How did Spanish exploration and colonization affect New Mexico’s native population?

Spanish explorers introduced many new ideas, technologies, animals, plants, and even diseases to the native people in the Americas. What examples of new things can you find in this image?

Timeline of Events

1492
Voyage of Columbus

1519–1521
Cortés conquer the Aztecs.

1528–1536
Cabeza de Vaca passes through the Southwest.

1531–1533
Pizarro conquers the Incas.

1539
Fray Marcos and Estéban explore New Mexico

1598
Juan de Oñate establishes the first Spanish colony in New Mexico.

1598–1599
The Acoma Revolt

1609
Santa Fe founded

1610
Two Worlds Meet

Chapter 3

Comprehension Strategy

Make Connections

Good readers make connections as they read. You might connect the text to something you already know or something happening around you. You might even connect the text to something happening in the world. Making connections helps you remember what you read.

In this chapter, you will learn about the first Europeans to come to New Mexico. Look for connections between what you already know and what you learn in this chapter.

- 1650
- 1680: The Pueblo Revolt
- 1692–1693: Reconquest of New Mexico
- 1706: Albuquerque founded
- 1776: Escalante-Dominguez Expedition to Arizona
- 1779: Comanches defeated
- 1786: Peace treaty with Comanches signed
- 1810
By the 1400s, millions of Indians lived in the western hemisphere. Among them were the Pueblo, Navajo, and Apache in what is now New Mexico. At the same time, there were millions of people living on the other side of the Atlantic Ocean in Europe. Neither civilization knew of the existence of the other. Then a series of events began that changed both worlds in dramatic ways.

**Trade Competition**

In the 1400s, European nations were competing to control global trade. Trade brought great wealth to nations. With great wealth came great power. Nations that controlled trade built huge armies and navies. As a result, some nations could easily take over others.

Europeans were particularly interested in buying goods they could not get in Europe. They wanted spices, silk, jewelry, carpets, porcelain, and tea from Asia. Traders bought these items at low prices in Asia and then sold them for profit in Europe.

During this period, traders traveled mostly by land over trade routes like the Silk Road. The Silk Road connected Europe to China. On the way, it passed through the Middle East. Other routes branched off the main Silk Road and connected to India.

Italian cities were Europe’s most important trade centers. Italian merchants could leave Italy by ship and travel to the Middle East. From there, they traveled by land to the markets of Asia. Other European countries wanted to find their own trade route to Asia—preferably by water. Travel by water would be faster and easier.
Voyages of Columbus

It was during this time that famed explorer Christopher Columbus convinced King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella of Spain to finance a voyage to find a new water route to Asia. He thought a western voyage from Europe would be shorter than sailing around Africa to the Indian Ocean. He promised the king and queen that he would find a new route to Asia. Once there, he promised also to convert the people to the Catholic religion. Spain was one of the most powerful nations in the world. But, like other European countries, Spain wanted even more power. The Spanish wanted all the riches and religious converts Columbus could gather.

Finding a western route to Asia seemed like a good idea. However, no one knew that more than water separated Europe and Asia. There was an entire hemisphere between them. When Columbus finally reached land, he thought he had arrived in Asia. Instead, he was on a small island in the Caribbean Sea. He called the island San Salvador, which means “Saint Savior” or “Holy Savior.” Columbus was so certain he had reached the Indies that he called the people he met Indios, or Indians. Europeans eventually called the new land America. To his dying day, Columbus was sure he had sailed to Asia.

What Do You Think?

When Columbus stumbled upon a new continent, Europeans began referring to it as the “New World.” Europe was the “Old World.” Were the Americas really new?

The Spice Trade

Spices were very valuable to Europeans during this period. Spices helped both to flavor food and to keep it from spoiling. Salt, pepper, cinnamon, mustard, cloves, and ginger were in high demand. Such spices grew mostly in the tropical regions of the Far East—in India, Indonesia, and China. Any country that could gain control of the spice trade was destined for great wealth and power. But instead of more Asian spices, Europeans discovered a whole new hemisphere of food and spices, including maize (corn), potatoes, tomatoes, beans, vanilla, cacao (the seeds from which chocolate is made), and chili peppers. These became part of the Columbian Exchange.
**The Legacy of Columbus**

For better or worse, the voyages of Columbus set into motion the conquest of the Americas. Columbus claimed all the land, people, and wealth he discovered for Spain. For hundreds of years after Columbus, other *conquistadores* (a Spanish word meaning “conquerors”) sailed to the Americas seeking to serve God, find gold and other precious metals, and gain glory.

Columbus’s desire for glory is evident in his writings. Below is a quote from a journal entry he wrote in 1492. How did he hope to achieve lasting glory?

Your Highnesses commanded me that, with a sufficient fleet, I should go to the said parts of India, and for this accorded me great rewards and ennobled me so that from that time henceforth I might style myself “Don” and be high admiral of the Ocean Sea and viceroy and perpetual Governor of the islands and continent which I should discover . . . and that my eldest son should succeed to the same position, and so on from generation to generation forever.

**Treatment of Indians**

Part of the legacy of Columbus was his treatment of the Indians. The Indians that Columbus encountered were called the Taino (pronounced tie ee noh). At first, relations with the Taino were friendly. But it was not long before things started to go wrong. Columbus and the Spanish who came to the Americas with him were very cruel to the Indians at times. They believed the Indians were uncivilized and savage. As a result, the Spanish often harshly punished and sometimes killed Indians.

As governor of the new Spanish colony of Hispaniola, Columbus introduced a tribute system. A *tribute* is a payment or gift given to show respect. The tribute had to be paid in gold by the Indians to the Spanish. The Indians who failed to pay faced punishment. Some had their hands chopped off; others were killed.

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**The Columbian Exchange**

**From North America to Europe**

- Corn (maize), potatoes, beans, tobacco, peanuts, squash, peppers, cacao, vanilla, pumpkins, pineapples, papayas, guavas, avocados, and turkeys

**From Europe to the Americas**

- Rice, wheat, barley, oats, coffee, sugarcane, bananas, melons, olives, dandelions, daisies, clover, ragweed, horses, cattle, pigs, sheep, goats, chickens, smallpox, measles, chicken pox, malaria, yellow fever, influenza, bubonic plague, typhus, and scarlet fever
What Do You Think?

At one time, Christopher Columbus was considered a hero for discovering America. As more has been learned about him, however, people began to question how he treated the native people he met. Many believe his treatment of Native Americans was unnecessarily cruel. What do you think? Is it fair to judge the people of the past by the standards of today?

The Encomienda

The encomienda was a Spanish policy that granted land and the Indians living on it to Spanish soldiers and colonists usually as a reward for service. A soldier or colonist who received an encomienda was called an encomendero. An encomendero was expected to care for, protect, and teach the Indians about the Catholic religion. This included teaching the Indians to speak Spanish. In return, the Indians were expected to pay tribute to the encomendero.

The policy was not meant to be cruel, but it often was. Many encomenderos used it as an excuse to enslave Indians. The Indians were forced to mine gold and silver, plant and harvest crops, and be personal servants.

Protector of the Indians

Bartolomé de Las Casas was a Catholic priest who became a critic of Spain’s encomienda policy in the 1500s. Like many other Spaniards of his day, Las Casas was granted an encomienda. He received it as a reward for helping the Spanish conquer Cuba in 1513. After several years as an encomendero, he became disgusted with how many Spaniards treated the Indians in their care. As a result, he gave back his encomienda and began a lifelong campaign to end the policy.

Las Casas published several writings that detailed the cruelty of many encomenderos. His most famous writing, “The Brief Account of the Destruction of the Indies,” succeeded in getting the attention of the king of Spain. Las Casas wrote:

“. . . our Spaniards have not more consideration for them [the natives] than beasts. And I say this from my own knowledge of the acts I witnessed. But I should not say ‘than beasts’ for, thanks be to God, they have treated beasts with some respect. . . . In the beginning the Indians regarded the Spaniards as angels from Heaven. Only after the Spaniards had used violence against them, killing, robbing, torturing, did the Indians ever rise up against them. . . .”

The king issued new laws that cracked down on abuses and weakened the policy. Encomenderos in the Americas were outraged and many ignored the new laws. In Peru, encomenderos rebelled against the royal government. Despite the reaction, Las Casas continued to support native rights until his death in 1566.
New Spain

Many conquistadors followed in the footsteps of Columbus. Like Columbus, they were eager to bring fame and fortune to themselves and to Spain. They also wanted to spread Catholicism. Among the most famous conquistadors were Hernán Cortés and Francisco Pizarro.

Hernán Cortés

Like Columbus, Hernán Cortés led expeditions to islands in the Caribbean Sea. Cortés lived and worked as a farmer in Hispaniola before sailing to the island of Cuba. There he was given land and Indian slaves. He was twice elected mayor of Santiago. But Cortés had bigger dreams. He had heard stories of gold and other riches in land farther away.

In 1519, he set sail with 600 men and 16 horses. The group carried cannons and other weapons with them. Cortés and his men landed on the Yucatán Peninsula, where the Mayan people lived. The Mayas were part of a great empire that at one time spread across much of Central America. Mayan artifacts have been unearthed in many areas of present-day Mexico, Guatemala, Belize, and Honduras.

The Mayas were an advanced and deeply religious people. They built flat-topped pyramids to honor their many gods. They also had a calendar and were advanced in astronomy (the study of the universe) as well as mathematics, art, and architecture.

Cortés and his men stayed with the Mayas for a short time. The Mayas gave Cortés information about other Indians in the region. They also gave him a Mayan princess, Malinche. She served as a guide and interpreter for Cortés.
The Fall of the Aztec Empire

After leaving the Yucatán Peninsula, Cortés and his men headed for the interior of Mexico. Here they encountered Aztec Indians near present-day Mexico City. The Aztec Empire stretched from central to southern Mexico. The Aztecs were a fierce people who fought with neighboring tribes. They also practiced human sacrifice, which created many enemies. Cortés used these enemies to bring down the Aztec Empire.

The leader of the Aztec Empire was Montezuma II. Some accounts of Montezuma’s life say he believed Cortés was an Aztec god returning to his people. This may be why Montezuma welcomed Cortés and gave him gold and other treasures. The gifts only made Cortés want more. Fighting broke out and Montezuma was captured and killed. Stronger weapons, horses, and help from thousands of Indian allies helped the Spanish defeat the mighty Aztec Empire.

A New Colony

Cortés claimed for Spain all the land that was once part of the Aztec Empire. He named the colony New Spain. He also renamed Tenochtitlán (pronounced ten oh cheet lan), the Aztec capital, Mexico City. The fierce fighting had destroyed the city. The Spanish rebuilt Mexico City, replacing the emperor’s palace and many Aztec pyramids with Catholic churches and government buildings.

Death by Disease

Although the Spanish and their Indian allies killed thousands of Aztecs, an outbreak of smallpox killed more. Smallpox is a contagious and often deadly disease. People with smallpox have a high fever, and their skin develops large sores that leave scars. An epidemic swept through the region at the same time the Spanish were at war with the Aztecs. An epidemic is a widespread outbreak of a contagious disease.

European diseases like smallpox are believed to be the main cause of death among Native Americans throughout the western hemisphere. Disease was much more deadly than warfare because Native Americans had no immunity to illnesses, such as smallpox. Historians believe that 80 to 95 percent of the native population died from European diseases.

What Do You Think?

Estimating how many Native Americans died from European diseases is difficult. This is because historians cannot agree on just how many Indians lived in the Americas before the Europeans came. Some historians say there were as few as 8 million Indians. Others say there were as many as 112 million. Why do you think historians are unable to figure out how many Indians lived in the Americas before Columbus arrived?

Cortés and his men defeated the Aztecs and captured Tenochtitlán (Mexico City) in 1521.
The Conquest of Peru

A few years after the Aztecs were defeated, Francisco Pizarro set sail for the Americas. Inspired by the gold and riches found in Mexico, he hoped to find similar wealth elsewhere.

Pizarro arrived in Peru in 1531 and met with the Incan emperor, Atahualpa (pronounced atah whal pah). When Atahualpa refused to accept Christianity and pledge loyalty to Spain, Pizarro and his forces attacked. They took Atahualpa hostage and demanded a room full of gold for his release. After receiving the gold, Pizarro had Atahualpa killed. To make matters worse for the Incas, a smallpox epidemic had swept through the empire, killing thousands. Without a leader, the already weakened empire was easily defeated.

Pizarro and his forces established a new capital at Lima. It was closer to the coast than the Incan capital of Cuzco and, therefore, easier to control. Pizarro rewarded his followers with encomiendas. Shortly thereafter, Spanish missionaries began arriving.

The Search for More

The Spanish were pleased with the riches they found in the Aztec and the Inca empires. They kept looking for new places where they might find new wealth and more people to convert. The Spanish sent expeditions any time they heard rumors of great wealth and Indian civilizations. These expeditions eventually led the Spanish into New Mexico.
Know

1. Why were European countries competing to control global trade?
2. What European country financed the voyages of Columbus?
3. Give the reasons why other conquistadors came to America after Columbus.
4. Tell how the encomienda worked.
5. Describe the Mayan culture. Describe the Aztec culture.

Apply

6. Compare the motivation for Europe’s trade with Asia to the motivation for Spain’s desire for riches in the Americas.
7. Summarize Bartolomé de Las Casas’s criticism of the Spanish encomienda policy.
8. Predict how leaders of other countries will react when they hear of the land, people, and wealth discovered by Spain in the Americas.
9. Describe how the encomienda affected the development of New Mexico.
10. How are the Mayan and Aztec cultures similar? How are they different?

Analyze

11. How is the global trade in the 1400s similar to our global trade today?
12. Predict how the Spanish will treat the natives of New Mexico based on their treatment of the Taino, Aztec, and Incan people.
13. If an explorer discovered a new unknown land today, would you be willing to go explore the land? Explain your reasoning.
14. Think of a controversial issue today. Why would it be difficult to take a stand similar to Bartolomé de Las Casas?
15. What aspect of the Mayan or Incan cultures would you like to learn more about? Why?
LESSON 2

Into New Mexico

Key Ideas

- The Legend of Cibola influenced Spanish explorers and eventually led them to New Mexico.
- Don Juan de Oñate led the first Spanish colonists into New Mexico in 1598.
- Pueblo Indians and unhappy colonists caused trouble for the colony of New Mexico.
- The Spanish stayed in New Mexico to continue the work of Catholic missionaries.

Key Terms

banished
bluff
viceroy

Comprehension Strategy

Text-to-Text Connection

About 10 years after New Spain was created, another expedition led by Pánfilo de Narváez set sail from present-day Cuba to explore today’s Florida. The expedition included about 400 men, 10 women, 80 horses, and 5 ships.

After landing on the west coast of Florida, the group started to explore. The Indians who lived on the land did not like the strangers, so they chased them back to the coast. The explorers made new boats from whatever they could find—sticks, branches, and animal hides. Then they tried to set sail in the Gulf of Mexico. The weather was bad and some of the boats sank. Only about 40 men survived. Among the dead was Narváez.

The Travels of Cabeza de Vaca

The men split up and went in separate directions. Álvar Núñez Cabeza de Vaca, along with an African slave named Estéban, and two other men were captured by Indians. The Indians enslaved all four of them. After a few years, they escaped. The four survivors traveled along the southern coast of what is now the United States. From the coast of today’s Texas, they began to walk westward. After eight long years, the group reached New Spain. Here they saw the first Spaniards they had seen since their ships sank. It was July 1536.

Cabeza de Vaca, a Spanish explorer, and other survivors of the Narváez expedition rest on a beach. What happened to these men?
The Legend of Cibola

During Cabeza de Vaca’s journey westward, Indians told him stories of great wealth in the far north. The Indians told them these stories to trick Cabeza de Vaca’s group into leaving their land. When the group of explorers finally reached New Spain, they added their own touches to the stories by saying the city streets were paved in gold. Because of the riches found in Mexico and Peru, the Spanish were quick to believe and spread the stories.

After Cabeza de Vaca told leaders in New Spain of the riches to the north, they organized a new expedition. The Spanish were eager to claim the great wealth.

Estéban Leads the Way

A priest named Fray (a Spanish word meaning “Friar” or “Father”) Marcos de Niza was the expedition’s leader, but Estéban was the most valuable member of the small group. He was familiar with the land and had frontier survival skills because of his earlier travels with Cabeza de Vaca.

Spanish settlers brought the first horses to the New World. They were known as Spanish barbs. Over the centuries, many other breeds of horses have been brought to the United States. Most lived in herds on ranches, but some ran wild in our country’s vast open spaces—especially in New Mexico.

Recently, animal experts have discovered that some of the wild horses in New Mexico are directly related to the Spanish barbs first brought here in the 1500s. Scientists have conducted special experiments to prove that these are pure-blooded Spanish horses.

These horses, now known as the New Mexican breed, have been popular in the media. Stories and pictures have appeared in newspapers and magazines, and a television documentary about them was aired on PBS.
Encountering the Zuni

Estéban and several assistants traveled ahead of the main group. He soon came to a Pueblo village called Háwikah, which the Spanish later called Zuni. The Indians of Háwikah were not sure what to think of Estéban. He rattled a gourd and ordered the Indians to bring him gifts. Estéban sent runners back to Fray Marcos to tell him that he had discovered a very large village with many people in it.

Fray Marcos received Estéban’s message, but he never saw him again. According to Zuni Indian legend, Estéban’s gourd was much like the rattle carried by enemy tribes. The Zuni wondered if this strange man was an evil spirit or a spy sent by their enemies. Estéban was also said to have made too many demands. Angered, the Zunis killed him.

What Fray Marcos Saw

Fray Marcos soon learned of Estéban’s death. Worried for his own safety, he did not enter Háwikah. Instead, he viewed it from atop a distant mesa. He thought he saw many houses made of gold. After all, the last message he had received from Estéban told him that Háwikah was a large, valuable city.

According to Fray Marcos’s report, Háwikah was a “very beautiful city” that was even larger in size and wealth than Mexico City. Fray Marcos reported that there was not just one great city at Háwikah. There were seven. His discovery was soon known as the Seven Cities of Cibola.

What Do You Think?

What do you think Fray Marcos saw when he viewed Háwikah from afar? Why do you think he said he saw houses of gold?
Coronado Travels North

Francisco Vásquez de Coronado led the next expedition to find the Seven Cities of Cibola. The Coronado Expedition was one of the largest ever. There were at least 300 Spanish soldiers, three women, 800 Indian allies, 1,000 Indian and African slaves, and 1,500 animals, including, horses, sheep, goats, cattle, and pigs. The animals would be killed for food along the way. Fray Marcos and several missionary priests also went along to begin the process of converting the natives.

Coronado followed Indian trade routes in search of the mythical cities. Within a few months, Coronado reached the Zuni pueblo of Háwikah. As the group approached the village, Zuni warriors attacked them with stones and arrows. The Spanish struck back and quickly defeated the Zuni.

Although Coronado and his men won the battle, they were disappointed. Instead of a large city, Háwikah was only “a little, crowded village,” as one of Coronado’s men described it. Instead of great riches, there was only poverty. Not even the number of “cities” was correct. Instead of seven great cities, there were six small villages. In a report sent to New Spain, Coronado wrote that Fray Marcos had “not told the truth in a single thing he said” about this land, its people, or its wealth. Coronado was furious, and Marcos went back to Mexico in disgrace.

First View of the Grand Canyon

Although he was not impressed with what he found at Háwikah, Coronado set up camp nearby. From there, he sent his men in many directions to search for gold or silver or anything else of value. Some soldiers went as far west as the Grand Canyon. They were the first Europeans to see it, but they called it a “useless piece of property.”
Conflict with Pueblo Indians

The various expedition groups came upon several different villages of Pueblo Indians. These included the Hopi Pueblo in eastern Arizona, the Acoma Pueblo near present-day Grants, and the Pecos Pueblo near present-day Las Vegas, New Mexico. At first, the Indians they encountered were very generous to the Spanish, sharing their homes and food. However, the Spanish took over villages and sometimes demanded tribute. When the Indians resisted, they were severely punished.

Many Indians fled into the mountains. Others drowned while trying to flee across the cold, rushing waters of the Rio Grande. Coronado defeated the Pueblo people and punished them for fighting against Spain and its soldiers.

More Rumors of Wealth

Coronado’s next expedition was to a place called Quivira. Quivira was rumored to have great wealth. After a long journey, however, Coronado and his men found Quivira to be a small Indian village. Coronado decided it was time to return to New Spain. Clearly, there was no wealth to be found in these northern lands. Coronado and his followers left, but three Catholic priests volunteered to stay behind to convert the Indians. They were never heard from again.

A Success or Failure?

Coronado and the Spanish thought that his expedition to the far north was a failure. They had not found gold or silver. They found no Indian empires, and few Indians wanted to convert.

Nevertheless, the Spanish learned a lot about the people who lived on this frontier. They also learned about its geography. They explored the Grand Canyon to the west and the flat expanse of the Great Plains to the east. In between, they explored the Rio Grande valley as well as the Sangre de Cristo and Sandia mountains.

Despite these discoveries, the Spanish concluded that this land was not ready for large-scale settlement. Three small groups returned to the area in the 1580s and 1590s, but they did not stay long.
The Spanish Return

It was not until 1598 that the king of Spain sent a large expedition not only to explore New Mexico but also to conquer and settle it. Despite Coronado’s failure to find great wealth in the northern reaches of New Spain, King Philip II was certain a wealthy empire existed there. The Spanish began to call the far northern frontier Nueva (new) Mexico. They hoped it would prove to be as valuable as Mexico had been.

Don Juan de Oñate

The Spanish chose Don Juan de Oñate to lead a new expedition. Like Coronado, Oñate was a good person for the job of conquistador. Having fought Indians since he was a young man, Oñate had lots of experience in battle. He had been a good political leader in New Spain. After his father discovered a silver mine in New Spain, his family was very rich. Oñate needed a lot of money because he had to pay for the entire cost of the expedition.

Oñate’s expedition included about 150 families of men, women, and children. It also included 10 Franciscan priests to serve the Catholic settlers and to convert the Indians they would meet on the frontier.

These pioneers brought many supplies and metal tools with them so they could build, farm, and mine for gold and silver. Most of these supplies and tools had never been seen in New Mexico. There were so many people and supplies that it took 83 wagons to carry everything. The caravan also included thousands of animals—oxen, horses, sheep, cattle, goats, and pigs. It took three years to gather all the animals and supplies needed for the trip.

El Camino Real

The trip to New Mexico was long and hard. It took about six months to travel from Mexico City to the northern reaches of New Mexico on a trail that became known as El Camino Real, or the Royal Road. El Camino Real was 1,700 miles long.

When the wagon train reached the Rio del Norte (later called the Rio Grande) near present-day El Paso, Texas, the pioneers were so grateful that they stopped to celebrate. They offered prayers of thanks to God for his mercy. In a large ceremony, Oñate declared this new land the Kingdom of New Mexico.
Historia de la Nueva México

Gaspar Pérez de Villagrá was the official historian of Juan de Oñate's expedition to New Mexico in 1598. He wrote an epic poem about the trip north and the troubles faced by the first colonists. It was first printed in 1610. Read the excerpt below and answer the questions.

We advanced, and for fifty days we marched, enduring hardships patiently, trusting in God to bring us with safety to the river's shore. At one time it rained unceasingly for seven days. We journeyed on and on until it seemed that we would never find our way out of these unpeopled regions, traversing vast and solitary plains where the foot of Christian had never trod before. Our provisions [food supplies] gave out, and we were obliged to subsist [exist] on such edible weeds and roots as we found. But we went forward, sometimes through dense thickets which tore our clothes and left us ragged; at other times over rough stony passes where it was almost necessary to drag our tired mounts [horses]. Our shoes were worn out, and we suffered terribly from the burning sands, for our horses were scarcely able to drag their tired bodies along and pack our baggage, let alone carry us. The horses suffered most, poor dumb brutes; they were almost frantic with thirst, and their eyes nearly bulged from their sockets. After four days of travel without water they were well-nigh blind, and could scarcely see where they were going, stumbling against the rocks and trees along their path.

. . . [O]n the morning of the fifth we joyfully viewed in the distance the long sought waters of the Rio del Norte [Rio Grande]. The gaunt [starved] horses approached the rolling stream and plunged headlong into it. Two of them drank so much they burst their sides and died. Two others, blinded by their raving thirst, plunged so far into the stream that they were caught in its swift current and drowned.

Our men, consumed by the burning thirst, their tongues swollen and their throats parched, threw themselves into the water and drank as though the entire river did not carry enough to quench their terrible thirst.
Jornada del Muerto  
After crossing the Rio Grande, the wagon train entered the most dangerous part of El Camino Real. This 90-mile stretch was so dry and lonely it became known as the Jornada del Muerto, or the Journey of Death. The travelers suffered with little rest or water. Then a dog with muddy paws appeared. He belonged to one of the families traveling with Oñate. Muddy paws meant water was nearby! The group followed the dog to a small pool of water where they quenched their thirst. From that moment on the watering hole became known as Los Charcos del Perillo, meaning “the pools of the little dog.”

Leaving the Jornada del Muerto, Oñate continued to lead his expedition north. Most of the Pueblo Indians he met were peaceful and helpful. In fact, the Indians at the north end of the Jornada del Muerto were so helpful that the travelers called their pueblo Socorro, which means “help” in Spanish.

The Spanish Make Demands  
After traveling far up the Rio Grande valley, Oñate decided to settle at an Indian pueblo called Ohke. Oñate renamed this village San Juan in honor of his patron saint. It was too late in the season to plant crops, so the Spanish had to rely on help from the Pueblo Indians. The Pueblos provided the Spanish settlers with almost all of the food and supplies through the first winter. Just as before, the Spanish wore out their welcome. They demanded shelter, food, and clothing from the Indians.

It was difficult for the Pueblo Indians to meet their own needs let alone those of their increasingly demanding guests. Many Indians also refused to declare loyalty to Spain and abandon their own religious beliefs and customs.

The Acoma Revolt  
The Acoma Pueblo Indians were among those who resented the Spanish the most. They thought they could defy the Spanish because their pueblo was on a 220-foot-high mesa. The only way to the top of their mesa was to climb a steep cliff, using holes in the cliff to fit hands and feet. No army could charge up a cliff like that!

The Acoma Indians rebelled against the Spanish in December 1598. They killed several Spanish soldiers, including one of Oñate’s nephews. Oñate believed he must stop this rebellion or other Indians would think he was weak and would rebel against him, too.

A month later, Spanish soldiers managed to climb the pueblo’s steep cliff and surprise the Acoma. A battle raged for three days. With so many soldiers away from the settlement, those who remained in San Juan worried for their safety. As a result, Spanish women vowed to help defend their settlement. They stood guard in the bitter cold until the soldiers returned to the settlement.

Hundreds of Indians lay dead when the fighting was over. Those who survived were enslaved. Young warriors were sentenced to have a foot amputated (cut off).

The Acoma Pueblo was located at the top of a 220-foot-high mesa. How did the Spanish overcome this obstacle during the Acoma Revolt?
Trouble from Within

It was not just the Pueblo Indians causing trouble for Oñate. Many of the colonists who came with Oñate were increasingly unhappy. They complained about New Mexico’s harsh climate and about the lack of food and supplies. They accused Oñate of being a bad leader because they had not yet found riches and glory. Many colonists wanted to return to New Spain. Oñate refused to let them leave. Two who tried to escape were executed.

Resuming the Search for Cities of Gold

Despite all the troubles, Oñate decided to resume the search for the fabled cities of gold. He sent groups exploring in all directions. On one trip to the west, Oñate and his men passed a 200-foot-high sandstone rock. He stopped long enough to carve his name, the date, and the words paso por aqui, meaning “passed by here.” This rock became known as El Morro, meaning “the bluff.” A bluff is a steep cliff.

Oñate’s search for gold and silver took him to many of the same areas as Coronado. Finding nothing but herds of buffalo, Oñate returned to San Juan. In his absence, most of the colonists had gone back to New Spain. There they told Spanish officials of Oñate’s harsh rule, the poor conditions, and the lack of riches. The Spanish government ordered Oñate to return to Mexico City, where he was banished (forced to leave) forever.

The Spanish Decide to Stay

When Oñate left New Mexico in 1607, the Spanish had an important decision to make. Should they stay in New Mexico, where they faced so many problems and where they had found few riches? How could they leave the region when many Indians had converted to the Catholic religion and many more could be converted in the future?

New Spain’s viceroy (a Spanish colonial governor appointed by the king) urged the king of Spain not to abandon New Mexico “without great offense to God.” The Spanish king made the decision. The Spanish would stay in New Mexico. But instead of focusing on the search for material wealth, Catholic missionaries would search for spiritual wealth. The new goal would be to convert and serve the Pueblo Indians. In Europe at this time, many Catholics were abandoning their faith. The Church needed new converts!
Know

1. Tell about the legend that led many Spanish explorers into New Mexico.
2. Describe the interactions between the Indians and Spanish explorers (Cabeza de Vaca, Fray Marcos de Niza, and Francisco Vásquez de Coronado).
3. What was the name of the trail from Mexico City to New Mexico?
4. List three reasons why Don Juan de Oñate was a good choice as the conquistador to lead an expedition to New Mexico.
5. On what kind of landform did the Acoma Pueblo Indians live?

Apply

6. Describe what motivated Spanish explorers to find the Seven Cities of Cibola. Compare their motivation to that of Europeans who had searched for a trade route to Asia.
7. Create a Venn diagram with three interconnecting circles. Use the diagram to compare the interactions of Indians with the three groups of Spanish explorers listed in question two.
8. Discuss the significance of El Camino Real for New Mexico.
9. Predict how Don Juan de Oñate's treatment of the Pueblo Indians may affect relations between Pueblo Indians and Spanish settlers who came later.
10. What geographic features may have influenced the Acoma Pueblo Indians to build their village where they did?

Analyze

11. Tell about a time you went exploring. What motivated you to explore, and what did you find?
12. If you were to travel to a different country tomorrow, how would you treat the people you meet?
13. Imagine you were one of the first settlers to reach New Mexico along El Camino Real. Write a letter home to your family in Mexico City describing your journey and what you experienced.
14. If you were leading the expedition to New Mexico for the first time, what might you do differently and how might this affect the development of New Mexico?
15. What if the Spanish attack on the Acoma Indian village had failed? How might this have changed settlement in New Mexico?
When the Spanish decided to remain in New Mexico, a new royal governor was appointed. Don Pedro de Peralta immediately set about building a new settlement. As you read in the last lesson, the Spanish first settled in San Juan in 1598. Less than a year later, they moved across the Rio Grande to settle a place they called San Gabriel.

### The New Capital

As the new royal governor, Peralta wanted a fresh start. He decided to select a new location for the colony’s capital. He named it La Villa Real de la Santa Fe de San Francisco, meaning “the Royal City of the Holy Faith of St. Francis.” The name was quickly shortened to Santa Fe. Peralta selected the site because it was near the center of the colony and was a safe distance from the local Pueblo Indians. He hoped to reduce conflict between Spanish colonists and Pueblo Indians. Additionally, Santa Fe was at the base of the Sangre de Cristo Mountains, where the Santa Fe River runs toward the Rio Grande. Why were these geographic features inviting?

Santa Fe was the northernmost villa, or town, in New Spain. It is the oldest capital in the United States.

This bird’s-eye view of Santa Fe was created by Joseph J. Stoner in the late 19th century. Stoner specialized in creating this type of image.
A Spanish Town

The Spanish built Santa Fe in much the same way they had built other new towns in the Spanish empire. A plaza de armas, or parade ground, was located in the center and used for many purposes. The plaza was where soldiers often practiced to ready themselves for war. Fiestas were held in the plaza, especially during religious holidays.

The plaza was also a center for trade. People displayed their goods on blankets laid on the ground. When it was not used for other purposes, the plaza was where people met and visited, especially on cool summer evenings. Today, the plaza, no longer a parade ground, is still a trade center and a place for people to meet.

Political and Religious Center

On the north side of the plaza, the Spanish built La Casa Real, the Royal Palace. Today, known as the Palace of the Governors, it was where Spanish governors lived and ruled New Mexico for the next 211 years. It is now part of the New Mexico History Museum.

As in other Spanish towns, the leaders of Santa Fe built a Catholic church on the plaza. They named their church after Saint Francis of Assisi. Like most Spanish churches, Saint Francis was built in the shape of a cross. It was important to have a church on the plaza because the Catholic religion was central to every Spaniard’s life.

The other main building on the plaza was the presidio, or military fort. The presidio housed weapons and supplies that would be needed in case of attack. Spanish soldiers were also stationed there. A large wall around the plaza provided additional protection.

Santa Fe's colonists built their homes outside of the town’s walls. Each colonist received two plots of land. They were required to farm the land to help feed the community and contribute to the colonial economy.

A Mixture of Styles

Peralta wanted to make Santa Fe as Spanish as possible. However, when all the construction was finished, Santa Fe reflected the Pueblo Indian style as well. The layout of Santa Fe was distinctly Spanish, but the buildings resembled Pueblo architecture. Local Pueblo Indians provided the labor and building materials. All the buildings were constructed of adobe bricks, rocks, and vigas, which were logs used as ceiling beams cut from tall trees in the mountains.
Colonial Government

In addition to designing and organizing the construction of the new capital, Peralta also set up Santa Fe’s government. As royal governor, Peralta was New Mexico’s top official. A town council, called the cabildo, was responsible for the town’s day-to-day business. The cabildo had four councilmen, or regidores. Their duties included distributing land, making laws, collecting taxes, supervising trade, providing for the town’s safety, and serving as judges in court.

Land Grant System

One of the cabildo’s biggest jobs was overseeing the land grant system. The Spanish made grants of land to soldiers and other Spanish men to reward them for service and to encourage settlement of New Mexico. To receive a land grant, a settler had to agree to live on the land for 10 years. The settler was also required to improve the land in some way. The land grant was usually part of an encomienda. As a result, many Spanish settlers forced Indians to farm their land. This practice angered the Pueblo Indians and eventually led to conflict.

Acequias

Although the Spanish settled along the Rio Grande, they still needed to get water to their crops. As a result, one of the first and most important tasks in a new settlement was the construction of irrigation canals called acequias. The acequia system was a central feature of towns in Spain and Spanish settlements in the Americas.

Colonists worked together or often used Indian labor to dig the main irrigation ditch, or acequia madre. Many smaller ditches were dug from the acequia madre to reach each small farm in a community. A ditch boss, or mayordomo, had many important jobs. Each spring, he organized the annual cleaning of the acequia (la limpia de la acequia) to ensure that water could flow easily through the canals.

In addition to overseeing the annual cleaning, the mayordomo made sure each farm received its fair share of water. When it was their turn to use the water, farmers worked hard to have it flow to every row of their planted fields.

Many New Mexicans today still live on land that was granted to their families hundreds of years ago by Spanish authorities.

Acequias are still an important feature of New Mexican farming communities today. There are at least 1,000 acequia associations in New Mexico today. The associations work to protect the water rights of community members, called parciantes. Each association elects a mayordomo and a board of commissioners. Together, they oversee maintenance of the acequia, including the annual spring cleanup.

Linking the Past to the Present
Colonial Economy

New Mexico was important to the Spanish Empire despite its lack of gold and other riches. The colonial economy was based mostly on farming and ranching, and a few colonists earned money by selling Indian-made blankets, clothing, jewelry, and even Indian slaves.

El Camino Real

From the start, El Camino Real was the main trade link between Mexico City (the capital of New Spain) and Santa Fe. Because the colony at Santa Fe did not have a lot of supplies, the colonists relied on Spain to provide them with manufactured goods. A manufactured good is an item that is produced from raw materials (natural resources). For example, wood is a natural resource, but wood furniture is a manufactured good.

Spain received raw materials from its colonies in the New World. Then businesses in Spain used the materials to make manufactured goods. Manufactured goods from Spain then traveled to New Spain, where they made their way to settlements throughout the colony. About every three years, a caravan traveled along El Camino Real from Mexico City to Santa Fe. The caravan brought tools, clothing, religious supplies, and other goods to the people of Santa Fe and nearby towns. On its return trip, the caravan carried Indian-made goods as well as raw materials, including silver, turquoise, salt, animal hides, wool, and crops.
Catholic Missions

When the Spanish decided to stay in New Mexico, the main goal was to continue the work of missionaries. The missionaries were Catholic priests from the religious order of Saint Francis. They set up their religious headquarters in Santo Domingo Pueblo. From there, they set up a network of missions throughout New Mexico.

Missionary work was difficult and sometimes dangerous. Indians killed many early missionaries. It was not easy to learn the local language and gain the trust of the native peoples. By the mid-1600s, the priests claimed that thousands of Pueblo Indians had become Catholic and had pledged their loyalty to Spain.

High Expectations

Converting the Indians involved more than bringing the Catholic religion to them. The priests wanted to “Hispanize” the Indians. In other words, the priests wanted the Indians to be more Spanish than native. As a result, the priests taught the Indians the Spanish language as well as Spanish customs and crafts. They also taught the Indians skills such as carpentry (woodworking), farming, and raising livestock.

The Indians were expected to not only embrace Spain’s religion and customs but also to give up their own. Priests often destroyed Indian religious objects and banned traditional ceremonies. Pueblo religious leaders who practiced rituals were punished. The Indians were also required to cover themselves by dressing more like the Spanish. Failure to follow the rules could lead to severe punishment, such as a public whipping. Over time, the Indians came to resent the missionaries as much as they did the Spanish encomenderos.

The Struggle for Power

The priests assigned to the missions had a lot of power. However, so did the colonial government. As a result, the priests and the royal governors did not always get along. They often argued over who was in charge of the Indian population and who could demand labor and tribute from the Indians.

Colonists used Indian labor for mining, farming, and ranching. They also wanted the Indians to make blankets and other goods that the Spanish could use or trade. At the same time, the priests wanted Indian converts to help build churches and work on mission farms. This led to conflict between the colonial government and the Church. The Pueblo Indians were caught in the middle.
By 1680, many Pueblo Indians had lost patience with the Spanish. They resented being forced to work for the colonists and the missions. They were angry that they had to give up their own religious beliefs and practices. Because they could not worship them, the Indians believed their gods were angry. A severe drought, frequent raids by Apache and Navajo Indians, and a deadly outbreak of smallpox convinced them of this. To restore peace and harmony with their gods, the Pueblo Indians needed to free themselves from Spanish rule.

There had been small uprisings against Spanish rule throughout the 1600s, but none was successful until the Pueblo Revolt of 1680. At that time, thousands of Pueblo Indians joined forces to attack the Spanish and drive them out of New Mexico for 12 years.

Popé, a shaman from San Juan Pueblo, led the rebellion. Throughout the summer of 1680, Popé sent messengers to Pueblo villages along the Rio Grande and west toward present-day Arizona. The messengers carried knotted ropes. Each knot represented the number of days until the uprising. Popé also allied with the Apaches and swore his followers to secrecy.

**A United Attack**

The uprising began on August 10 when thousands of Pueblo Indians attacked missions and Spanish settlements throughout the region. More Pueblo Indians joined the rebellion. This was unusual. Pueblo Indians had never come together for a common purpose before. Although outnumbered, the Spanish fought the Indians and won. But still the Indians came, surrounding the Palace of the Governors and cutting off the Spanish water supply. Finally, the Spanish survivors decided to flee Santa Fe and hoped the rebels would let them go. They did.

The trip down El Camino Real was difficult and upsetting for the Spanish refugees. A **refugee** is a person who flees from a place because of war. There were few horses or wagons, so most people had to walk. Their feet bled, and they had little food or water. Along the way, they saw many dead Spaniards as well as burned-out and destroyed missions and homes. At least 400 Spaniards had been killed, including more than 20 priests. More than 2,100 settlers fled to El Paso.

**Santa Fe Occupied**

For the next 12 years, the Pueblo Indians destroyed what was left of the Spanish buildings, churches, and homes. They wanted to destroy all traces of Spanish culture and religion, and restore their own culture and religion. Unfortunately, after 80 years of Spanish rule, this was an impossible task. The Pueblo Indians became divided as time passed. By the early 1690s, the unity that helped drive out the Spanish had disappeared.

**Popé** (c. 1630–c. 1692)

Popé was a medicine man and war chief from the San Juan Pueblo. Before the 1680 uprising, Popé was among dozens of Pueblo religious leaders arrested by the Spanish. The Spanish accused Popé and the others of practicing witchcraft. The Spanish executed at least three of the prisoners. Popé was whipped and tortured. The governor released the prisoners after Pueblo warriors stormed his home and demanded their release. Historians believe this experience led Popé to carry out the Pueblo revolt.

Although the Pueblo spoke many different languages and lived in separate villages, they shared a common hatred of the Spanish. Many villages joined Popé’s rebellion as a result. After forcing the Spanish to flee Santa Fe and other settlements in the Rio Grande Valley, Popé became the leader of a united Pueblo people. He ordered his people to destroy all traces of the Spanish.

At first, the Pueblo were happy with their new leader. But over time, they became frustrated with Popé. He became overbearing and cruel. Furthermore, the rain and wealth he promised once the Spanish were gone never came. Popé died about two years before the Spanish reconquered New Mexico. The unity he helped create among the Pueblo people had dissolved and they fell easily to the Spanish.
The Spanish Return

Eager to regain their lost land and glory, the Spanish returned to New Mexico in 1692. The king of Spain also wanted Catholic missionaries to continue their work. Don Diego de Vargas was chosen to lead the reconquest of New Mexico. Like Coronado and Oñate before him, Vargas was well qualified to be a Spanish conquistador. He had fought Indians and had been a proven leader in New Spain before coming to New Mexico.

A Peaceful Start

Vargas first traveled to New Mexico with a small group of soldiers in 1692. The Indians did not fight them because many were afraid the Spanish had come to avenge the Pueblo Revolt. Some Indians fled into the mountains when they saw the Spanish on El Camino Real. However, Vargas wanted a peaceful reconquest. Vargas agreed to pardon all the Indians in the pueblos along the Rio Grande, including Santa Fe. Many Indians agreed to accept Spanish rule and the Catholic faith. Within a year, it seemed that peace and Spanish rule had been restored in New Mexico.

But the peace did not last. In December 1693, Vargas returned to Santa Fe from Mexico. He brought with him more soldiers, settlers, and priests. When they arrived in Santa Fe, they found it occupied by Pueblo Indians. The Spanish insisted that the Indians leave, but the Indians refused to leave their warm homes. After several days of freezing in their camp, Vargas led his soldiers into battle against the Indians. They defeated the Indians and retook their former capital. Vargas became the governor of a reconquered New Mexico.

Later, other Pueblo Indians resisted the Spanish reconquest of New Mexico. Unlike the rebels of 1680, these Indians were fewer in number, had no strong leader, and had no good plan of attack. Most fled to the mountains when the Spanish approached. By late 1696, the Spanish were once again in control of New Mexico.

New Settlements Founded

After regaining control of Santa Fe and villages throughout the region, the Spanish settled more towns. Among the new towns were Santa Cruz and Albuquerque. Like all Spanish towns, Santa Cruz and Albuquerque were built around an active central plaza.
18th-Century New Mexico

Life in New Mexico in the 1700s was no easier than it had been 100 years earlier. Most settlers lived on small farms called ranchos or large farms called haciendas. They grew enough to provide for themselves and their families. Corn, beans, and wheat were basic crops. The missions also had small farms and grew similar crops. The acequias provided water for their fields.

New Land Grants

The Spanish expanded from Santa Fe in the 18th century by granting land to individuals and whole groups of settlers. In 1740, for example, 32 families applied for a community land grant in the Rio Grande Valley near the current town of Belen. The royal governor granted the land, and, in an official ceremony, the settlers threw stones and weeds into the air and shouted, “God save the King.” Pueblo Indians also received community land grants in the 1700s. Most Indian pueblos today are located on land grants.

Making a Living

Spanish settlers made a living in a variety of ways besides farming. Many settlers and missionaries raised livestock, such as sheep, goats, cattle, and pigs. Others hunted buffalo on the eastern plains. No matter what the work, it was nearly always difficult and often dangerous.

Spanish settlers raised more sheep than any other kind of livestock. The Spanish mostly raised sheep for their wool. The most popular breed of sheep was the churro. Churros could live in New Mexico’s dry climate better than most other sheep. Their fleece, which grows faster and longer than that of other breeds, is neutral in color, from black and white to gray and brown.

The wealthiest settlers raised flocks of 1,000 sheep or more. By the 1750s, there were more than 100,000 sheep and goats in New Mexico. Raising these animals was hard, lonely work. Sheep and goat herders often grazed their animals in mountainous areas far from their valley homes. Others grazed their livestock on common land belonging to land grants.
Buffalo Hunters

The Spanish settlers who hunted buffalo were known as los ciboleros. They traveled in groups to hunt buffalo on the eastern plains of New Mexico. Hunting wild buffalo was dangerous work. Los ciboleros learned many skills from Indians who had hunted buffalo for many years.

After killing the buffalo, los ciboleros used every part of the animal, just as the Indians did. They used buffalo hides for robes and rugs. They dried buffalo meat to make carne seca, or dried meat. They even sold buffalo tongues as expensive treats to eat.

Cowboys

Some Spanish settlers also became expert horsemen called vaqueros, or cowboys. Spanish cowboys date back to Spain and Portugal. These early vaqueros brought their skills to the New World, including New Mexico, where they learned new skills to fit their needs. Nearly every skill and piece of ranching equipment used by later cowboys came from the vaqueros. Riding, roping, branding, and even cowboy clothing, terms, music, and rodeos date back to the early vaqueros.

Linking the Past to the Present

There are many similarities between the cattle ranch and rodeo cowboys of today and the vaqueros of Mexico. For example, cowboy saddles, stirrups, and spurs are similar to those used by vaqueros. Also, the word “chaps,” or cowboy leggings, is taken from the Spanish word chaparreras. Today’s rodeo events are much like vaquero games, requiring great athletic skill and bravery. Bull wrestling, steer roping, and bronco riding are just three examples of these exciting events.

Exploring the Southwest

Francisco Dominguez and Silvestre de Escalante were two Spanish priests living in Mexico. They worked among the Indians of Mexico, converting them to the Catholic faith. In 1776, they left Mexico in search of more Indians to convert. They were also looking for a faster way to get from Santa Fe to the Pacific Coast in California.

Dominguez and Escalante left Santa Fe on a hot July day. They took 12 men and pack animals with them. They followed many rivers to the western slope of the Rocky Mountains. Unfortunately, bad winter storms stopped the two priests from reaching California. They turned around just north of the Grand Canyon and headed back to Santa Fe. Although they were disappointed about not finishing their trip, they were glad they had been places where most white men had never been.

Escalante wrote about their adventures in his journal. He wrote about the people they met as well as about the land and its natural features. He even drew maps that showed where rivers and mountains were located. His writings and maps became valuable tools for later explorers.
Living Peacefully Together

During the 1700s, relations with the Pueblo Indians improved. Although the Spanish still used Indian labor, they were not as harsh, and they did not bring back the encomienda. Additionally, the Church was more accepting of native religious practices. As a result, many modern Pueblo Indian cultures practice a mixture of Catholic and native religions.

Hostile Tribes

Although relations with the Pueblo Indians had improved, the Spanish found themselves surrounded by hostile tribes of nomadic Indians. By the 1700s, two fierce new tribes had moved into the region. The Comanches and the Utes came in search of new game to hunt and places to live. The Comanches were fierce warriors and excellent horsemen. Their main source of food was the buffalo. The Comanches took horses from Pueblo and Spanish villages during raids. They became very skilled riders, using the horses in warfare and to hunt buffalo.

The Utes were also fierce warriors and skilled horsemen. Like the Comanches, they raided Pueblo and Spanish villages. These raids occurred when conditions made it difficult for the tribes to hunt and survive in the wilderness. If captured in battle, raiding Indians were often enslaved. The warring Indians also captured Spanish colonists, including children. During more peaceful times, both tribes conducted trade with the Spanish and Pueblo Indians at trade fairs.

Peace with the Comanches

The Spanish finally defeated the Comanches when Governor Juan Bautista de Anza led a surprise attack on the tribe in Colorado. The Comanche agreed to a peace treaty in 1786. As a result, they became a valued Spanish ally against other raiding Indians in New Mexico.

This Frederic Remington painting shows Indian warriors on the attack. For what reasons did Indians attack Spanish and Pueblo villages?
Fate of the Pueblo Indians

While the Spanish population in New Mexico increased in the 1700s, the Pueblo Indian population decreased. Before the Spanish arrived, there were about 40,000 Pueblo Indians in New Mexico. By 1800, disease (mostly smallpox) and raids by hostile Apaches, Navajos, Comanches, and Utes had taken a toll. As a result, the Pueblo population had shrunk to about 10,000—about equal to the number of Spanish in New Mexico. Of the 60 pueblos here when Coronado explored, only 19 remained.

Taos Trade Fair

Hundreds of Spanish settlers, along with Pueblo Indians, Comanches, Utes, Apaches, and Navajos, went to a huge trade fair in Taos each year. Even if the Spanish and the Indians were at war, they called a “truce of God” so everyone could attend the trade fair in peace.

All kinds of goods were traded at the trade fair. The Spanish brought things such as metal tools and woolen goods. The Pueblo Indians brought crops, pottery, and blankets. The nomadic tribes brought items such as animal hides and buffalo robes. Some even traded the same goods they had taken in their raids of Spanish villages and Indian pueblos!
Know

1. Describe the organization of colonial government in New Mexico.
2. From whom did los ciboleros learn buffalo hunting skills?
3. Explain the significance of El Camino Real to Santa Fe.
4. Tell how Popé influenced the Pueblo Revolt.
5. What were the roles of colonial New Mexico’s town council and councilmen?
6. In what new ways did people make a living in New Mexico in the 1700s?
7. In what ways was Santa Fe similar to towns in Spain?
8. What building styles did the Spanish use when they built Santa Fe?

Apply

9. Compare the new colonial government to the governing style of the Indians before the arrival of the Spanish.
10. Discuss the effects early vaqueros had on the cowboys of New Mexico.
11. Using a world map, draw the probable trade route between Spain and the New World, including El Camino Real.
12. Examine the effect the Pueblo Revolt had on Spanish power in New Mexico.
13. Create a Venn diagram comparing colonial government to what you know about New Mexico’s government today.
14. Discuss the factors that made New Mexico an ideal location for raising churros.
15. Create a cause and effect chart that identifies five ways Spain influenced life in New Mexico.
16. What influence did Spanish religion and culture have on the New Mexico colony?

Analyze

17. Assess the colonial government of New Mexico. What were the pros and cons of this form of government?
18. Analyze how the abilities of the Comanches and Utes would be different if the Spanish had not brought the horse to the Americas.
19. How is trade today different from trade during colonial times?
20. Draw a conclusion about how the unification of Indian groups contributed to the success of the Pueblo Revolt.
21. In addition to distributing land, making laws, collecting taxes, supervising trade, providing for the town’s safety, and serving as judges in court, what other responsibilities do you think would have been appropriate for the regidores?
22. Imagine that you lived in colonial New Mexico. How would you make a living? Explain your answer.
23. Consider your own town. What examples of Spanish culture can you find that still exist today?
24. How would New Mexico be racially, ethnically, and religiously different if the Spanish had not been the first Europeans to establish a colony in the region?
Create a Research Question

Spanish explorers and colonists played a big role in the history of our state. They influenced much of how our state functions today, especially our culture and economy.

Think about some detail of Spanish explorers and colonists you have a question about. What additional information would you like to learn about the explorers and settlers who first came to New Mexico? Where did they once live? How did they cope with the challenges of exploring or settling in New Mexico?

Write a list of 5 to 10 questions you have about New Mexico's explorers and settlers. Which question from your list might make the best research question? Use the questions below to evaluate the research question you chose.

1. Is your question just the right size—neither too big nor too small?
   - Too big: “What did the Spanish know before they came to the Americas?”
     (It would be impossible to answer this question in a one-page paper.)
   - Too small: “Who was the first explorer in New Mexico?”
     (This could be answered with a name.)
   - Just right: “What were some traditions Spanish colonists brought to New Mexico?”

2. Can the question be researched?
   - “Who made better food, Spanish colonists or Pueblo Indians?”
     (This cannot be researched. The answer cannot be found. It is a matter of opinion.)

3. Where will you find sources to research your question?
   - Visit the library. Ask a librarian to help you find books and other information on your topic.
   - Write down at least three sources you will use to answer your question.
   - If you have a good research question, you should be able to find good sources.

4. Write a one-page paper to answer your research question. Use information from your sources to support your answer.
Key Idea Review

Lesson 1
1. List three goods that Europeans wanted to import from Asia.
2. What was the name of the small island Columbus discovered instead of a trade route to Asia?
3. Why were the Spanish interested in conquering the Aztec and Incan empires?
4. For what purpose did Spaniards receive an encomienda? How did the encomienda policy affect Indians?

Lesson 2
5. What happened to the group of Spanish explorers led by Pánfilo de Narváez?
6. Why did Indians tell tales of the Seven Cities of Cibola?
7. Describe Don Juan de Oñate's expedition to New Mexico.
8. Why were Indians and some colonists unhappy with the colony of New Mexico?
9. When the Spanish decided to stay in New Mexico, what was their new goal?

Lesson 3
10. Why did Don Pedro de Peralta choose Santa Fe as the colony's new capital?
11. What were some of the roles of the colonial government?
12. Describe trade in the New Mexico colony.
13. What caused the Pueblo Revolt of 1680?
14. How had conditions in New Mexico changed by the time the Spanish returned in 1692?
15. Explain why relations between the Spanish and Pueblo Indians improved in the 1700s.

Comprehension Strategy

Make Connections
Good readers make connections when they read. As you read, think about how the text is like something you already know. You might connect the text to your life. You might connect it to another text. You might even connect it to events happening around you.

Choose a book from the library. Use sticky notes to mark connections you make as you read. Label the sticky notes T-S for text-to-self, T-T for text-to-text, and T-W for text-to-world connections. Share one of your strongest connections with a partner.