals turned on him.

Nobunaga’s best general, Toyotomi Hideyoshi (toh•you•toh•mee•hee•deh•yoh•shee), continued his fallen leader’s mission. Hideyoshi set out to destroy the daimyo who remained hostile. By combining brute force with shrewd political alliances, he controlled most of the country by 1590. Hideyoshi did not stop with Japan. With the idea of eventually conquering China, he invaded Korea in 1592 and began a long campaign against the Koreans and their Ming Chinese allies. When Hideyoshi died in 1598, his troops withdrew from Korea.

**Tokugawa Shogunate Unites Japan** One of Hideyoshi’s strongest daimyo allies, Tokugawa Ieyasu (toh•koo•gah•wah•ee•yeh•yah•soo), completed the unification of Japan. In 1600, Ieyasu defeated his rivals at the Battle of Sekigahara. His victory earned him the loyalty of daimyo throughout Japan. Three years later, Ieyasu became the sole ruler, or shogun. He then moved Japan’s capital to his power base at Edo, a small fishing village that would later become the city of Tokyo.

Japan was unified, but the daimyo still governed at the local level. To keep them from rebelling, Ieyasu required that they spend every other year in the capital. Even when they returned to their lands, they had to leave their families behind as hostages in Edo. Through this “alternate attendance policy” and other restrictions, Ieyasu tamed the daimyo. This was a major step toward restoring centralized government to Japan. As a result, the rule of law overcame the rule of the sword.
Ieyasu founded the **Tokugawa Shogunate**, which would hold power until 1867. On his deathbed in 1616, Ieyasu advised his son, Hidetada, “Take care of the people. Strive to be virtuous. Never neglect to protect the country.” Most Tokugawa shoguns followed that advice. Their rule brought a welcome order to Japan.

**Life in Tokugawa Japan**

Japan enjoyed more than two and a half centuries of stability, prosperity, and isolation under the Tokugawa shoguns. Farmers produced more food, and the population rose. Still, the vast majority of peasants, weighed down by heavy taxes, led lives filled with misery. The people who prospered in Tokugawa society were the merchant class and the wealthy. However, everyone, rich and poor alike, benefited from a flowering of Japanese culture during this era.

**Society in Tokugawa Japan** Tokugawa society was very structured. The emperor had the top rank but was just a figurehead. The actual ruler was the shogun, who was the supreme military commander. Below him were the daimyo, the powerful landholding samurai. Samurai warriors came next. The peasants and artisans followed them. Peasants made up about four-fifths of the population. Merchants were at the bottom, but they gradually became more important as the Japanese economy expanded.
The Tokugawa era was marked by a return to Confucian values and ideas. This philosophy came to Japan in the medieval age from China. In Japan, as in China, Confucian values influenced ideas about society. According to Confucius, the ideal society depended on agriculture, not commerce. Farmers, not merchants, made ideal citizens. In the real world of Tokugawa Japan, however, peasant farmers bore the main tax burden and faced more difficulties than any other class. Many of them abandoned farm life and headed for the expanding towns and cities. There, they mixed with samurai, artisans, and merchants.

By the mid-1700s, Japan began to shift from a rural to an urban society. Edo had grown from a small village in 1600 to perhaps the largest city in the world. Its population was more than 1 million. As Japan’s urban population grew, social structures changed. In these rapidly growing cities, people worked as manufacturers and wholesalers. Eventually, a class of wealthy merchants emerged. In turn, the daimyo and samurai, dependent on taxing a shrinking farmer class, saw their influence wane.

The rise of large commercial centers also increased employment opportunities for women. Women found jobs in entertainment, textile manufacturing, and publishing. Still, the majority of Japanese women led sheltered and restricted lives as peasant wives. They worked in the fields, managed the household, cared for the children, and each woman obeyed her husband without question.

Culture Under the Tokugawa Shogunate Traditional culture continued to thrive. Samurai attended ceremonial noh dramas, which were based on tragic themes. They read tales of ancient warriors and their courage in battle. In their homes, they hung paintings that showed scenes from classical literature. But traditional entertainment faced competition in the cities from new styles of literature, drama, and art.

Townspeople read a new type of fiction, realistic stories about self-made merchants or the hardships of life. The people also read haiku (HY-koo), 3-line verse poetry with a 5-7-5-syllable pattern. This poetry presents images rather than ideas.

Historical Source

Haiku

This poem was written by Matsuo Basho (1644–1694), Japan’s greatest haiku poet.

On a journey, ailing—
My dreams roam about
Over a withered moor.

—Matsuo Basho, from Matsuo Basho

Tabi ni yande
Yume wa Kareno o Kakemeguru

—Matsuo Basho, in Japanese

Analyze Historical Sources

How is Matsuo Basho’s haiku a poem about death?
Kabuki Theater
Kabuki is a traditional form of Japanese theater. It makes use of extravagant costumes, masklike makeup, and exaggerated postures and gestures. The illustrations show a contemporary actor and a 19th-century performer playing warriors.

Although kabuki was created by a woman, all roles, both male and female, are performed by men. Kabuki plays are about grand historical events or the everyday life of people in Tokugawa Japan.

For 400 years, kabuki has provided entertainment for the Japanese people. More recently, kabuki has been performed for audiences around the world, including the United States. Major centers for kabuki theater in Japan are Tokyo, Kyoto, and Osaka.

Townspeople also attended kabuki theater. Actors in elaborate costumes, using music, dance, and mime, performed skits about modern life. The paintings people enjoyed were often woodblock prints showing city life.

Contact Between Europe and Japan
Europeans began coming to Japan in the 16th century, during the Warring States period. Despite the severe disorder in the country, the Japanese welcomed traders and missionaries, first from Portugal and, later, other European countries. These newcomers introduced fascinating new technologies and ideas. Within a century, however, the aggressive Europeans had worn out their welcome.

Portugal Sends Ships, Merchants, and Technology to Japan The Japanese first encountered Europeans in 1543, when shipwrecked Portuguese sailors washed up on the shores of southern Japan. Portuguese merchants soon followed. They hoped to involve themselves in Japan’s trade with China and Southeast Asia. The Portuguese brought clocks, eyeglasses, tobacco, firearms, and other unfamiliar items from Europe. Japanese merchants eager to expand their markets were happy to receive the newcomers and their goods.

Back in Japan, the daimyo, too, welcomed the strangers. The daimyo felt that European goods could provide an advantage over their rivals. For example, they were particularly interested in the Portuguese muskets and cannons. One of these warlords listened intently to a Japanese observer’s description of a musket:
“In their hands they carried something two or three feet long, straight on the outside with a passage inside, and made of a heavy substance. . . . This thing with one blow can smash a mountain of silver and a wall of iron. If one sought to do mischief in another man’s domain and he was touched by it, he would lose his life instantly.”


The Japanese purchased weapons from the Portuguese and soon began their own production. Firearms forever changed the time-honored tradition of the Japanese warrior, whose principal weapon had been the sword. Some daimyo recruited and trained corps of peasants to use muskets. Many samurai, who retained the sword as their principal weapon, would lose their lives to musket fire in future combat.

The cannon also had an impact on life in Japan. Daimyo had to build fortified castles, like the Himeji Castle, to withstand the destructive force of cannonballs. The castles attracted merchants, artisans, and others to surrounding lands. Many of these lands were to grow into the towns and cities of modern Japan, including Edo (Tokyo), Osaka, Himeji, and Nagoya.

**Christian Missionaries in Japan** In 1549, Christian missionaries began arriving in Japan. The Japanese accepted the missionaries in part because they associated them with the muskets and other European goods that they wanted to purchase. However, the religious orders of Jesuits, Franciscans, and Dominicans came to convert the Japanese.

Francis Xavier, a Jesuit, led the first mission to Japan. He wrote that the Japanese were “very sociable. . . . and much concerned with their honor, which they prize above everything else.” Francis Xavier baptized about a hundred converts before he left Japan. By the year 1600, other European missionaries had converted about 300,000 Japanese to Christianity.

The success of the missionaries upset Tokugawa Ieyasu. He found aspects of the Christian invasion troublesome. Missionaries scorned traditional Japanese beliefs and involved themselves in local politics. At first, Ieyasu did not take any action. He feared driving off the Portuguese, English, Spanish, and Dutch traders who spurred Japan’s economy. By 1612, however, the shogun had come to fear religious uprisings more. He banned Christianity and focused on ridding his country of all Christians.

Ieyasu died in 1616, but repression of Christianity continued off and on for the next two decades under his successors. In 1637, the issue came to a head. An uprising in southern Japan of some 30,000 peasants, led by dissatisfied samurai, shook the Tokugawa shogunate. Because so many of the rebels were Christian, the shogun decided that Christianity was at the root of the rebellion. After that, the shoguns ruthlessly persecuted Christians. European missionaries were killed or driven out of Japan. All Japanese were forced to demonstrate faithfulness to some branch of Buddhism. These policies eventually eliminated Christianity in Japan and led to the formation of an exclusion policy.
The Closed Country Policy

The persecution of Christians was part of an attempt to control foreign ideas. When Europeans first arrived, no central authority existed to contain them. The strong leaders who later took power did not like the introduction of European ideas and ways, but they valued European trade. As time passed, the Tokugawa shoguns realized that they could safely exclude both the missionaries and the merchants. By 1639, they had sealed Japan’s borders and instituted a “closed country policy.”

Japan in Isolation  Most commercial contacts with Europeans ended. One port, Nagasaki, remained open to foreign traders. But only Dutch and Chinese merchants were allowed into the port. Earlier, the English had left Japan voluntarily, while the Spanish and the Portuguese had been expelled. Since the Tokugawa shoguns controlled Nagasaki, they now had a monopoly on foreign trade, which continued to be profitable.
Emperor Facts

Reading Check

Form Generalizations
Do you think Japan’s closed country policy effectively kept Western ideas and customs out of Japan?

For more than 200 years, Japan remained basically closed to Europeans. In addition, the Japanese were forbidden to leave, so they would not bring back foreign ideas. Japan continued to develop, but as a self-sufficient country, free from European attempts to colonize or establish their presence.

Europeans had met with much resistance in their efforts to open the East to trade. But expansion to the West, in the Americas, would prove much more successful for European traders, missionaries, and colonizers.

Zen Buddhism

The form of Buddhism that had the greatest impact on Japanese culture was Zen Buddhism. It especially influenced the samurai.

Zen Buddhists sought spiritual enlightenment through meditation. Strict discipline of mind and body was the Zen path to wisdom. Zen monks would sit in meditation for hours, as shown in the sculpture. If they showed signs of losing concentration, a Zen master might shout at them or hit them with a stick.

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Europeans had met with much resistance in their efforts to open the East to trade. But expansion to the West, in the Americas, would prove much more successful for European traders, missionaries, and colonizers.

Lesson 3 Assessment

1. Organize Information Create a two-column graphic organizer similar to the one shown. Fill it in with the names of the Chinese emperors you learned about and a fact or two from the text about each. Which emperor was most influential? Explain by using your facts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Emperor</th>
<th>Facts</th>
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<td>1.</td>
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<td>2.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

3. Analyze Effects What did Christian missionaries bring to China?

4. Summarize What was the structure of society in Tokugawa Japan?

5. Analyze Causes How did Beijing become the capital of China?

6. Compare and Contrast In what ways was the European Renaissance similar to and different from the flowering of Chinese culture during the Ming and Qing dynasties?

7. Draw Conclusions Why do you think that the emperor had less power than a shogun?
Spain Builds an American Empire

Setting the Stage

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

The Voyages of Columbus

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

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

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

—Christopher Columbus, Journal of Columbus

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

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

In early 1493, Columbus returned to Spain. The reports he relayed about his journey delighted the Spanish monarchs. King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella, who had funded his first voyage, agreed to finance three more trips. Their sponsorship was a major motivation for Columbus to continue his explorations.

Columbus embarked on his second voyage to the Americas in September 1493. He journeyed no longer as an explorer, but as an empire builder. He commanded a fleet of some 17 ships that carried over 1,000 soldiers, crewmen, and colonists. The Spanish intended to transform the islands of the Caribbean into colonies, or lands that are controlled by another nation. Over the next two centuries, other European explorers began sailing across the Atlantic in search of new lands to claim.

Other Explorers Take to the Seas By the 15th century, the political system in Portugal, headed by King John II, gave strong support to exploration of the Americas. Portugal had already established trading outposts in Africa and Asia, and the Treaty of Tordesillas allowed the king to claim Brazil. In 1500, the Portuguese explorer Pedro Álvares Cabral reached the shores of modern-day Brazil and claimed the land for his country. A year later, Amerigo Vespucci (veh•s poo•chee), an Italian in the service of Portugal, also traveled along the eastern coast of South America. Upon his return to Europe, he claimed that the land was not part of Asia, but a “new” world. In 1507, a German mapmaker named the new continent “America” in honor of Amerigo Vespucci.

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

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

2. Region  Which general region did the Spanish and Portuguese explore? Where did the English, Dutch, and French explore?
With about 250 men and five ships, Magellan sailed around the southern end of South America and into the waters of the Pacific. The fleet sailed for months without seeing land, except for some small islands. Food supplies soon ran out.

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

**Spanish Conquests in Mexico**

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

**Cortés Conquers the Aztecs**  Soon after landing in Mexico in 1519, Cortés learned of the vast and wealthy Aztec Empire in the region’s interior. After marching for weeks through difficult mountain passes, Cortés and his force of roughly 600 men finally reached the magnificent Aztec capital of Tenochtitlán (teh•NAWCH•tee•TLAHN). The Aztec emperor, Montezuma II, was convinced at first that Cortés was an armor-wearing god. He agreed to give the Spanish explorer a share of the empire’s existing gold supply. Though Montezuma hoped that would satisfy Cortés, it did not. Cortés admitted that he and his comrades had a “disease of the heart that only gold can cure.” In both the political and economic sense, Cortés wanted more power.

The Aztecs controlled hundreds of smaller surrounding cities. They gained economic power by demanding periodic payments from these conquered communities. The Spaniards disrupted this system of tribute as they invaded areas that had been under Aztec control. Many peoples from these areas were willing to ally themselves with Cortés as he sought to conquer Tenochtitlán.

The Spaniards largely destroyed Aztec culture. For example, the Aztecs maintained a series of painted books called codices. Codices described Aztec history, economy, religious beliefs, and daily life. They were written in a largely pictorial language, and Aztec cultural tradition dictated that a codex was to be read aloud to others. The Spaniards destroyed almost all of the Aztec codices. They also razed temples and other significant places.
In November 1519, Cortés captured Montezuma II. The following spring, some of Cortés’s men killed many Aztec warriors and chiefs while they were celebrating a religious festival. Then, in June 1520, the Aztecs rebelled against the Spanish intruders and drove out Cortés’s forces.

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

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

Finally, and most important, the natives could do little to stop the invisible warrior that marched alongside the Spaniards—disease. Measles, mumps, smallpox, and typhus were just some of the diseases Europeans brought with them to the Americas. Native Americans had never been exposed to these diseases. Thus, they had developed no natural immunity to them. As a result, they died by the hundreds of thousands. By the time Cortés launched his counterattack, the Aztec population had been greatly reduced by smallpox and measles. In time, European disease would truly devastate the natives of central Mexico, killing millions of them.

**Spanish Conquests in Peru**

In 1532, another Spanish conquistador, Francisco Pizarro, marched a small force into South America. He conquered the Incan Empire and destroyed its culture, economy, and society.

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

The Spaniards then moved into the smaller surrounding cities that were under Incan control and plundered them of gold and silver. Not only was this economically devastating for the Incan Empire, but it was also a cultural blow: the gold and silver had adorned Incan temples and buildings that were destroyed during the looting.
While in captivity, Atahualpa offered to fill a room once with gold and twice with silver in exchange for his release. However, after receiving the ransom, the Spanish strangled the Incan king and burned his body, which was culturally forbidden by the Inca.

With these acts, the Spanish debilitated the Incan political organization. It signaled the beginning of the end of Incan culture. The remaining Incan force, demoralized by their leader’s death, retreated from Cajamarca. Pizarro then marched on the Incan capital, Cuzco. He captured it without a struggle in 1533. From Cuzco, Pizarro established a new government that offered Incan lands to Spanish conquerors.

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

**Spain’s Pattern of Conquest** In building their new American empire, the Spaniards drew from techniques used during the *reconquista* of Spain. When conquering the Muslims, the Spanish lived among them and imposed their Spanish culture upon them. Spanish settlers in the Americas, known as *peninsulares*, were mostly men. As a result,

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**Francisco Pizarro** (1475?–1541)

Pizarro was the son of an infantry captain and a young peasant woman. His parents never married. Raised by his mother’s poor family, he never learned to read. Ambitious, brave, and ruthless, he intended to make his fortune as an explorer and conqueror.

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

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

**Atahualpa** (1502?–1533)

Atahualpa was the last ruler of the Incan empire in Peru. After Atahualpa was captured and held for ransom by the Spanish, Incan people throughout the empire brought gold and silver that the Spanish then melted down into bullion and ingots. They accumulated 24 tons of gold and silver, the richest ransom in history.

The Spanish executed Atahualpa despite the ransom paid by his people. As he was about to be burned at the stake, the Spanish offered him a more merciful death by strangulation if he agreed to convert to Christianity, which he did. Thus died the last emperor of the Inca.
relationships between Spanish settlers and native women were common. These relationships created a large mestizo—or mixed Spanish and Native American—population.

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

**The Portuguese in Brazil** One area of South America that remained outside of Spanish control was Brazil. In 1500, the Portuguese king ordered Pedro Álvares Cabral to further explore Africa and Asia, but Cabral landed in Brazil instead. Portugal promptly claimed the land for itself.

Colonization of Brazil took decades to develop because Portugal’s political systems there were very poor. Portugal was then at the height of its world power and had bigger concerns than establishing permanent colonies in Brazil.

During the 1530s, however, the Portuguese began settling the country’s coastal region. Finding little gold or silver, the colonists grew sugar. Clearing out huge swaths of forest land, the Portuguese built giant sugar plantations. The demand for sugar in Europe was great, and the colony soon enriched Portugal.

By the year 1600, thousands of Portuguese were living in Brazil. Economic and political power was held by a small number of wealthy plantation owners. The plantations required extensive labor, and the Portuguese colonists enslaved both Native Americans and Africans to work them. In time, the Portuguese colonists pushed farther west. They settled even more land for the production of sugar, increasing demand for more native and African slaves.

To find more natives, large groups of Portuguese settlers were organized into bandeiras. Bandeiras were slave-hunting expeditions that explored western Brazil, searching for natives who could be captured and put to work on sugar plantations. Naturally, the natives resisted, and violent skirmishes often broke out. The bandeiras had the dual effect of settling more of Brazil’s land for Portugal and destroying the lives and cultures of many native peoples.

**Spain’s Influence Expands**

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

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

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

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

Catholic priests had accompanied conquistadors from the very beginning of American colonization. The conquistadors had come in search of wealth. The priests who accompanied them had religious motives. The priests had come in search of converts, and they found such converts among the native people.

A group’s spiritual beliefs are an essential part of its culture. As the priests converted Native Americans to the Catholic religion and Christianity spread, indigenous cultures faced significant consequences. For example, many Native Americans were forced to leave their homes and move somewhere else. Still others were forcefully put to work.

In the winter of 1609–1610, Pedro de Peralta, governor of Spain’s northern holdings in New Mexico, led settlers to a tributary on the upper Rio Grande. They built a capital called Santa Fe, or “Holy Faith.” In the next two decades, a string of Christian missions arose among the Pueblo, the native inhabitants of the region. Scattered missions, forts, and small ranches dotted the lands of New Mexico. These became the headquarters for advancing the Catholic religion.

**Opposition to Spanish Rule**

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

Historical and contemporary perspectives on Christopher Columbus’s voyages have evolved, and the legacy of the voyages is debated. By their nature, interpretations of historical events are limited because they arise from a person’s particular frame of reference.

The credibility, or believability, of the participants must be considered as well. For example, you might question the credibility of someone whose writing betrays a clear political bias. Conversely, you may be likely to trust the perspective of someone who lived through a historical event.

Some historians argue that Columbus took heroic first steps in the creation of great and democratic societies, while others claim that Columbus launched an era of widespread cruelty, bloodshed, and epidemic disease.

Samuel Eliot Morison, a supporter of Columbus writing in the 1940s, laments that Columbus died without realizing the true greatness of his deeds. In 1892, historian Justin Winsor was one of the first American writers to criticize Columbus. William D. Phillips summarized Winsor’s critique.

“One only wishes that the Admiral might have been afforded the sense of fulfillment that would have come from foreseeing all that flowed from his discoveries; that would have turned all the sorrows of his last years to joy. The whole history of the Americas stems from the Four Voyages of Columbus; and as the Greek city-states looked back to the deathless gods as their founders, so today a score of independent nations and dominions unite in homage to Christopher, the stout-hearted son of Genoa, who carried Christian civilization across the Ocean Sea.”

—Samuel Eliot Morison, Admiral of the Ocean: A Life of Christopher Columbus

“He [Winsor] portrayed Columbus as a daring mariner with great powers of persuasion and extraordinary dedication to his goals. Winsor also revealed Columbus as an inept administrator, so sure of his own rectitude that he openly disobeyed royal instructions and brought many of his troubles on himself. Among his other failings, Columbus unashamedly waged war against the native inhabitants of the Caribbean and enslaved hundreds of them, hoping to profit from a transatlantic slave trade.”

—William D. Phillips, The Worlds of Christopher Columbus

Analyze Historical Sources

1. From Samuel Eliot Morison’s perspective, is the legacy of Columbus positive or negative?

2. How does Justin Winsor’s opinion show that perspectives about Columbus have evolved over time? What is meant by Columbus’s rectitude? How does that word support Winsor’s perspective?
African Slavery and Native Resistance  The Spanish government abolished the *encomienda* system in 1542. To meet the colonies’ need for labor, Las Casas suggested Africans. “The labor of one [African] . . . [is] more valuable than that of four Indians,” he said. The priest later changed his view and denounced African slavery. However, others promoted it.

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

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

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

By this time, however, the rulers of Spain had far greater concerns. The other nations of Europe had begun to establish their own colonies in the Americas.
Setting the Stage
Spain’s successful colonization efforts in the Americas did not go unnoticed. Other European nations, such as England, France, and the Netherlands, soon became interested in obtaining their own valuable colonies. The Treaty of Tordesillas, signed in 1494, had divided the newly discovered lands between Spain and Portugal. However, other European countries ignored the treaty. They set out to build their own empires in the Americas. This resulted in a struggle for North America.

Competing Claims in North America
Magellan’s voyage showed that ships could reach Asia by way of the Pacific Ocean. Spain claimed the route around the southern tip of South America. Other European countries hoped to find an easier and more direct route to the Pacific. If it existed, a northwest trade route through North America to Asia would become highly profitable. Not finding the route, the French, English, and Dutch instead established colonies in North America.

Explorers Establish New France
The early French explorers sailed west with dreams of reaching the East Indies. One explorer was Giovanni da Verrazzano (VEHR•uh•ZAHN•noh), an Italian in the service of France. In 1524, he sailed to North America in search of a sea route to the Pacific. While he did not find the route, Verrazzano did discover what is today New York harbor. Ten years later, the Frenchman Jacques Cartier (kahr•TYAY) reached a gulf off the eastern coast of Canada that led to a broad river. Cartier named it the St. Lawrence. Cartier followed the river inward.
A Trading Empire  France’s North American empire was immense. But it was sparsely populated. By 1760, the European population of New France had grown to only about 65,000. A large number of French colonists had no desire to build towns or raise families. These settlers included Catholic priests who sought to convert Native Americans. They also included young, single men engaged in what had become New France’s main economic activity, the fur trade. Unlike the English, the French were less interested in occupying territories than they were in making money off the land.

The English Arrive in North America
The explorations of the Spanish and French inspired the English. In 1606, a company of London investors received a charter from King James to found a colony in North America. In late 1606, the company’s three ships, with more than 100 settlers, pushed out of an English harbor. About four months later, in 1607, they reached the coast of Virginia. The colonists claimed the land as theirs. They named the settlement *Jamestown* in honor of their king.

The Settlement at Jamestown  The colony’s start was disastrous. The settlers were more interested in finding gold than in planting crops. During the first few years, seven out of every ten people died of hunger, disease, or battles with the Native Americans.

Despite their nightmarish start, the colonists eventually gained a foothold in their new land. Jamestown became England’s first permanent settlement in North America. The colony’s outlook improved greatly after farmers there discovered tobacco. High demand for tobacco in England turned it into a profitable cash crop.
Puritans Create a “New England”  In 1620, a group known as Pilgrims founded a second English colony, Plymouth, in Massachusetts. Persecuted for their religious beliefs in England, these colonists sought religious freedom. Ten years later, a group known as Puritans also sought religious freedom from England’s Anglican Church. They established a larger colony at nearby Massachusetts Bay.

The Puritans wanted to build a model community that would set an example for other Christians to follow. Although the colony experienced early difficulties, it gradually began to prosper. This was due in large part to the numerous families in the colony, unlike the mostly single, male population in Jamestown.

The Dutch Found New Netherland  The Dutch followed the English and French into North America. In 1609, Henry Hudson, an Englishman in the service of the Netherlands, sailed west. He was searching for a northwest sea route to Asia. Hudson did not find a route. He did, however, explore three waterways that were later named for him—the Hudson River, Hudson Bay, and Hudson Strait.

The Dutch claimed the region along these waterways. They established a fur trade with the Iroquois Indians. They built trading posts along the Hudson River at Fort Orange (now Albany) and on Manhattan Island. Dutch merchants formed the Dutch West India Company. In 1621, the Dutch government granted the company permission to colonize the region.
and expand the fur trade. The Dutch holdings in North America became known as New Netherland.

Although the Dutch company profited from its fur trade, it was slow to attract Dutch colonists. To encourage settlers, the colony opened its doors to a variety of peoples. Gradually more Dutch, as well as Germans, French, Scandinavians, and other Europeans, settled the area.

Colonizing the Caribbean During the 1600s, the nations of Europe also colonized the Caribbean. The French seized control of present-day Haiti, Guadeloupe, and Martinique. The English settled Barbados and Jamaica. In 1634, the Dutch captured what are now the Netherlands Antilles and Aruba from Spain.

On these islands, the Europeans built huge cotton and sugar plantations. These products, although profitable, demanded a large and steady supply of labor. Enslaved Africans eventually would supply this labor.

**The Struggle for North America**

As they expanded their settlements in North America, the nations of France, England, and the Netherlands battled one another for colonial supremacy.

**The English Oust the Dutch** To the English, New Netherland separated their northern and southern colonies. In 1664, the English king, Charles II, granted his brother, the Duke of York, permission to drive out the Dutch. When the duke’s fleet arrived at New Netherland, the Dutch surrendered without firing a shot. The Duke of York claimed the colony for England and renamed it New York.
Explore ONLINE!

With the Dutch gone, the English colonized the Atlantic coast of North America. By 1750, about 1.2 million English settlers lived in 13 colonies from Maine to Georgia.

**England Battles France** The English soon became hungry for more land for their colonial population. This economic motive led them to push farther west into the continent. By doing so, they collided with France's North American holdings. As their colonies expanded, France and England began to interfere with each other. It seemed that a major conflict was on the horizon.

In 1754 a dispute over land claims in the Ohio Valley led to a war between the British and French on the North American continent. The conflict became known as the **French and Indian War**. The war became
How did the larger issue of European expansion around the world play out in North America?

In North America, the British colonists, with the help of the British Army, defeated the French in 1763. The French surrendered their North American holdings. As a result of the war, the British seized control of the eastern half of North America.

Native Americans Respond

As in Mexico and South America, the migration of Europeans to the present-day United States had a great impact on Native American cultures. European colonization brought mostly disaster for the land’s original inhabitants.

A Strained Relationship  French and Dutch settlers developed a mostly cooperative relationship with the Native Americans. This was mainly due to the mutual benefits of the fur trade. Native Americans did most of the trapping and then traded the furs to the French for such items as guns, hatchets, mirrors, and beads. The Dutch also cooperated with Native Americans in an effort to establish a fur-trading enterprise.

The groups did not live together in complete harmony. Dutch settlers fought with various Native American groups over land claims and trading rights. For the most part, however, the French and Dutch colonists lived together peacefully with their North American hosts.

The same could not be said of the English. Early relations between English settlers and Native Americans were cooperative. However, they quickly worsened over the issues of land and religion. Unlike the French and Dutch, the English sought to populate their colonies in North America. This meant pushing the natives off their land. The English colonists seized more land for their population and their tobacco crops.

Religious differences also heightened tensions. The English settlers considered Native Americans heathens, people without a faith. Over time, many Puritans viewed Native Americans as agents of the devil and as a threat to their godly society. Native Americans developed a similarly harsh view of the European invaders.

Settlers and Native Americans Battle  The hostility between the English settlers and Native Americans led to warfare. As early as 1622, the Powhatan tribe attacked colonial villages around Jamestown and killed about 350 settlers. During the next few years, the colonists struck back and massacred hundreds of Powhatan.
One of the bloodiest conflicts between colonists and Native Americans was known as King Philip’s War. It began in 1675 when the Native American ruler Metacom (also known as King Philip) led an attack on colonial villages throughout Massachusetts. In the months that followed, both sides massacred hundreds of victims. After a year of fierce fighting, the colonists were victorious. During the 17th century, many skirmishes erupted throughout North America.

**Diseases Strike Native Americans**  More destructive than the Europeans’ weapons were their diseases. Like the Spanish in Central and South America, the Europeans who settled North America brought with them several diseases. The diseases devastated the native population in North America.

In 1616, for example, an epidemic of smallpox ravaged Native Americans living along the New England coast. The population of one tribe, the Massachusetts, dropped from 24,000 to 750 by 1631. From South Carolina to Missouri, nearly whole tribes fell to smallpox, measles, and other diseases.

One of the effects of this loss was a severe shortage of labor in the colonies. In order to meet their growing labor needs, European colonists soon turned to another group: Africans, whom they would enslave by the millions.

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**Lesson 5 Assessment**

1. **Organize Information**  Fill in the graphic organizer below with what the given settlements had in common.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Settlement</th>
<th>General Location</th>
<th>Reasons Settled</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>New France</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Netherland</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Massachusetts Bay</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

3. **Contrast**  What was a basic difference between French and English attitudes about the land they acquired in North America?

4. **Analyze Effects**  What were some effects of European colonization of North America for Native Americans?

5. **Draw Conclusions**  What need drove the English farther west into the North American continent?

6. **Contrast**  In what ways did the colonies at Jamestown and Massachusetts Bay differ?
Lesson 6

The Atlantic Slave Trade

The Big Idea
To meet their growing labor needs, Europeans enslaved millions of Africans in the Americas.

Why It Matters Now
Descendants of enslaved Africans represent a significant part of the Americas' population today.

Key Terms and People
Atlantic slave trade
indentured servitude
triangular trade
Middle Passage

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

**Spain and Portugal Lead the Way** The Spanish took an early lead in importing Africans to the Americas. Spain moved on from the Caribbean and began to colonize the American mainland. As a result, the Spanish imported and enslaved thousands more Africans. By 1650, nearly 300,000 Africans were laboring on plantations and in gold and silver mines. By this time, the Portuguese had surpassed the Spanish in the importation of Africans to the Americas. During the 1600s, Brazil dominated the European sugar market. As the sugar industry grew, so too did Portuguese colonists’ demand for cheap labor. During the 17th century, more than 40 percent of all Africans brought to the Americas went to Brazil.

**Systems of Labor** For Spanish colonists, the Atlantic slave trade, like the encomienda system, was a way to force others into labor. However, there were key differences. First, in the encomienda system, the native laborers were technically not property of the Spanish landlords, but African slaves were. Second, while native peoples were often forced to relocate in order to labor for the Spaniards, African slaves were taken from their homeland and brought to the Americas via horrific transatlantic journeys. Third, the Spanish landlords in the encomienda system had to give their word to the Spanish crown that native workers would be treated well (which rarely happened in practice). For African slaves, they made no such promise.

The Atlantic slave trade also differed from other systems of labor during the colonial era. **Indentured servitude** was a system of labor by which a person could work to pay off the cost of coming to the Americas. Indentured servants were usually Europeans who wanted to resettle in the Americas but lacked the means to do so. These Europeans would agree to work for a certain number of years for an employer who paid for their voyage. African slaves, of course, were brought against their will and were usually considered slaves for life. Both groups, however, experienced harsh treatment from their superiors.

Perhaps the starkest difference existed between African slavery and systems of wage labor. Usually, in wage labor, an employer paid workers for
their labor, and the two parties entered into the relationship voluntarily. African slaves, of course, were not paid for their labor and did not volunteer to enter into enslavement. African slaves were kept on the plantations and were given shelter and food.

**Slavery Spreads Throughout the Americas**

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

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

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

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

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

**History in Depth**

**Slavery**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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**Interpret Maps**

1. **Movement** What items were transported to Africa and traded for captured Africans?
2. **Region** According to the graph, which region of the Americas imported the most Africans? Which imported the second most?
The Horrors of the Middle Passage

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

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

—Olaudah Equiano, quoted in Eyewitness: The Negro in American History

Analyse Historical Sources
1. Why might the white men have forced Equiano to eat?
2. What does the diagram of the slave ship suggest about conditions on board?

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

The Middle Passage The voyage that brought captured Africans to the West Indies and later to North and South America was known as the Middle Passage. It was considered the middle leg of the transatlantic trade triangle. Sickening cruelty characterized this journey. In African ports, European traders packed Africans into the dark holds of large ships, which were crowded and filthy. On board, Africans endured whippings and beatings from merchants, as well as diseases that swept through the vessel. Slave traders usually did not feed captives well during the journey. Numerous Africans died from disease or physical abuse aboard the slave ships. Many others committed suicide by drowning. Scholars estimate that roughly 20 percent of the Africans aboard each slave ship perished during the brutal trip.
Slavery in the Americas

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

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

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

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

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

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

Consequences of the Slave Trade

The Atlantic slave trade had a profound impact on both Africa and the Americas. In Africa, numerous cultures lost generations of their fittest members—their young and able—to European traders and plantation owners. In addition, countless African families were torn apart. Most were never reunited.

The slave trade devastated African societies in another way: by introducing guns into the continent. One West African empire, the Ashanti, used the guns and weapons acquired from British and Dutch slave traders to expand its lands. Another kingdom, Dahomey, sold slaves to Europeans and gained wealth—and power—enough to acquire new territories. In this way, the slave trade contributed to political changes in Africa.

While they were unwilling participants in the growth of the colonies, African slaves contributed greatly to the economic and cultural development of the Americas. Their greatest contribution was their labor. Without their back-breaking work, colonies such as those on Haiti and Barbados may not have survived. In addition to their muscle, enslaved Africans brought their expertise, especially in agriculture. They also brought their culture. Their art, music, religion, and food continue to influence American societies.
The influx of so many Africans to the Americas also has left its mark on the very population itself. From the United States to Brazil, many of the nations of the Western Hemisphere today have substantial populations of African descent. Many Latin American countries have sizable mixed-race populations.

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

Lesson 6 Assessment

1. **Organize Information**  Create an outline and fill in with key points about the consequences of the slave trade in Africa and the Americas. Then, use your notes to answer the following question: What do you think was the most important consequence of the slave trade in Africa and the Americas?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Consequences of the slave trade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I. in Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II. in the Americas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

3. **Cause and Effect**  What effect did the spread of Islam have on the slave trade?

4. **Compare and Contrast**  How was slavery in the Americas different from slavery in Africa?

5. **Synthesize**  What does the percentage of enslaved Africans imported to the Caribbean Islands and Brazil suggest about the racial makeup of these areas?

6. **Make Inferences**  Why do you think the slave trade flourished for so long?
The Big Idea
The colonization of the Americas introduced new items into the Eastern and Western hemispheres.

Why It Matters Now
This global exchange of goods permanently changed Europe, Asia, Africa, and the Americas.

Key Terms and People
Columbian Exchange
capitalism
joint-stock company
mercantilism
favorable balance of trade

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

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

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

While these new crops had positive effects, their introduction also created issues in many ecosystems around the world. In the Americas, for example, weeds often accompanied the new plants coming from Europe. These weeds contaminated soil in such a way that other crops had
The Columbian Exchange

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

Frightening Foods

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

The Geography of Food

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

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

—Raymond Sokolov, Why We Eat What We Eat: How Columbus Changed the Way the World Eats

Critical Thinking

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

2. Compare and Contrast Find out what major items are exchanged or traded between the United States and Asia, Africa, or Europe. How do the items compare with those of the Columbian Exchange? Report your findings to the class.
difficulty growing. Also, agricultural methods created problems for the environment in the Americas. Europeans cut down acres of forests to create farmable land. Of course, plants living in forest environments died.

Traffic across the Atlantic did not flow in just one direction, however. Europeans introduced various livestock animals into the Americas. These included horses, cattle, sheep, and pigs. Foods from Africa (including some that originated in Asia) migrated west in European ships. They included bananas, black-eyed peas, and yams. Grains introduced to the Americas included wheat, rice, barley, and oats. Native Americans and Europeans learned from each other how to cultivate crops that were unfamiliar to them. In this way, the Columbian Exchange was an exchange of knowledge as much as an exchange of goods.

Some aspects of the Columbian Exchange had tragic consequences for many Native Americans. Disease was just as much a part of the Columbian Exchange as goods and food. The pathogens Europeans brought with them, which caused diseases like smallpox and measles, led to the deaths of millions of Native Americans. Other diseases Europeans brought with them included influenza, typhus, malaria, and diphtheria.

**Global Trade**

The establishment of colonial empires in the Americas influenced the nations of Europe in still other ways. New wealth from the Americas was coupled with a dramatic growth in overseas trade. The two factors together
prompted a wave of new business and trade practices in Europe during the 16th and 17th centuries. These practices, many of which served as the root of today’s financial dealings, dramatically changed the economic atmosphere of Europe. This economic atmosphere was not dissimilar to the economic issues experienced by Europeans trading with Japan during the 16th century. Just as Portuguese merchants conducted trade with Japan, so too were goods exchanged between colonies in the Americas and European nations.

**The Rise of Capitalism** One aspect of the European economic revolution was the growth of capitalism. Capitalism is an economic system based on private ownership and the investment of resources, such as money, for profit. No longer were governments the sole owners of great wealth. Numerous merchants obtained great wealth from overseas colonization and trade.

Investing in global exploration was important for the development of international trade. A group of investors might fund a transatlantic journey in hopes that a new market might be found with which they could exchange goods and services. The European colonies in the Americas, for example, had become important capital markets in which merchants invested their money. Profits from these investments enabled merchants and traders to reinvest even more money in other enterprises. As a result, businesses across Europe grew and flourished.

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

**Joint-Stock Companies** Another business venture that developed during this period was the joint-stock company. A joint-stock company was a partnership of investors who bought shares of stock in the company. In this type of company, a number of people combined their wealth for a common purpose.

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

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

The Growth of Mercantilism

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

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

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

—Thomas Mun, quoted in World Civilizations

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

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

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

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**Lesson 7 Assessment**

1. **Organize Information** Create a three-column chart like the one shown. For each item in the first column, fill in the chart with its place of origin and its effect on the Americas and Europe. Which effect do you think had the greatest impact on history?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Food/Livestock/Disease</th>
<th>Place of Origin</th>
<th>Effect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Potato</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horse</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smallpox</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

3. **Summarize** What were some of the food items that traveled from the Americas to the rest of the world?

4. **Summarize** What food and livestock from the rest of the world traveled to the Americas?

5. **Cause and Effect** What were some of the effects on European society of the economic revolution that took place in the 16th and 17th centuries?

6. **Make Inferences** Why were colonies considered so important to the nations of Europe?

7. **Compare and Contrast** What were some of the positive and negative consequences of the Columbian Exchange?
Module 2 Assessment

**Key Terms and People**

*For each term or name below, write a sentence explaining how it relates to the era of expansion, exploration, and encounters.*

1. Akbar
2. Aurangzeb
3. Bartolomeu Dias
4. Dutch East India Company
5. Ming dynasty
6. Tokugawa Shogunate
7. conquistador
8. encomienda
9. triangular trade
10. Columbian Exchange

**Main Ideas**

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

**The Mughal Empire in India**
1. In what ways did Akbar defend religious freedom during his reign?
2. How did Akbar’s successors promote religious conflict in the empire?

**Europeans Explore the East**
3. What factors helped spur European exploration?
4. Why were the Dutch so successful in establishing a trading empire in the Indian Ocean?

**China and Japan Reject Expansion**
5. What are five reasons the Ming Dynasty fell to civil disorder?
6. Why was the time between 1467 and 1568 called the period of the “Warring States”?

**Spain Builds an American Empire**
7. Why did Columbus set sail westward?
8. What were three goals of the Spanish in the Americas?

**European Nations Settle North America**
9. What did the Europeans mostly grow in their Caribbean colonies?
10. What was the result of the French and Indian War?

**The Atlantic Slave Trade**
11. What factors led European colonists to use Africans to resupply their labor force?
12. How did enslaved Africans resist their treatment in the Americas?

**The Columbian Exchange and Global Trade**
13. Why was the introduction of corn and potatoes to Europe and Asia so significant?
14. What was the economic policy of mercantilism?
Critical Thinking

1. **Compare and Contrast**  How were the Spanish and Portuguese colonial empires similar to and different from northern European trading empires? Consider their organization and how they were founded as part of your answer.

2. **Evaluate**  Why were the policies of Aurangzeb so destructive to the Mughal Empire?

3. **Make Inferences**  Conquest of new territories contributed to the growth of Muslim empires. How might it have also hindered this growth?

4. **Analyze Effects**  How might a Chinese emperor’s leadership be affected by living in the Forbidden City? Explain and support your opinion.

5. **Develop Historical Perspective**  Of the technological advances that helped spur European exploration, which do you think was the most important? Why?

6. **Analyze Causes**  What caused Japan to institute a policy of isolation? Defend your viewpoint with evidence from the text.

7. **Draw Conclusions**  What factors helped the Europeans conquer the Americas? Which was the most important? Why?

8. **Analyze Effects**  Explain the statement, “Columbus’s voyage began a process that changed the world forever.” Consider all the peoples and places American colonization affected economically.

9. **Compare and Contrast**  What might have been some of the differences in the Europeans’ and Native Americans’ views of colonization?

10. **Compare and Contrast**  How was the economic atmosphere of the colonial period similar to that of the Warring States period?

Engage with History

Think about whether or not you would sail into the unknown like the various explorers you read about. Based on what you have read, what are the reasons why you would go? If you would choose not to go, explain your feelings. Discuss your answers with a small group.

Focus on Writing

An English colony would have looked strange and different to a Native American of the time. Conduct historical research on an English colony of the 17th century. Consult at least one primary source and one secondary source. Then write an essay describing it, in which you provide details about the following:

- clothes
- food
- shelter
- weapons

Be sure to begin your paragraph with a thesis statement.

Multimedia Activity

Use the Internet, books, and other reference materials to create a multimedia pitch for a television special called “The Voyages of Zheng He.” Your pitch should address the historical context of Zheng He’s voyages, along with their impact on China and the lands he visited. Be sure to include text, images, audio, and, if possible, video as part of your pitch. During your research, consider the following:

- biographical data on Zheng He
- information about the ships, crews, and cargo
- descriptions of the voyages
- appropriate music and visuals
The Spanish conquistador Juan Ponce de León was the first European to set foot on land that later became part of the United States. Ponce de León first sailed to the Americas with Christopher Columbus on his second voyage in 1493. Once in the Caribbean region, he helped conquer what is now Puerto Rico and was named ruler of the island. According to legend, Ponce de León learned about a Fountain of Youth, whose waters could make old people young again. He may have been searching for this fountain when, in 1513, he made landfall on the coast of what today is the southeastern United States. He named the area Florida and claimed it for Spain. Explore important events in the life of Ponce de León online. You can find a wealth of information, video clips, primary sources, activities, and more through your online textbook.
Go online to view these and other HISTORY® resources.

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

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

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