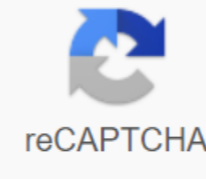




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The columbian exchange good and bad

Biological and intellectual exchange across the Atlantic Book, see Columbia Exchange. New World native plants. Clockwise from top left: 1. May (Zea mays) 2. Tomato (Solanum lycopersicum) 3. Potatoes (Solanum tuberosum) 4. Vanilla (Vanilla) 5. Pará gum tree (Hevea brasiliensis) 6. Cocoa (Theobroma cocoa) 7. Tobacco (Nicotiana rustica) Old world native plants. Clockwise, top left: 1. Citrus (Rutaceae); 2. Apple (Malus domestica); 3. Banana (Musa); 4. Mango (Mangifera); 5. Onion (Allium); 6. Coffee (Coffee); 7. wheat (Triticum spp.); 8. Rice (Oryza sativa) Columbia exchange, also known as the Colombian Exchange, named after Christopher Columbus, was a widespread transfer of plants, animals, culture, human populations, technology, diseases and ideas between America, West Africa and the old world in the 15th century. It is also related to European colonization and trade after Christopher Columbus's 1492 trip. [1] Invasive species, including infectious diseases, were by-products of the exchange. Changes in agriculture have significantly changed the global population. The most important immediate impact of the Colombian exchange was cultural exchanges and the transfer of people (both free and enslaved) between continents. New contacts between the world's population spread a wide range of crops and livestock, which supported population growth in both hemispheres, even though the diseases initially led to a sharp decline in the number of Indigenous peoples in the United States. Traders returned to Europe with maize, potatoes and tomatoes, which became the 18th largest producer of maize, potatoes and tomatoes. The term was first used in 1972 by American historian Alfred W. Crosby in his environmental history book Columbian Exchange. [2] It was quickly adopted by other historians and journalists and has become widely known. The concept of origin in 1972 by Alfred W. Crosby, an American historian at the University of Texas at Austin, was published by the Columbian Exchange. [2] He published the following volumes over the same decade. His main focus was to map the biological and cultural transfers that took place between the old and the new world. He studied the impact of columbus's travels between the two – specifically, the global distribution of cultures, seeds and plants of the new world back to old, radically transformative agriculture in both regions. His research made a lasting contribution to how scientists understand the diversity of modern ecosystems created by these transfers. [3] The term has become popular among historians and journalists, and since then has been enhanced by Crosby's later book in three editions: Ecological Imperialism: The Biological Expansion of Europe, 900–1900, which Charles C. Mann further expands and updates Crosby's original research in his book 1493. [4] Impact impact of inca-era taquile is used to grow traditional Andea staples such as quinoa and potatoes alongside wheat, a European introduction. Crops in Portugal trading animals in Japan; The details of the Nanban panel (1570–1616) have spread around the world to several plants that are native to the Americas, including potatoes, corn, tomato and tobacco. [5] Before the 1500s, they were widely consumed in Europe and had become important crops in India and North America. Potatoes eventually became an important source of nutrition in much of Europe, contributing to the growth of the Afro-Eurasian population between 1700 and 1900. [6] Many European rulers, including Friedrich the Great prussia and Catherine the Great of Russia, encouraged the cultivation of potatoes. [7] The 16th-century Spanish colonizers introduced new basic crops, including maize and sweet potatoes, to Asia from the Americas, thereby contributing to the growth of the Asian population. [10] To a greater extent, potatoes and corn displays brought calories and nutritional improvements to the old world compared to previously existing staples, as they produced more diverse and richer food production. [12] Tomatoes that came to Europe from the new world via Spain were originally valued in Italy mainly for their decorative value. However, from the 19th [13] Coffee (established in The Americas around 1720) from Africa and the Middle East, and Sugar cane (brought from the Indian continent) from Spain's West Indies became the main export of commercial crops to extensive Latin American plantations. In Indian Portuguese, chili and potatoes from South America have become an integral part of Indian cuisine. [14] Rice it also: Rice production in the United States was another crop that became widely grown during the Columbian exchange. As demand in the New World grew, so did the knowledge of how to grow it. The two main species were Oryza glaberrima and Oryza satva, from West Africa and Southeast Asia respectively. Slave owners in the New World relied on the skills of enslaved Africans to further grow both species. [15] Georgia and South Carolina were the main places where rice was grown during the slave trade, and the Caribbean islands, such as Puerto Rico and Cuba, were equally large production centers. Enslaved Africans brought their knowledge of water control, milling, winnowing and other general agrar practices to the fields. This widespread knowledge among enslaved Africans finally led to rice becoming a major food item in the New World. [3] [16] Fruit Citrus fruit and grapes were introduced from the Mediterranean to America. In the early 19th century, these crops struggled to adapt to the climate of the new world, but in the 19th century, portuguese sailors brought bananas into America, coming to the grain, taking part in commercial endeavors, mainly slavery, in West Africa. Bananas were still consumed only in minimal quantities as late as 1890. [18] The history of modern American banana plantations specifies the spread of this crop in America. Tomatoes Took three centuries after their introduction in Europe tomatoes to become a widely recognized food item. Tobacco, potatoes, chilies, tomatillos and tomatoes are all members of the nightshade family. All these plants bear such a resemblance to the European night shade that even an amateur could conclude that they were a kind of night shade, just an observation of flowers and berries. Like some European night shade varieties, tomatoes and potatoes can be harmful or even deadly if the wrong part of the plant is consumed in the wrong amount. Doctors, in the 16th century, therefore, had good reason to be careful that this native Mexican tree was toxic, and was a generator of melancholic humor. In 1544, Pietro Andrea Mattioli, a Tuscan doctor and botanist, showed that tomatoes may be edible, but there is no record of anyone consuming them at that time. But in 1592 the head gardener of the botanical garden in Aranjuez, near Madrid, under patron Philip II of Spain, wrote: it is said, [tomatoes] are good sauces. Despite these comments, tomatoes remained exotic plants grown for decorative purposes, but rarely for culinary use. On October 31, 1548, the tomato was given a first name across Europe, when the housekeeper of The Duke of Florence, Kosimo I de' Medici, wrote to De' Medici's private secretary that the poni d'oro basket arrived safely. At the time, the poni d'oro label was also used in sweets by scientists to refer to figs, melons and citrus fruits. [19] In the early years, tomatoes were mainly grown as ornamental plants in Italy. For example, Florentine aristocrat Giovan Vettorio Soderini wrote about how they searched only for their beauty and were grown only in gardens or flower beds. Tomatoes were grown in elite city and underground gardens for fifty years or so after their arrival in Europe and were only occasionally depicted as works of art. The combination of pasta with tomato sauce was only developed at the end of the nineteenth century. Of all new world factories brought to Italy the potato took as long as the tomato was accepted as food. Today, around 32 000 acres (13 000 hectares) of tomatoes are grown in Italy, although there are still areas where relatively few tomatoes are grown and consumed. [19] Livestock More information: Plains Indians § Horse Initially at least, Colombian animal exchange went largely in one direction, from Europe to the new world, because eurasian regions were domesticated with many more animals. The local peoples quickly adopted horses, donkeys, mules, pigs, cattle, sheep, goats, chickens, big dogs, cats and bees for transport, food and other purposes. One of the first European exports to America, a horse, changed the lives of many Native American tribes. Mountain tribes shifted to a nomadic lifestyle, not agriculture, based on hunting bison racer moved down the Great Plains. The existing Plains tribes expanded their territories with horses, and the animals were considered so valuable that horse flocks became a measure of wealth. [21] The impact of the introduction of European livestock on the environment and peoples of the new world was not always positive. In the Caribbean, the spread of European animals had a major impact on local fauna and undergrowth and on land managed by conuocs, indigenous peoples. [22] Araucania Mapuche was quick to take the horse to Spain, improving their military capabilities when the Arauco war raged in Spain and the Mapuches. [23] [24] Until the arrival of The Spanish language, the mapuches had the chimanique (Llama) livestock. The introduction of sheep led to some competition between both types of homes. Anecdotal evidence from the 17th century The decline of chillihueques reached point 18. In the Chilóe archipelago, the introduction of pigs by the Spaniards proved successful because they benefited from the rich shellfish and algae exhibited due to large tides. [25] Disease More information: Native American diseases and epidemics, disease influx in the Caribbean, Virgin soil epidemic and Cocoliztli epidemics Before regular communication was created between two hemispheres, varieties of domesticated animals and infectious diseases that jumped humans, such as smallpox, were significantly more much in the old world than New due to the broader long-distance trade networks. Many had travelled west across Eurasian animals or humans or were brought in by traders from Asia, so all the inhabitants suffered from diseases on two continents. Although Eurasian diseases affected Europeans and Asians, their endemic status on these continents was many people who get immunity. Old-world diseases had a devastating effect when introduced through European carriers because natives of America did not have natural immunity to new diseases. Measles caused a lot of deaths. Smallpox epidemics are thought to have led to the highest death toll among Native Americans, surpassing all wars[26] and far surpassing the relative loss of life in Europe due to the Black Death. [1]:164 It is estimated that between 100 and 150 years after 1492, these epidemics have died. Many of America's regions lost 100% of their natives. [1]:165 The beginning of the demographic collapse of the North American continent is usually due to the spread of the well-documented smallpox epidemic in Hispaniola in December 1518. At that point, only 10,000 indigenous people were still alive in Hispaniola. [22] The study of Europe's tropical areas was aided by the new discovery of the world for quinine, which was the first effective treatment for malaria. In Europe, Europeans suffered from this disease, but some indigenous people had at least partial resistance to it. In Africa, resistance to malaria has been associated with other genetic changes among sub-Saharan Africans and their offspring, which can cause sickle cell anaemia. [1]:164 In fact, the resistance of sub-Saharan Africans to malaria in the South United States and the Caribbean greatly contributed to the specificity of slavery from Africa in these regions. [27] Yellow fever is also thought to have been brought from Africa to the Americas through the Atlantic slave trade. Because it was endemic in Africa, many people there had acquired immunity. Europeans suffered a higher death rate than african descendants when exposed to yellow fever in Africa and the Americas, where numerous epidemics have swept colonies since the 17th century. The disease caused widespread deaths in the Caribbean during the heyday of a slave-based sugar plantation. [22] The replacement of local forests with sugar plantations and factories facilitated its spread in the tropical region by reducing the number of potential wild mosquitoes. [22] The means of yellow fever transmission were unknown until 1881[22] The history of syphilis is well researched, but the exact origin of the disease is unknown and remains the subject of debate. [28] There are two main hypotheses: one suggests that Syphilis was taken to Europe from The Americas by christopher columbus's team in the early 1490s, while the other suggests that syphilis existed earlier in Europe, but went they're called pre-Columbia and Pre-Columbia hypotheses. The first written description of the disease in the Old World came in 1493. The first major outbreak of syphilis in Europe occurred in 1494/1495 in Naples, Italy, among Charles VIII's army during the invasion of Naples. [29] [31] [32] [33] Many of the crew members who served on the trip had joined this army. After his victory, Charles's largely mercenary army returned to their respective homes, spreading the Great Smallpox throughout Europe and triggering the deaths of more than five million people. [34] [35] Cultural exchanges One of the results of the movement of people between new and old worlds was the cultural exchange. For example, in the article Myth of Early Globalization: The Atlantic Economy, 1500-1800 Pieter Emmer makes the point that since 1500, the clash of cultures had begun in the Atlantic Ocean. [36] This cultural clash involved the transfer of European values to indigenous cultures. For example, the emergence of the concept of private property in areas where property was often considered to be social, monogamy concepts (although many indigenous peoples were already monogamous), the role of women and children in the social system and the superiority of free work[37], even though slavery was an already established practice among many indigenous peoples. Another example was the decline of Europe's human sacrifices, a well-established religious practice among many indigenous people. When The European Colonizers first entered North America, they met the tarata. In search of economic opportunities and farms, it showed them that the land was unprepared and accessible for that purpose. When the English entered Virginia, they met a fully established human culture called Powhatan. Powhatan farmers in Virginia scattered their farm plots in large passed areas. These larger cleaned areas were a social place for the cultivation of useful plants. When Europeans viewed gardens as signs of civilisation, they set the earth more suitable for itself. [38] In implementing their practices, they enslaved, murdered and used indigenous peoples. Tobacco was a New World agricultural product, scattered a luxury for good distribution, as part of the Columbia exchange. As discussed in the transatlantic slave trade, the tobacco trade increased the demand for free labour and tobacco worldwide. Discussing widespread tobacco use, Spanish physician Nicolas Monardes (1493-1588) noted that black people, who have gone to these parts of India, have taken the same way and the use of tobacco that Indians have. [39] When Europeans travelled to other parts of the world, they took tobacco-related practices. Demand cultural exchange between these peoples. One of the most notable areas of cultural clashes and exchanges was religion, which is often the main point of cultural reversal. In the spanish and Portuguese governances, the spread of Catholicism, steeped in the European value system, was the main objective of colonisation and was often followed through the explicit policies of suppressing indigenous languages, cultures and religions. English North American missionaries turned to many tribes and nations of Protestant faiths, while the French colonies had downright religious mandates, as some early explorers, like Jacques Marquette, were Catholic priests. Over time, and given europe's technological and immunological superiority, which contributed and cemented their dominance, indigenous religions fell centuries after european settlement in America, though not without the great conflict and uprising of indigenous peoples, to protect their cultural practices. While the Mapuche people do not take horse, sheep and wheat, the over-all scant adoption of Spanish technology mapuche is characterized as a tool of cultural resistance. [23] The Atlantic slave trade Enslaved Africans were chained and bound before they were taken to the ships of the New World Atlantic slave trade was transferred to Africans in mainly West African parts of the United States between the 16th and 19th centuries, much of the Columbian Exchange. [40] Some 10 million Africans arrived in America as slaves on European boats. The journey that enslaved Africans took african parts to america is commonly known as average passage. [41] Today, millions of people descend in North America and South America, including most of the Caribbean population, from Africans brought to a new world by Europeans. Enslaved Africans helped shape evolving African-American culture in the New World. They participated in both skilled and unskilled work and gave way to a new population representing a hybrid of two cultures. [40] The birth of African-American culture: an anthropological perspective is a book written by Sidney Mintz and Richard Price detailing the cultural influence of enslaved Africans in America. Mintz and Price's book helped to make public how inseparable aspects of the socialization of plantation life were to the structures of black culture. The treatment of enslaved Africans during the Atlantic slave trade became one of the most controversial topics in the history of the New World. Slavery was abolished in 1865. Examples of the organism See also: New World crops, Agriculture in Mesoamerica, Muisca agriculture and list of food origin post-Columbia broadcasts local organisms with close links to humans The type of organism Old world new world to Old World Domesticated animals cat (domestic animals – several natural species already present) cattle (would have used meat, milk and pulling plows or wagons.) chicken donkey goats (goats old world, genus Capra, various mountain goats new world, genus Oreamnos) goose (species New World geese were present, but the farmers also would have wanted geese eggs in addition to meat) sea sauce herb (European bee – other wild and domesticated species already existed) horse rabbit (domestic) seals (domestic only. Wild bighorn sheep do not live in the east mississippi river and would not have been discovered until after most of the exchange had ended.) water buffalo alpaca guinea pig llama parrots (rednecks, amazons and conures live only in the New World; were occasional pets.) Muscovy pardi kalkun Kasvatatud taimed azduki ao mandli aloe vera Õuna aprikoosi sparkoosi sparkoosi baobab banaan (sealhulgas cinkook banaan) oder basiliek peet musta silmaga herneš Brassyca oleracea saadud kõõgiviljad bpraki Roos kapsas kapsa lilikapsas krae rohiseid lehtkapsas kohlrabi rapiseemmed breadfruit broad bean CannabIs (st kanep) cantalou porgand seller kirsitsitsine tsitruskaan (oranž, sidr jne) kookospähkli (toodud Aasiast Karibi) kohvi harilik vigimajarja korine (tuntud ka kui cilantro) kurk kõõmnebaklažaan (baklažaan) Ellis (õli palm) apteegitilli sõrme hirs rebasessa hirs flax küüslauk ingverijõgi viinamarjad (natural species available as well) hazelnut hogs jackfruit (brought from Asia to the Caribbean) kiwifruit kola nut leeks lentil salad meat mango mango mango mango mangosteen melon (watermelon, cantaloupe, bee, etc.) millet mint Momiocia charantia (survey melon) mung okra kaaguapil okra okra okra oonui ploomi oregano pea peach peach pear millet persimmi is (Asian species) pistachio plum pomegranate proso millet radish raspberry rice rosemary rye sesame sorghum soy spinach sugarcane and sugar beet tamarind turnip turmeric turnip nut (commercial wheat jams (sometimes incorrectly referred to as sweet potato) acai Acca sellowiana (fejfoja, pineapple guava, Brazilian guava, guavasteen) Annona glabra (alligator apple) Annona reticulata (boiled apple) agave alicpice amaranth (like grain) annatto aracacha arrowroot or Maranta arundinacea avocado black cherry black walnut blueberry (commercial varieties) Brazilian walnut Calathea allouia (leren) Canna indica (achira) peppers (peppers and chillies) indian cassava (maniok, tapioca, yuca) chayote cherimoya chia coca leaf (cocaine) cocoa beans (cocaine) chocolate) cotton (long staple species) cranberry (large cranberry or gooseberry species) cucurbits (many squashes and pumpkins) butternut squash pumpkin Hubbard squash zucchini (courgette) Eryngium foetidum (culantro, Mexican coriander) guava (plain) Helianthus (sunflower) Jerusalem corn (corn) Manikara zapota (sapodilla) mashua Opuntia ficus-indica (thorny pear) Oxalis tuberosa (New Zealand yam) papaya passionfruit, fruits and flowers for gardens; for several species, maapähkli pekaaniafaatsil Phaseolus vulgaris (oad: pinto, lima, neer jne) füsals (pae karusmar) ananass pitaya (draakon puu) kartuli kinoa kummist stevia maaska (kaubanduslik sordid) suhkru-õuna suhkru vahtra magus kartul tamarillo tubaka tomatifattomatitalluucco vanille lõhkiija maagi yucca kasvatatud seeme Agaricus bporisporus (pork seened, kastani seened, portobello seened) pilv kõrva seen enoki seeme austi seen (mõned sordid) Rhiizopus oligosporus (tempeh) shiitake seened lumi kõrva seemed trüüvil huitlacoche (maisi plekk) austriseen (mõned sordid) Nakkushaigused bubonic kaik cholera differia gonorröa difria dikriss malaria leetrid mumps Pertussis rubella scarlet fever smallpox tuberculosis typhoid typhoid yaws yellow fever shazolee disease pinta syphilis (contested) Later in history More information: On species, invasive species and lists of invasive species Plants that arrived by land, sea or air before 1492, invasive plant species and pathogens, including stuffed such as drum (Salsola spp.) and wind oats (Avena fatua), were also introduced at random. Some plants introduced intentionally, such as kudzu vine in 1894 from Japan to the United States to help control soil erosion, have since been found to be invasive pests in the new environment. Mushrooms have also been transported, like the one responsible for dutch elm disease, killing American elms in North American forests and towns where many were planted with street trees. Some invasive species have become serious ecosystem and economic problems after the creation of new world environments. [42] [43] Useful, although probably an unintentional introduction is Saccharomyces eubayanus, the yeast responsible for lager beer, believed to be from Patagonia. [44] Others have crossed the Atlantic ocean into Europe and changed the course of history. In the 1840s, phytophthora infestans crossed the oceans, damaging potato culture in several European countries. In Ireland, potato culture was completely destroyed; Ireland's great famine caused millions to starve or emigrate. In addition, many animals were taken to new habitats around the world, either by chance or at random. These include animals such as brown rats, earthworms (apparently missing parts before Colombia's New World) and zebra mussels that arrived at the scene. [45] Escaped and wild populations the animals have progressed on both old and new worlds, often affecting or displacing native species. In the new world, european feline, pig, equine and cattle populations of feral pigs are common, and Burmese python and green iguana are considered problematic in Florida. In the old world, the Eastern Grey Squirrel has been particularly successful in the colonisation of Great Britain, and raccoon populations are now found in some regions of Germany, the Caucasus and Japan. Fur farm escapes such as coypu and American mink have extensive populations. See also the Agricultural and Agronomy Portal for Indigenous Peoples in America Portal Alfred W. 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