

World Studies

Turning Point #4: The Columbian Exchange (Post-1492 A.D.)

NAME: _____

DATE DUE: _____

PERIOD: _____

SCORE: _____/10

Essential Question for TP #4

What were the three types of exchanges made between the “Old World” and the “New World” following the voyages of Columbus and other explorers?

Exchanges:

1. Exchange of _____:

2. Exchange of _____:

3. Exchange of _____:

The Explorers

_____/2

I. _____



II. _____



❖ Returns to Portugal with many rich trade goods



Treaty of Tordesillas - 1494



❖ All “new” lands west of the line are Spain’s - all “new” lands east of the line are Portugal’s



III. Vasco Núñez de Balboa



IV. _____



V. _____



❖ Crew sails on and is first to make around the world voyage

VI. Hernan Cortés



VII. _____



VIII. _____ and _____



The Columbian Exchange

Ch. 16-2 & 16-3 Guided Reading

Citation: World History: The Human Journey. Holt, Rinehart, and Winston. 2005.

Ch. 16-2: The Foundations of European Exploration (390)

During the 1400s and 1500s, European monarchs supported exploration and colonization. Gaining riches through conquest and discovery would make them more powerful than rival countries. Although Italy had led the way in the Commercial Revolution, the Italians did not colonize. Instead, Portugal, Spain, and France built overseas empires. Trade shifted to these Atlantic nations.

Economic and political changes linked to overseas expansion contributed to a new economic theory. Mercantilism stated that a country's government should do all it could to increase the country's wealth, which was measured by the amount of gold and silver the country possessed. According to this belief, the world contained a fixed amount of wealth. To increase its own wealth, one country had to take wealth from another country.

The role of colonies

During the 1500s and after, European powers aimed to colonize overseas lands that were rich in gold, silver, and raw materials that could not be produced at home. A powerful nation sought to buy raw materials from its own colonies. That way, the country's wealth would remain with its own people. Most European colonial powers, moreover, forbid their colonies to sell raw materials to other countries. According to mercantilism, control of colonial markets and raw materials was key to a nation's success.

People in the home country's colonies provided strong markets for its manufactured goods. Governments passed strict laws that forbade colonies from buying foreign goods. In many cases, moreover, colonies were not allowed to manufacture goods. This forced colonies to buy manufactured goods only from their home country. Mercantilists argued that such laws were justified because colonies existed to benefit the home country.

Social Change (391)

Advances in navigation and government economic policies by themselves did not lead to European exploration and overseas colonization. Certain social changes also helped create in people the desire to explore and resettle.

For one thing, the Renaissance and the Scientific Revolution had created a desire among many Europeans to learn more about the world and had added to the general store of geographic knowledge. Thus, simple curiosity and a spirit of discovery moved many people to explore the world outside Europe.

After the year 1500, moreover, the population of Europe increased. Some urban areas became very crowded. Adventurous people knew that overseas colonies might offer harsh living conditions. Some people were willing to accept these hardships, however, in return for the opportunity to gain land and possible wealth by settling in overseas colonies.

Other people went overseas hoping to reap quick profits. Tales of gold and silver and precious jewels—as well as fertile soil—persuaded thousands that easy wealth lay overseas. A few even went in search of fabulous cities with enormous riches, such as the legendary El Dorado (which means "the gilded one" in Spanish) in South America.

Finally, the Reformation and Counter-Reformation had led to the religious and political persecution of many. French Huguenots and others went overseas to seek religious freedom for themselves and to escape persecution at home. Some Christians went to spread their religion to non-Europeans. In many cases, there was no single reason that motivated a person or group of people to explore or colonize. Rather, a combination of these hopes and aims led Europeans to leave their old lives for new and, to them, unknown lands.

Ch. 16-3: Voyages of Portugal and Spain (392)

Portuguese and Spanish explorers made the first European voyages into unknown waters. Curiosity, religion, and economic goals drove these courageous men forward. Their voyages resulted in great advances for the sponsoring governments and served as the foundation for future empires.

One man largely responsible for Portugal's interest in exploration was a member of the Portuguese royal family named Prince Henry. Also known as "The Navigator," Prince Henry's first goal was to find gold for Portugal. The Portuguese also hoped to find a way to the rich spice trade of the Indies and to spread the Christian faith.

Henry gathered many of Europe's best geographers and navigators to plan expeditions. By about 1420 or earlier his navigators were exploring westward into the Atlantic, and by the 1430s they were moving southward along the west coast of Africa and claiming the Azores for Portugal. In Africa, they began to trade for slaves, gold, and ivory.

The success of these early voyages of discovery and exploration created great excitement throughout Europe. Success encouraged more voyages. In 1488 Bartolomeu Dias sailed around the Cape of Good Hope at the southern tip of Africa. Although Dias had to turn back, he had found the route to the Indian Ocean.

Using this knowledge, Vasco da Gama sailed eastward across the Indian Ocean. He landed in India in 1498. Several years later, da Gama made a second voyage to India. He returned to Portugal, his ships full of valuable goods. Thanks to Dias and da Gama, an overseas trade route from Europe to India and the East Indies was now available. Rich cargoes of spices and jewels arrived in Portugal. This direct ocean route saved the Portuguese from having to deal with middlemen traders. Now, the Portuguese could journey directly to the sources of the trade goods they sought. In many cases, too, ships could carry goods more cheaply than could overland caravans. Nor could Portuguese merchants be blocked or charged high tolls by competing powers that controlled overland routes. Overseas trade promised wealth for merchants and sailors and goods for Europe's markets.

Christopher Columbus (393)

Spain, too, became interested in the search for new trade routes. A Genoan navigator named Christopher Columbus had studied the writings of Marco Polo and Ptolemy's description of a round Earth. Columbus believed that a shorter route to Asia could be found by sailing westward instead of sailing around the tip of Africa. King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella of Spain agreed to finance Columbus's voyage of exploration.

In August 1492, Columbus set sail from Palos, Spain. His three small ships—the Niña, the Pinta, and the Santa Maria—sailed westward across the Atlantic. On October 12, 1492, the small fleet landed at a tiny island that Columbus named San Salvador. It was a historic moment when Columbus and his captains planted the Spanish flag. Columbus claimed the land that he had reached for Spain.

After exploring other islands in the area Columbus returned triumphantly to Spain in 1493. Columbus believed the islands he had found lay off the east coast of India. Thus, he called them the Indies and their inhabitants Indians. However, Columbus had actually discovered islands in the Americas. They later became known as the West Indies. Between 1493 and 1504, Columbus made three more voyages to the "Indies." For the rest of his life, he believed that he had landed off the coast of Asia.

There was a major difference between the Portuguese explorers and Columbus. The Portuguese already knew that the lands they sailed to existed. Earlier people had written of their journeys between Europe and Asia and Europe and Africa. Columbus believed he was traveling to one of these lands by a different route. Earlier Viking voyages to the Americas were unknown. When Columbus stepped ashore in what is now the Bahamas, he stepped on land that was altogether new and unknown to Europeans.

The Impact of Columbus's Voyages (394)

In the years following Columbus's voyages, a massive exchange took place between the so-called New World and the Old World of Europe. This interaction is often called the Columbian Exchange. Products, plants, animals, and even diseases traveled between the Western and Eastern Hemispheres. For example, gold and silver mined in South America were shipped eastward to Spain. This helped Spain become a major world power.

The exchange affected the way people in both worlds lived. American foods such as potatoes, tomatoes, beans, and corn were introduced in Europe. The Spanish brought horses to the Americas, thus changing the lifestyles of many Native American groups forever. This was especially true in areas such as the Great Plains.

However, not everything the Columbian Exchange brought to the New World was helpful. European sailors carried smallpox and other diseases westward. The native population of Spanish America had no immunity to these diseases and millions died.

Dividing New Lands

During the late 1400s Spain and Portugal—Europe's most active seagoing explorers—often claimed the same newly discovered lands. To settle these conflicts, Pope Alexander VI issued an edict in 1493. The Pope's edict drew an imaginary line from north to south through the middle of the Atlantic Ocean. Alexander gave Spain the rights to all newly discovered lands west of the line. Portugal could claim discoveries east of the line. Neither country, however, could take lands already held or claimed by another Christian ruler.

A year later, in 1494, the Treaty of Tordesillas between Spain and Portugal was signed and moved the line farther west. This soon had an important impact. In 1500 the Portuguese navigator Pedro Cabral set sail westward for India. Cabral's tiny fleet of 13 ships was blown off course, and the Portuguese made landfall on the coast of what is now Brazil. Under the Treaty of Tordesillas, Cabral was able to claim this incredibly rich land for Portugal.

Over time, Spain took control of most of Central and South America. The Spanish also claimed the Philippines. In addition to the Brazilian coast, Portugal claimed lands on the eastern and western coasts of Africa. The Portuguese also claimed lands in Asia and the East Indies.

Ch. 16-2: The Foundations of European Exploration

1. Why did European governments/monarchs support exploration and colonization during the 1400 and 1500s?
2. What were two reasons that individual Europeans were willing to explore and colonize distant lands?

Ch. 16-3: Voyages of Portugal and Spain

3. What were early Portuguese explorers trying to do for Prince Henry “The Navigator?”
4. Write the definition of the Columbian Exchange AND give an example of a specific product that was exchanged between continents.

The Conquistadors - Cortés

Score: ____/2

1. Hernan Cortés was a poor boy who was trained not in war, but in _____.
2. Cortés' expedition, which began in 1518 A.D., was made up of 11 ships and _____ soldiers.
3. Cortés was given a slave girl named Malinche who spoke Mayan and Nahuatl, the _____ language.
4. Cortés show of power included firing his _____ and riding his horses down the beach.
5. The Aztec gods were not like the Christian gods, they were more like the gods of the ancient _____.
6. There were _____ conquistadors that traveled with Cortés.
7. The greatest pilgrimage city in the _____ is Cholula.
8. The site where Montezuma's palace once was is now a _____.
9. The first thing the Spaniards noticed when they went inside the temple was the disgusting _____.
10. The siege on the city of Tenochtitlán lasted for _____ days.

The Columbian Exchange: Plants, Animals, and Disease between the Old and New Worlds

For tens of millions of years the dominant pattern of biological evolution on this planet has been dictated by the simple fact of the separateness of the continents. Even where climates have been similar, as in the Amazon and Congo basins, organisms have tended to get more different rather than more alike because they had little or no contact with each other.

However, very recently—that is to say, in the last few thousand years—there has been another force at work... **US**. We are world-travelers, trekkers of deserts and crossers of oceans. We have gone to and lived or at least spent some time everywhere, taking with us, intentionally,

our crops and domesticated animals and, unintentionally, our weeds, varmints, disease organisms. Humans have in the very last tick of time reversed the ancient trend of geographical biodiversification.

Humans had come to the Americas before, certainly the Vikings about 1,000 A.D., possibly Japanese and Polynesian fishermen, but the enormous amount of biological exchange did not begin until 1492. In that year the Europeans initiated contacts across the Atlantic (and, soon after, across the Pacific) which have never ceased. Their motives were economic, political, and religious, *not biological*. Their intentions were to make money, expand empires, and convert heathen, not to spread Old World DNA; but if we take the long view we will see that the most important aspect of their advances has been the spread of biology from the Old world to the New and back again.

They off-handedly and often unintentionally effected enormous changes and deletions in the plant and animal species of the continents, so enormous it is difficult to imagine what these places were like prior to Columbus. A large book would not provide enough space to list the plant, animal, and micro-organism exchanges, and a thousand volumes would be insufficient to discuss their effects.

But let us begin with a thumbnail sketch of the biogeography of the globe when Columbus set sail. Everyone in the Americas was an Amerindian. Everyone in Eurasia and Africa was a person who shared no common ancestor with Amerindians for at the very least 10,000 years. The plants and animals of the tropical continents of Africa and South America differed sharply from each other and from those in any other parts of the world. The plants and animals of the more northerly continents, Eurasia and North America, differed not so sharply, but clearly differed. European bison and American buffalo (which should also be called bison) were very much alike, but Europe had nothing like the rattlesnake, nor North America anything like the humped camel.

The contrast between the two sets of organisms, Old World and New World, those closely associated with humanity—crop plants, domesticated animals, germs, and weeds—was very sharp. The difference between the two lists of crops was, with the possible exception of cotton, absolute (see chart below).

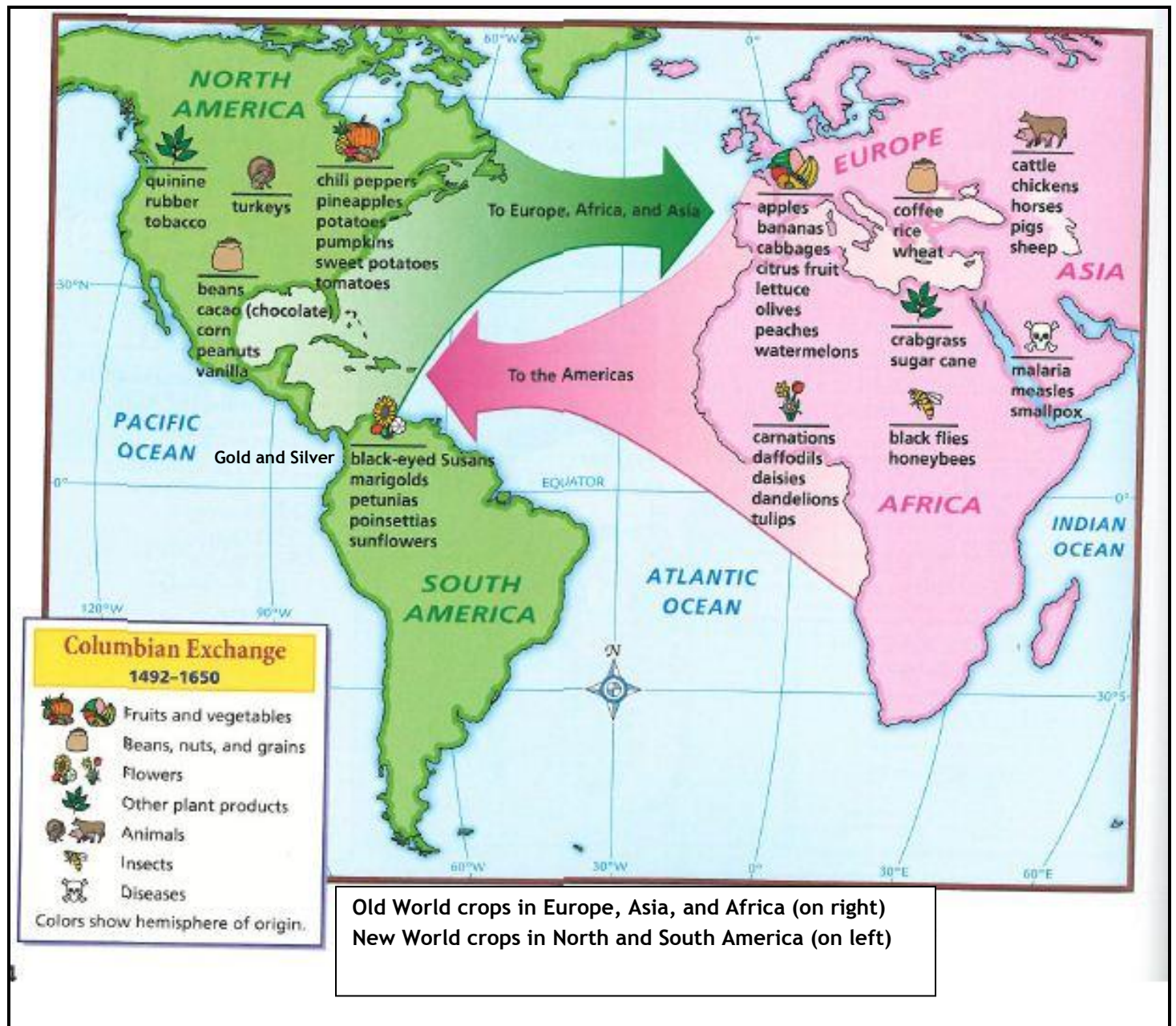
The achievements of Amerindian farmers were as impressive as those of Old World farmers, especially if you take into account the fact that the Amerindians' lands were smaller in area and they had fewer species of plants to work with than the Old World farmers, but the achievements of Amerindian livestockmen were clearly inferior to their Old World counterparts. Perhaps the Americas simply had fewer species of large mammals that could be tamed. There were, for instance, no wild horses or cattle in the Americas to tame. The North American buffalo resisted and still resist domestication. The Amerindians did domesticate the llama, the humpless camel of the Andes, but it cannot carry more than about two hundred pounds at most, cannot be ridden, and is anything but a nice, calm, beast of burden. So while people in the Old World were riding horses and using cattle for everything from transportation to food, people in the New World were lacking anything resembling a domesticated farm animal.

More astonishing than the difference between the length of the lists of Old World's and New World's plants and animals is the difference between the lengths of the lists of infectious diseases native to the two. The New World had only a few diseases, possibly because humans had been present there and had lived in dense populations, cities, for a short time compared to the Old. Possibly of greater importance is the lack of domesticated herd animals in America, one of our richest sources of disease micro-organisms. (For instance, we share influenza with pigs and other barnyard animals). There were infections in the New World before 1492 that were not present in the Old (Chagas disease, for instance). There were those it shared with the Old World, certainly

syphilis and possibly tuberculosis; but the list is short, very short. When we list the infections brought to the New World from the Old, however, we find most of humanity's worst afflictions, among them smallpox, malaria, yellow fever, measles, cholera, typhoid, and bubonic plague.

The effect of these diseases on the native populations of the New World was devastating. It is estimated that millions of natives died as a result of these diseases. Most likely it was because of a lack of immunity to these new infections they come in contact with. The Europeans would have been happy to use these native populations to work for them (many as slaves most likely) but after 10-15 years a majority (some estimates place this majority at upwards of 80% of the native population) of them were dead.

THE COLUMBIAN EXCHANGE



Citation: Crosby, Alfred W. "The Columbian Exchange: Native Americans and the Land, Nature Transformed." TeacherServe, National Humanities Center. Web. October. 2010.

