

2020-2021 AP US HISTORY SUMMER ASSIGNMENT - MR. ZEMAITIS

Welcome to AP US History! My name is Mr. Zemaitis and I am looking forward to working with you this fall. I have taught AP for fourteen years at New Britain High. I love the history and I love what the class has to offer my students.

The purpose of this particular summer assignment is to get you to focus on history from 1491 to 1607. The work you will complete will help you study the “big picture”, recognize trends, and examine the economic, social and political interactions of the people who lived here in North America. It will also explore the causes and effects of European exploration on the people of this continent, as well as, Europe and Africa.

Ultimately, the history you will learn and the skills that you will practice using in this assignment and throughout the school year will allow you to take the May 2021 AP exam and potentially earn college credit when you move on from New Britain High.

This summer assignment is due on **September 4, 2020**. It will be followed by a review and discussion of the material. A test on this material will occur on September 15th.

Assignment Activities:

- **Activity 1: Setting Up Your AP Binder**
- **Activity 2: Native American Societies Before Columbus**
- **Activity 3: European Exploration in the Americas**
- **Activity 4A: Columbian Exchange**
- **Activity 4B: Spanish Conquest**
- **Activity 5: Labor, Slavery and the Encomienda System**
- **Activity 6: Cultural Interactions Between Europeans, Native Americans & Africans**

Activity 1: Setting Up Your AP Binder

A successful AP student starts with a well-organized binder. Your AP binder will become the backbone to your work and to your studying.

Why a binder and not a notebook? The binder allows you the flexibility to move your notes around and organize them in a way that works for you. A notebook does not. Notes are written on the page that they are written on and they are stuck there. Sure, you can rip a page out but now there's an increased chance of losing it and once the page is gone, it's gone for good! So, get yourself a 2-3 inch binder and organize it in the following way:

- Fill the binder with college rule white-lined paper. If you can get the white-lined paper that is reinforced around its holes, even better!
- Purchase binder dividers and divide your binder into the following sections: Notes, Homework, Handouts. The handout section should have no white-lined paper in it. This is where three hole punched readings will go.

Keep good care of your binder and it will take good care of you!

Activity 2: Native American Societies Before Columbus

Overview of History

Before Columbus's arrival in the "New World" in 1492, North and South America and the Caribbean were filled with a diverse group of people. These Native Americans developed distinct languages, cultural and religious practices. The geographic locations that these groups allowed for the unique creation of homes, tools and clothing suitable to their climate. Regional factors shaped the type of work that tribes committed themselves to and the types of foods that they ate. Native Americans weren't one type of people but were actually many kinds of people.

Directions

You will use the following links from AP Khan Academy to complete the graphic organizer. **Remember**, all of your responses must be in complete sentences and because this is college level class, your responses must be written in pen or typed.

Links

American Indian Culture of the West

<https://www.khanacademy.org/humanities/ap-us-history/period-1/apush-before-contact/a/west-indian-culture>

American Indian Culture of the Southwest

<https://www.khanacademy.org/humanities/ap-us-history/period-1/apush-before-contact/a/southwest-indian-culture>

American Indian Culture of the Northeast

<https://www.khanacademy.org/humanities/ap-us-history/period-1/apush-before-contact/a/northeast-indian-culture>

American Indian Culture of the Southeast

<https://www.khanacademy.org/humanities/ap-us-history/period-1/apush-before-contact/a/southeast-indian-culture>

American Indian Culture of the Plains

<https://www.khanacademy.org/humanities/ap-us-history/period-1/apush-before-contact/a/plains-indian-culture>



Native American Cultural Groupings

	West	Southwest	Northeast	Southeast	Plains
Location (Current US States)					
Climate					
Tribes					
Food					
Homes					
Culture (Religion, Language, Art, Architecture, Stories, etc.)					

Final Question For Activity 2

Using the information you gathered to complete the organizer, briefly explain how **ONE** group of natives interacted with their natural environments **AND** explain why these interactions were significant in the development of their society. Use article information to support your response. **Remember**, all of your responses must be in complete sentences and because this is college level class, your responses must be written in pen or typed.

Example:

The Inuit of the Arctic region of North America had to learn to adapt to the harsh polar region. With the region's harsh cold temperatures, poor growing conditions and a lack of other resources, the Inuit had to learn to use what was available to them. The Inuit hunted the marine and the land-based wildlife around them. Fish and meat became staples of their diet. The pelts of mammals were used for clothing to keep them warm against the brutal cold weather. The skins from seals were used to insulate and waterproof their boots and boats. Although not used as much today, the Inuit could build shelters from skins, whale bone or even the snow itself. The Inuit's environment shaped their society in many ways. It forced them to be adaptive people who could hunt on land as well as the sea. Sea hunts became a boy's rite of passage to manhood. These natives also paid homage to the animals who helped sustain them. So important is the environment to the Inuit and their culture, that they have at least fifty words for snow in their language.

Activity 3: European Exploration in the Americas

Overview of History

In the pre “New World” world, Europe was coming out of some very difficult times. The continent had seen the collapse of the Roman Empire and the emergence of the Dark Ages. These “dark” times saw the loss of intellectual curiosity, the scourge of the plague and war. The Black Death killed nearly 40% of the continent's people. Rats being the culprits of its spread. When there was no death from disease, there was death from war. Warfare between budding kingdoms ran rampant across the continent. Then there were the Crusades. These holy wars pitted the Catholic Church in Rome against Muslims for control of the holy city Jerusalem in present-day Israel. Religiously the city was important to both faiths. These wars would be off and on for hundreds of years. Islam growing so strong that it actually gained territory on the European continent in places like Spain. The Spaniards would not regain control of their homeland until - you guessed it - 1492.

What then pushed Europeans to want to explore the wider world?

Directions

You will read the article “European Exploration: The 3 G's - God, Gold and Glory” and use the information from this reading in order to complete the Activity 4 prompt. As always, cite evidence to support your response. Also, **remember** all of your responses must be in complete sentences and because this is college level class, your responses must be written in pen or typed.

European Exploration: The 3 G's - God, Gold and Glory

God and The Crusades

The year 622 brought a new challenge to Christianity. Near Mecca, Saudi Arabia, a prophet named Muhammad claimed he received a revelation that became a cornerstone of the Islamic faith. The Koran, which contained the revelations received by Muhammad, identified Jesus Christ not as God but as a prophet. Islam spread throughout the Middle East and into Europe until 732.

Soon thereafter, European Christians began the Crusades, a campaign of violence against Muslims to dominate the Holy Lands—an area that extended from modern-day Turkey in the north along the Mediterranean coast to the Sinai Peninsula—under Islamic control, partially in response to sustained Muslim control in Europe. The city of Jerusalem is a holy site for Jews, Christians, and Muslims; evidence exists that the three religions lived there in harmony for centuries. But in 1095, European Christians decided not only to reclaim the holy city from Muslim rulers but also to conquer the entire surrounding area.

The Crusades provided the religious ideology for the Reconquista, which in turn inspired Atlantic colonization. The Reconquista, or reconquest, refers to the 800 years of violence and expulsion of Muslims from the Iberian Peninsula after the failed Crusades. The Crusades and the Reconquista cemented religious intolerance, and the Christians looked to colonization partly as a means of continuing religious conquests. Particularly in the strongly Catholic nations of Spain and Portugal, religious zeal motivated the rulers to convert Native Americans and sanctify Christian global dominance.

Gold and Trade

Despite the consequent religious polarization, the Crusades dramatically increased maritime trade between the East and West. As Crusaders experienced the feel of silk, the taste of spices, and the utility of porcelain, desire for these products created new markets for merchants.

Merchants' ships brought Europeans valuable goods, traveling between the port cities of western Europe and the East from the 10th century on along routes collectively labeled the Silk Road. However, transporting goods along the Silk Road was costly, slow, and unprofitable. Muslim middlemen collected taxes as the goods changed hands. Robbers waited to ambush treasure-laden caravans.

As well as seeking a water passage to the wealthy cities of the East, sailors wanted to find a route to the exotic and wealthy Spice Islands in modern-day Indonesia, whose location was kept secret by Muslim rulers. The lure of profit pushed explorers to seek new trade routes to the Spice Islands and to eliminate Muslim middlemen.

Glory

Competition between the Portuguese and the Spanish motivated both nations to colonize quickly and aggressively. Prince Henry the Navigator spearheaded Portugal's exploration of Africa and the Atlantic in the 1400s. Portuguese sailors successfully navigated an eastward route to West Africa, where they established a trading foothold. Portugal then spread its empire down the western coast of Africa to the Congo, along the western coast of India, and eventually to Brazil and the Atlantic islands. Although the Portuguese did not rule over an immense landmass, their strategic holdings of islands and coastal ports gave them almost unrivaled control of nautical trade routes.

The travels of Portuguese traders to western Africa also acquainted the Portuguese with the African slave trade, already widely in practice in West Africa and funded by sugar production on the newly colonized Atlantic islands. Upon discovering the immense global market for sugar, the Portuguese began to trade enslaved people across the Atlantic to toil on the sugar plantations. The Portuguese fort Elmina Castle, located in modern-day Ghana, became more of a holding pen for enslaved Africans from the interior of the continent than a trading post, as the markets for slave labor in both Europe and then the New World boomed.

Portuguese colonization in the 1400s inaugurated an era of aggressive European expansion across the Atlantic. The Spanish, threatened by the Portuguese monopoly on enslaved Africans and expansion in the Atlantic, started their own colonization project with Christopher Columbus in 1492. The competition between the two nations continued and drew more and more Europeans to the New World.

Final Question For Activity 3

Using the information from this article, briefly explain how "God, Gold and Glory" caused the age of European exploration and conquest that begins in 1492. Cite evidence from the article to support your response. **Remember**, all of your responses must be in complete sentences and because this is college level class, your responses must be written in pen or typed.

Activity 4A: Columbian Exchange

Overview of History

As we know Christopher Columbus sailed the ocean blue in 1492 (August 3rd to be exact). He made landfall in the Bahamas on October 12. He would subsequently move onto the islands of Cuba and Hispaniola (Haiti and the Dominican Republic today). This initial visit and the three additional Columbian voyages that would follow would place him in direct contact with island Native American societies. This contact would be coined “The Columbian Exchange” in 1972 by historian Alfred Crosby. The exchange saw the widespread transfer of plants, animals, culture, human populations, technology, diseases, and ideas between the Americas, West Africa and Europe during the 15th and 16th centuries. One thing is for sure - the world would never be the same after 1492.

Directions

You will read the article “The Columbian Exchange” and use the information from this reading in order to complete the Activity 4 prompt. As always, cite evidence to support your response. Also, **remember** all of your responses must be in complete sentences and because this is college level class, your responses must be written in pen or typed.

The Columbian Exchange by J.R. McNeill

Introduction

Columbian Exchange, the largest part of a more general process of biological globalization that followed the transoceanic voyaging of the 15th and 16th centuries. Ecological provinces that had been torn apart by continental drift millions of years ago were suddenly reunited by oceanic shipping, particularly in the wake of Christopher Columbus’s voyages that began in 1492. The consequences profoundly shaped world history in the ensuing centuries, most obviously in the Americas, Europe, and Africa. The phrase “the Columbian Exchange” is taken from the title of Alfred W. Crosby’s 1972 book, which divided the exchange into three categories: diseases, animals, and plants.

Diseases

Before 1492, Native Americans (Amerindians) hosted none of the acute infectious diseases that had long bedeviled most of Eurasia and Africa: measles, smallpox, influenza, mumps, typhus, and whooping cough, among others. In most places other than isolated villages, these had become endemic childhood diseases that killed one-fourth to one-half of all children before age six. Survivors, however, carried partial, and often total, immunity to most of these infections with the notable exception of influenza. Falciparum malaria, by far the most severe variant of that plasmodial infection, and yellow fever also crossed the Atlantic from Africa to the Americas.

In the centuries after 1492, these infections swirled as epidemics among Native American populations. Physical and psychological stress, including mass violence, compounded their effect. The impact was most severe in the Caribbean, where by 1600 Native American populations on most islands had plummeted by more than 99 percent. Across the Americas, populations fell by 50 percent to 95 percent by 1650.

The disease component of the Columbian Exchange was decidedly one-sided. However, it is likely that syphilis evolved in the Americas and spread elsewhere beginning in the 1490s. More assuredly, Native Americans hosted a form of tuberculosis, perhaps acquired from Pacific seals and sea lions. But they had no counterparts to the suite of lethal diseases they acquired from Eurasians and Africans. The paucity of exportable infections was a result of the settlement and ecological history of the Americas: The first Americans arrived about 25,000 to 15,000 years ago. The domestication of species other than dogs was yet to come. So none of the human diseases derived from, or shared with, domestic herd animals such as cattle, camels, and pigs (e.g. smallpox, influenza) yet existed anywhere in the Americas. Unlike these animals, the ducks, turkeys, alpacas, llamas, and other species domesticated by Native Americans seem to have harbored no infections that became human diseases.

Animals

The animal component of the Columbian Exchange was slightly less one-sided. Horses, pigs, cattle, goats, sheep, and several other species adapted readily to conditions in the Americas. Broad expanses of grassland in both North and South America suited immigrant herbivores, cattle and horses especially, which ran wild and reproduced prolifically on the Pampas and the Great Plains. Pigs too went feral. Sheep prospered only in managed flocks and became a mainstay of pastoralism in several contexts, such as among the Navajo in New Mexico.

With the new animals, Native Americans acquired new sources of hides, wool, and animal protein. Horses and oxen also offered a new source of traction, making plowing feasible in the Americas for the first time and improving transportation possibilities through wheeled vehicles, hitherto unused in the Americas. Donkeys, mules, and horses provided a wider variety of pack animals. Thus, the introduced animal species had some important economic consequences in the Americas and made the American hemisphere more similar to Eurasia and Africa in its economy.

The new animals made the Americas more like Eurasia and Africa in a second respect. With goats and pigs leading the way, they chewed and trampled crops, provoking between herders and farmers conflict of a sort hitherto unknown in the Americas except perhaps where llamas got loose. This pattern of conflict created new opportunities for political divisions and alignments defined by new common interests.

One introduced animal, the horse, rearranged political life even further. The Native Americans of the North American prairies, often called Plains Indians, acquired horses from Spanish New Mexico late in the 17th century. On horseback they could hunt bison (buffalo) more rewardingly, boosting food supplies until the 1870s, when bison populations dwindled. Additionally, mastery of the techniques of equestrian warfare utilized against their neighbours helped to vault groups such as the Sioux and Comanche to heights of political power previously unattained by any Amerindians in North America.

Plants

The Columbian Exchange was more even handed when it came to crops. The Americas' farmers' gifts to other continents included staples such as corn (maize), potatoes, cassava, and sweet potatoes, together with secondary food crops such as tomatoes, peanuts, pumpkins, squashes, pineapples, and chili peppers. Tobacco, one of humankind's most important drugs, is another gift of the Americas, one that by now has probably killed far more people in Eurasia and Africa than Eurasian and African diseases killed in the Americas.

Some of these crops had revolutionary consequences in Africa and Eurasia. Corn had the biggest impact, altering agriculture in Asia, Europe, and Africa. It underpinned population growth and famine resistance in parts of China and Europe, mainly after 1700, because it grew in places unsuitable for tubers and grains and sometimes gave two or even three harvests a year. It also served as livestock feed, for pigs in particular.

In Africa about 1550–1850, farmers from Senegal to Southern Africa turned to corn. Today it is the most important food on the continent as a whole. Its drought resistance especially recommended it in the many regions of Africa with unreliable rainfall.

Corn had political consequences in Africa. After harvest, it spoils more slowly than the traditional staples of African farms, such as bananas, sorghums, millets, and yams. Its longer shelf life, especially once it is ground into meal, favoured the centralization of power because it enabled rulers to store more food for longer periods of time, give it to loyal followers, and deny it to all others. Previously, without long-lasting foods, Africans found it harder to build states and harder still to project military power over large spaces. In the moist tropical forests of western and west-central Africa, where humidity worked against food hoarding, new and larger states emerged on the basis of corn agriculture in the 17th century. Some of them, including the Asante kingdom centred in modern-day Ghana, developed supply systems for feeding far-flung armies of conquest, using cornmeal, which canoes, porters, or soldiers could carry over

great distances. Such logistical capacity helped Asante become an empire in the 18th century. To the east of Asante, expanding kingdoms such as Dahomey and Oyo also found corn useful in supplying armies on campaign.

The durability of corn also contributed to commercialization in Africa. Merchant parties, traveling by boat or on foot, could expand their scale of operations with food that stored and traveled well. The advantages of corn proved especially significant for the slave trade, which burgeoned dramatically after 1600. Slaves needed food on their long walks across the Sahara to North Africa or to the Atlantic coast en route to the Americas. Corn further eased the slave trade's logistical challenges by making it feasible to keep legions of slaves fed while they clustered in coastal barracoons before slavers shipped them across the Atlantic.

Cassava, or manioc, another American food crop introduced to Africa in the 16th century as part of the Columbian Exchange, had impacts that in some cases reinforced those of corn and in other cases countered them. Cassava, originally from Brazil, has much that recommended it to African farmers. Its soil nutrient requirements are modest, and it withstands drought and insects robustly. Like corn, it yields a flour that stores and travels well. It helped ambitious rulers project force and build states in Angola, Kongo, West Africa, and beyond. Farmers can harvest cassava (unlike corn) at any time after the plant matures. The food lies in the root, which can last for weeks or months in the soil. This characteristic of cassava suited farming populations targeted by slave raiders. It enabled them to vanish into the forest and abandon their crop for a while, returning when danger had passed. So while corn helped slave traders expand their business, cassava allowed peasant farmers to escape and survive slavers' raids.

The potato, domesticated in the Andes, made little difference in African history, although it does feature today in agriculture, especially in the Maghreb and South Africa. Farmers in various parts of East and South Asia adopted it, which improved agricultural returns in cool and mountainous districts. But its strongest impact came in northern Europe, where ecological conditions suited its requirements even at low elevations. From central Russia across to the British Isles, its adoption between 1700 and 1900 improved nutrition, checked famine, and led to a sustained spurt of demographic growth.

Potatoes store well in cold climates and contain excellent nutrition. In the Andes, where potato production and storage began, freeze-dried potatoes helped fuel the expansion of the Inca empire in the 15th century. A few centuries later potatoes fed the labouring legions of northern Europe's manufacturing cities and thereby indirectly contributed to European industrial empires. Both Catherine the Great in Russia and Frederick II (the Great) in Prussia encouraged potato cultivation, hoping it would boost the number of taxpayers and soldiers in their domains. Like cassava, potatoes suited populations that might need to flee marauding armies. Potatoes can be left in the ground for weeks, unlike northern European grains such as rye and barley, which will spoil if not harvested when ripe. Frequent warfare in northern Europe prior to 1815 encouraged the adoption of potatoes.

Eurasian and African crops had an equally profound influence on the history of the American hemisphere. Until the mid-19th century, "drug crops" such as sugar and coffee proved the most important plant introductions to the Americas. Together with tobacco and cotton, they formed the heart of a plantation complex that stretched from the Chesapeake to Brazil and accounted for the vast majority of the Atlantic slave trade.

Introduced staple food crops, such as wheat, rice, rye, and barley, also prospered in the Americas. Some of these grains—rye, for example—grew well in climates too cold for corn, so the new crops helped to expand the spatial footprint of farming in both North and South America. Rice, on the other hand, fit into the plantation complex: imported from both Asia and Africa, it was raised mainly by slave labour in places such as Suriname and South Carolina until slavery's abolition. By the late 19th century these food grains covered a wide swathe of the arable land in the Americas. Beyond grains, African crops introduced to the Americas included watermelon, yams, sorghum, millets, coffee, and okra. Eurasian contributions to American diets included bananas; oranges, lemons, and other citrus fruits; and grapes.

Conclusion

The Columbian Exchange, and the larger process of biological globalization of which it is part, has slowed but not ended. Shipping and air travel continue to redistribute species among the continents. Kudzu vine arrived in North America from Asia in the late 19th century and has spread widely in forested regions. The North American gray squirrel has found a new home in the British Isles. Zebra mussels have colonized North American waters since the 1980s. However, the consequences of recent biological exchanges for economic, political, and health history thus far pale next to those of the 16th through 18th century.

Final Question For Activity 4A

Use your research and visual representation to answer a, b, and c.

- A. Identify and explain **ONE** change that had a significant impact on one of the following groups due to the Columbian Exchange. Cite specific textual evidence to support your response.
 - i. Europeans
 - ii. Native Americans
 - iii. Africans
- B. Identify and explain **ONE** additional change that had a significant impact on one of the groups above due to the Columbian Exchange that was **NOT** discussed in A. Cite specific textual evidence to support your response.
- C. Evaluate whether or not the Columbian Exchange is a positive or negative historical event for the groups involved in it. Cite specific evidence to support your response.

Activity 4B: Spanish Conquest

Overview of History

Once news got back to Spain about Christopher Columbus's discovery, explorers wide and far began to plan for their own adventures in this "New World". They dreamt of spreading the word of God, seeking their fortunes and becoming glorified for their deeds and accomplishments for the rest of time.

Amongst these adventure seekers were a group of men known as conquistadors. In Spanish, conquistadors translates to conquerors. These conquerors were knights, soldiers and explorers of the Spanish Empire and the Portuguese Empire. During the Age of Discovery, conquistadors sailed beyond Europe to the Americas, Oceania, Africa, and Asia, conquering territory and opening trade routes in the name of God, their king and to make history.

Directions

You will use the Internet to complete the following graphic organizer on the conquistadors. **Remember**, all of your responses must be in complete sentences and because this is college level class, your responses must be written in pen or typed.

The Conquistadors

	Years of Exploration	Territory Explored	Notable Accomplishments
Hernan Cortes			
Francisco Pizarro			
Alvar Nunez Cabeza de Vaca			
Francisco de Orellano			

Final Question For Activity 4B

Briefly explain how the actions of these men shaped Spain and the Americas in the 1500s. Cite evidence from the article to support your response. **Remember**, all of your responses must be in complete sentences and because this is college level class, your responses must be written in pen or typed.

Activity 5: Labor, Slavery and the Encomienda System

Overview of History

As the conquistadors established Spain's power over much of North, Central and South America, they shifted their focus on making this new land into a viable moneymaker for their king. They established a society based on rank and privilege. The Spanish forced the natives to labor for them in the mines and on the farms. When the native population became too weakened by disease and abuse, the Spanish turned to African slavery to reinforce the workforce. This tiered societal system in the Spanish New World became known as the encomienda system.

The Encomienda

Encomienda, in Spain's American and Philippine colonies, legal system by which the Spanish crown attempted to define the status of the indigenous population. It was based upon the practice of exacting tribute from Muslims and Jews during the Reconquista ("Reconquest") of Muslim Spain. Although the original intent of the encomienda was to reduce the abuses of forced labour (repartimiento) employed shortly after Europeans' 15th-century discovery of the New World, in practice it became a form of enslavement.

As legally defined in 1503, an encomienda (from Spanish *encomendar*, "to entrust") consisted of a grant by the crown to a conquistador, a soldier, an official, or others of a specified number of "Indios" (Native Americans and, later, Filipinos) living in a particular area. The receiver of the grant, the encomendero, could exact tribute from the "Indios" in gold, in kind, or in labour and was required to protect them and instruct them in the Christian faith. The encomienda did not include a grant of land, but in practice the encomenderos gained control of lands inhabited by "Indios" and failed to fulfill their obligations to the indigenous population. The crown's attempts to end the severe abuses of the system with the Laws of Burgos (1512–13) and the New Law of the Indies (1542) failed in the face of colonial opposition. In fact, a revised form of the repartimiento system was revived after 1550.

The encomienda was designed to meet the needs of the American colonies' early mining economy. With the catastrophic decline in the Indian population and the replacement of mining activities by agriculture in Spanish America, the system lost its effectiveness and was gradually replaced by the hacienda system of landed estates. Although the encomienda was not officially abolished until the late 18th century, in September 1721 the conferment of new encomiendas in Spain's colonies was prohibited.

Encomienda & Caste: Spaniards

Within Spanish colonial America, the development of a caste system could be seen. A caste is defined as any of the ranked, hereditary, marital social groups that can be often linked by occupation. In Spanish America, this system saw the creation of castes called the peninsulares, creoles, mixed groupings (mestizo and mulattoes), natives and African slaves.

The upper echelons of colonial society were dominated by Spaniards, who held all of the positions of economic privilege and political power. However, a sharp split existed between those born in Europe, "peninsulares," and those born in the Americas, creoles. Although the relationship between these two groups was sometimes friendly, as when peninsular men married into creole families, it could also be antagonistic. Peninsulars sometimes perceived creoles as lazy, mentally deficient, and physically degenerate, whereas creoles often saw peninsulars as avaricious. In the sixteenth century rivalries between European-born and American-born friars for control of the religious orders led to violence that resulted in a formal policy of alternating terms of leadership between creoles and peninsulares. The Spanish crown's preference for European-born Spaniards in government and church posts in the eighteenth century provoked deep resentment among elite creole men, who had come to expect positions of influence. Their resentment helped fuel anti-Iberian sentiment in the colonies before the wars for independence.

Creoles attributed greed to peninsulares because it was far more possible to make a fortune in the Americas than in Europe. Opportunities were present in retail and transatlantic commerce, in gold and silver mining, and in bureaucratic posts that offered opportunities to trade in native goods and exchange influence for favors. In the sixteenth century many peninsulars made their New World fortunes in order to retire in comfort in Spain, but by the eighteenth century, peninsulares were apt to enmesh themselves in the communities of the Americas.

The numerous opportunities for enrichment made the Crown tremendously reluctant to grant titles of nobility to creoles who became wealthy in the Americas. Thus, although there were many extraordinarily wealthy creole families, there were comparatively few creole noble titles. This lack of titles created one of the distinctive characteristics of Spanish society in the New World: In Spain a title of nobility clearly indicated an elevated social rank, but in the Americas there were too few titles to identify all the individuals with wealth and power. Nor were all the families that were ennobled by the Crown able to retain their economic positions, and this made noble titles uncertain guides to social status. Power and status depended far more upon the recognition of one's peers than upon the external and readily identifiable labels of nobility, and the absence of noble titles contributed to a sense of shared status among all Spaniards. Although there were clear, though usually unstated, limits to ideas of equality between elite and non-elite Spaniards, the absence of noble titles and the small size of the European population relative to the indigenous population contributed to sentiments of equality.

Despite the common prejudice against laboring with one's hands, many Spaniards did so, though unskilled labor was performed by Indians. Spanish craftsmen were employed for their skills, even when they were hired out on a daily basis. In rural settings Spaniards were likely to be the managers and foremen over Indians, who did the hard physical labor of planting, weeding, and harvesting crops.

Introduced to the Americas by the Spaniards, horses became symbols of European superiority; they represented wealth (for horses were not cheap), a superior physical vantage point, greater mobility and speed, and the superiority of European society. The horse and iron-based arms were the keys to many military successes during the Spanish Conquest, and were broadly considered to be indicators of the superior social status shared by Spaniards, from which all conquered native peoples and slaves were excluded. By Spanish statute, Indians and slaves were forbidden to bear arms, for military reasons. The enforcement of this prohibition was greatly assisted by the popularity of the belief that bearing arms, like riding a horse, was a prerogative of social rank and being Spanish.

Encomienda & Caste: Racially Mixed Groups

Members of the intermediate racial groups included the offspring of black and white parents, called mulattoes; of white and Indian parents, called mestizo; and of black and Indian parents, to whom no single term was ever applied. The mestizos, mulattoes, and black Indians also intermingled and produced descendants of even greater racial mixture—part Indian, part Spanish, part black. No distinctive name was ever applied to these offspring; they were usually called simply castas.

For the first 150 years of Spanish colonial rule the number of castas was relatively small, and racially mixed offspring were usually absorbed into the Spanish, Indian, or black groups. During this time only a handful were categorized as castas, and these were usually divided into either mestizos or mulattoes. About the middle of the seventeenth century, these groups began to develop an identity of their own. Instead of merely being people who lacked either the tribal affiliation of native peoples or the social prerogatives of Spaniards, they came increasingly to constitute groups in their own right. Women of these intermediate groups were more often employed than their Spanish counterparts, whereas the men were apt to be artisans, but journeymen rather than masters.

Racially mixed people were officially banned from positions of influence in colonial society. They could not sit on town councils, serve as notaries, or become members of the more exclusive artisan guilds such as the goldsmiths. They were barred from the priesthood and from the universities. Those designated as mestizos were exempt from the tribute payment owed by their Indian relatives, but no such exemption was granted mulattoes; even when freed, they were subject to the traditional payments of conquered peoples to their rulers.

The dramatic growth of the castas in the eighteenth century was an increase in sheer numbers of castas as well as a proliferation in the number of racial categories. From the simple divisions of mestizo and mulatto emerged categories such as the castizo, an intermediate position between Spaniard and mestizo, and morisco, the equivalent between mulatto and Spaniard. And the steady rise of intermarriages among the racially mixed population itself produced an enormous range of physical types, in turn generating a 15 number of novel, often fanciful names for the sheer physical variety apparent for the first time in large numbers during the eighteenth century.

Encomienda & Caste: Indians

The Indians were a conquered people, and many of the earliest social distinctions regarding them, such as the payment of tribute, stemmed from their initial relationship to the Crown as conquered subjects. Spanish rulers exempted indigenous elites from payment of tribute and granted them the honorific "Don," characteristic of the Spanish lesser nobility. But whereas such titles and exemptions from tribute were hereditary among Spaniards, these titles were held only by Indians who were incumbents. Because the offices they held were rarely hereditary—instead they were passed among members of the community, often by elections—the exemptions from tribute were rarely permanent.

Indigenous communities in the New World were overwhelmingly agricultural. Indians farmed land, either their own or that of Spaniards. Some resided in communities near Spanish settlements, others were forcibly removed and "congregated" near such settlements. In some regions Indians engaged in fishing or hunting. In the urban areas of the Americas, Indians were more apt to be construction workers (e.g., bricklayers, stonemasons), day laborers, or vendors of agricultural products.

In the mining regions of Central and South America, Spaniards used Indians to mine the gold and especially the silver found in regions located away from major population centers. Spaniards uprooted Indians, temporarily or permanently, and relocated them in communities near the mines. Slaves were rarely employed in the mines, and never in large numbers. Mining was the labor of Indians.

Encomienda & Caste: Slaves

In the early years of the Spanish Conquest a great number of Indians were captured and enslaved on the Caribbean islands and nearby landfalls. Slavery was blamed by many for the devastation of indigenous communities, and the practice was outlawed by the New Laws of 1542, though natives who fought the Spaniards in frontier regions were often enslaved as late as the seventeenth century.

Following the devastation of native peoples in the Caribbean, blacks were introduced as slave labor. The largest number of black slaves arrived in the Spanish colonies between 1550 and 1650, corresponding with growth in the cultivation of sugar in Spanish America. But with the surpassing success of sugar production in seventeenth-century Brazil, the Spanish American industry shrank substantially, along with the number of imported slaves. In the nineteenth century, both the number of imported slaves of African origin and the sugar industry were revived in the Spanish Caribbean. But on the mainland, the numbers of imported slaves fell off sharply after 1650. In addition to the slaves in sugar-growing regions, there were a small number of slaves in the entourages of the wealthy and powerful in Spanish American capitals. These slaves were often pages, working in the urban homes of the well-to-do.

Between the middle of the seventeenth century and the end of the next century, the slaves of African origin disappeared as a readily identifiable social group in Spanish America. In some cities the African presence persisted into the nineteenth century. In the last years of Spanish rule, approximately one-third of the population of Buenos Aires was considered black, but by the end of the nineteenth century the percentage of Afro-Argentines had dropped to 2

percent. Nevertheless, their integration into the racially mixed population was central to the transformation of Spanish New World society in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.

Final Question For Activity 5

From the reading, briefly explain how the growth of the Spanish Empire in the Americas shaped the development of its social and economic structures over time. Cite evidence from the article to support your response. **Remember**, all of your responses must be in complete sentences and because this is college level class, your responses must be written in pen or typed.

Activity 6: Cultural Interactions Between Europeans, Native Americans & Africans

Directions

You will use the following link from AP Khan Academy to complete the graphic organizer. **Remember**, all of your responses must be in complete sentences and because this is college level class, your responses must be written in pen or typed.

Link: <https://youtu.be/AGiWyQRZqpo>

Cultural Interactions Chart		
	Native Americans	Europeans
Land		
Property and Trade		
Gender Roles		
Religion		

Final Question For Activity 6

Based upon your findings for this activity, explain European and Native American perspectives of each other developed and changed during the time period of 1491 to 1607. Cite evidence from the link to support your response. **Remember**, all of your responses must be in complete sentences and because this is college level class, your responses must be written in pen or typed.