

Chapter 1 : Spanish Exploration and Settlement in the Southeast

The Spanish Empire comprised territories and colonies of the Spanish Monarch in the Americas, Asia (Philippines), Europe and some territories in Africa and Oceania. The Spanish Empire in the Americas was formed after conquering large stretches of land, beginning with Christopher Columbus in the Caribbean Islands.

Bantu migrations between the 17th and 19th centuries brought the coastal groups and later the Fang. The Igbo of Nigeria mostly Aro slave traders arrived and founded small settlements in Bioko and Rio Muni which expanded the Aro Confederacy in the 18th and 19th centuries. He called it Formosa "Beautiful" , but it quickly took on the name of its European discoverer. Spain intended to gain access to a source of slaves controlled by British merchants. From to , the United Kingdom had a base on Bioko to combat the slave trade , [1] which was then moved to Sierra Leone upon agreement with Spain in . Spain had neglected to occupy the large area in the Bight of Biafra to which it had treaty rights, and the French had been expanding their occupation at the expense of the area claimed by Spain. The British had settled some 2, Sierra Leoneans and freed slaves during their brief occupation of the island in the early 19th century, and a small current of immigration from West Africa and the West Indies continued after the departure of the British. To this core of settlers were added Cubans, Filipinos, Spaniards of various colours deported for political or other crimes, and some assisted settlers. There was also a trickle of immigration from the neighbouring Portuguese islands: Although a few of the Fernandinos were Catholic and Spanish-speaking, about nine-tenths of them were Protestant and English-speaking on the eve of the First World War, and pidgin English was the lingua franca of the island. The Sierra Leoneans were particularly well placed as planters while labour recruitment on the Windward coast continued, for they kept family and other connections there and could easily arrange labour supplies. They were well-treated by the Spanish authorities, largely because the man militia was not large enough to forcibly intern them. From the opening years of the 20th century, the Fernandinos were put on the defensive by a new generation of Spanish immigrants. New land regulations in favoured Spaniards, and most of the big planters of later years arrived in the islands from Spain following these new regulations. The Liberian labour agreement of favoured wealthy men with ready access to the state, and the shift in labour supplies from Liberia to Rio Muni increased this advantage. The greatest constraint to economic development was a chronic shortage of labour. The indigenous Bubi population of Bioko , pushed into the interior of the island and decimated by alcoholic addiction, venereal disease, smallpox and sleeping sickness, refused to work on plantations. Working their own little cocoa farms gave them a considerable degree of autonomy. Moreover, the Bubi were protected from the demands of the planters from the late 19th century by the Spanish Claretian missionaries, who were very influential in the colony and eventually organised the Bubi into little mission theocracies reminiscent of the famous Jesuit Reductions of Paraguay. Catholic penetration was furthered by two small insurrections protesting the conscription of forced labour for the plantations, in and , which led to the Bubi being disarmed in and left them dependent on the missionaries. A Labour Treaty was signed with the Republic of Liberia in , the transport of up to 15, workers was orchestrated by the German Woermann-Linie. The economy was based on large cacao and coffee plantations and logging concessions and the workforce was mostly immigrant contract labour from Liberia, Nigeria , and Cameroun. Moreover, the timber companies needed growing amounts of labour, and the spread of coffee cultivation offered an alternative means of paying taxes. Fernando Po thus continued to suffer from labour shortages. The French only briefly permitted recruitment in Cameroun, and the main source of labour came to be Igbo smuggled in canoes from Calabar and Oron, Nigeria. The persisting labour shortage in the cacao, coffee and logging industries was only overcome by the mushrooming illegal canoe-based smuggling of Igbo and Ibibio workers from the Eastern Provinces of Nigeria. The number of clandestine contract workers on the island of Fernando Po grew to 20, in . On September 19 the Colonial Guard and the Civil Guard began the rebellion and took control of the island of Fernando Po, while the rest of the colony remained loyal to the Republic. On September 22 a clash took place between a rebel group from Kogo and a loyal detachment from Bata. Provincialisation and decolonisation[edit] The post-war political history of the colony can be divided into three fairly distinct phases: A

paradoxical effect of this autonomy was that Guineans could choose among several political parties while metropolitan Spaniards were under a single-party regime. The name of the country was changed to Equatorial Guinea. They formed two bodies: Their pressures were weak, but the general trend in West Africa was not. This proved a feeble instrument, and, with growing pressure for change from the UN, Spain gave way to the currents of nationalism. A constitutional convention produced an electoral law and draft constitution. At independence, Equatorial Guinea had one of the highest per capita incomes in Africa, although it was also very unevenly distributed as most of the money was in the hands of colonial and elite planters. However at the time of independence, the number of African doctors and lawyers was in the single digits. In Macias took complete control of the government and assumed the title of President for Life. The private and public sectors of the economy were devastated. Nigerian contract labourers on Bioko, estimated to have been 60,000, left en masse in early 1975. The economy collapsed, and skilled citizens and foreigners left. Religion was repressed, and education ceased. As part of the same process, Nguema also ordered the entire population to drop their European names and adopt African ones. Many of the island residents population consisting of Nigerian labourers and traders were forced to evacuate. Obiang assumed the presidency in October 1979. Human Rights Watch, Amnesty International and other non-governmental organizations have documented severe human rights abuses in prisons, including torture, beatings, unexplained deaths and illegal detention. The tension may be rooted in power shifts arising from the dramatic increase in oil production which has occurred since 1975. From slaving to neoslavery: Univ of Wisconsin Press, Los Territorios Espanoles De Africa. The Cambridge History of Africa: Volume 8, from C. Cambridge University Press, Historia y tragedia de Guinea Ecuatorial.

Chapter 2 : Milestones: " - Office of the Historian

Spanish possession and rule of its remaining colonies in the Americas ended in that year with its sovereignty transferred to the United States. The United States took occupation of Cuba, the Philippines, and Puerto Rico.

Morocco "58 With the marriage of the heirs apparent to their respective thrones Ferdinand of Aragon and Isabella of Castile created a personal union that most scholars view as the foundation of the Spanish monarchy. Their dynastic alliance was important for a number of reasons, ruling jointly over a large aggregation of territories although not in a unitary fashion. Ferdinand of Aragon was particularly concerned with expansion in France and Italy, as well as conquests in North Africa. The Kingdom of Portugal had an advantage over the rest of Iberian, having earlier retaken territory from the Muslims. Portugal then began to seek further overseas expansion, first to the port of Ceuta and then by colonizing the Atlantic islands of Madeira and the Azores ; it also began voyages down the west coast of Africa in the fifteenth century. Following the voyage of Christopher Columbus in and first major settlement in the New World in , Portugal and Castile divided the world by the Treaty of Tordesillas , which gave Portugal Africa and Asia and the Western Hemisphere to Spain. Columbus unexpectedly encountered the western hemisphere, populated by peoples he named "Indians. Managing the expanding empire became an administrative issue. It had conquered Melilla in , and further expansionism policy in North Africa was developed during the regency of Ferdinand the Catholic in Castile, stimulated by the Cardinal Cisneros. Several towns and outposts in the North African coast were conquered and occupied by Castile: Tripoli was taken on 24"25 July, the feast of St. James , protector of Spain; the claim was made that 10, Muslims were killed and many captured. The Spanish conquest of Oran was won with much bloodshed: The Zeiyanid sultans of Tlemcen quickly submitted to Spanish protectorate, and the two powers soon became allies. Oran, like other principal Algerian ports, was forced to accept a presidio military outpost ; it became a major naval base, a garrison city armed with traffic-commanding cannons and arquebuses. The Catholic Monarchs had developed a strategy of marriages for their children in order to isolate their long-time enemy: In these battles, which established the supremacy of the Spanish Tercios in European battlefields, the forces of the kings of Spain acquired a reputation for invincibility that would last until the mid-century. After the death of Queen Isabella in , and her exclusion of Ferdinand from a further role in Castile, Ferdinand married Germaine de Foix in , cementing an alliance with France. Only a year later, Ferdinand became part of the Holy League against France, seeing a chance at taking both Milan " to which he held a dynastic claim " and Navarre. This war was less of a success than the war against Venice, and in , France agreed to a truce that left Milan in its control and recognized Spanish control of Upper Navarre , which had effectively been a Spanish protectorate following a series of treaties in , , , and Conquest of the Canary Islands The conquest of the Canary Islands Portugal obtained several Papal bulls that acknowledged Portuguese control over the discovered territories, but Castile also obtained from the Pope the safeguard of its rights to the Canary Islands with the bulls *Romani Pontifex* dated 6 November and *Dominatur Dominus* dated 30 April The conquest was completed with the campaigns of the armies of the Crown of Castile between and , when the islands of Gran Canaria " , La Palma " , and Tenerife " were subjugated. Chronicler Pulgar wrote that the fame of the treasures of Guinea "spread around the ports of Andalusia in such way that everybody tried to go there". The War of the Castilian Succession "79 provided the Catholic Monarchs with the opportunity not only to attack the main source of the Portuguese power, but also to take possession of this lucrative commerce. The Crown officially organized this trade with Guinea: Isabella at the center, Columbus on the left, a cross on her right. The two became known as the Catholic Monarchs , with their marriage a personal union that created a relationship between the Crown of Aragon and Castile, each with their own administrations, but ruled jointly by the two monarchs. Castile was already engaged in a race of exploration with Portugal to reach the Far East by sea when Columbus made his bold proposal to Isabella. In the Capitulations of Santa Fe , dated on 17 April , Christopher Columbus obtained from the Catholic Monarchs his appointment as viceroy and governor in the lands already discovered [61] and that he might discover thenceforth; [62] [63] thereby, it was the first document to establish an administrative

organization in the Indies. These actions gave Spain exclusive rights to establish colonies in all of the New World from north to south later with the exception of Brazil , which Portuguese commander Pedro Alvares Cabral encountered in , as well as the easternmost parts of Asia. The treaty of Tordesillas [67] and the treaty of Cintra 18 September [68] established the limits of the Kingdom of Fez for Portugal, and the Castilian expansion was allowed outside these limits, beginning with the conquest of Melilla in . Other European powers did not see the treaty between Spain and Portugal as binding on themselves. Converting the inhabitants of in the newly discovered lands was entrusted by the papacy to the rulers of Portugal and Spain, through a series of papal actions. The Patronato real , or power of royal patronage for ecclesiastical positions had precedents in Iberia during the reconquest.

Chapter 3 : Spanish colonization of the Americas - Wikipedia

*Colonial society was hierarchical, based upon on the amount of non-Spanish blood a person possessed. A complicated system, called the *casta*, delineated over separate names for groups containing certain levels of Native American and African blood.*

Contact Us Unit 1 - Spain in the New World to Bristol Mariners seem to have visited Canada in the s, and Christopher Columbus may have learned of, and been inspired by, their voyages. By Englishmen were trading in Newfoundland and parts south, and organizing syndicates, some involving Azorean Portuguese, to exploit the fisheries there. England did not miss the entire European rediscovery of the Western Hemisphere, but did retire early. While England slept, Spain became dominant in the New World and on the high seas. After finding gold in recoverable quantities nearby, the Spanish quickly overran the island and spread to Puerto Rico in , to Jamaica in , and to Cuba in . The natives fared badly. Many died in one-sided armed conflict with soldiers and settlers, or in forced servitude in mines and on plantations. Others died of diseases to which they had no immunity. By mid-century, the native Ciboney of Hispaniola and western Cuba were extinct, and other tribes, including the Arawak of Puerto Rico, were nearly so. Beginning in , Spanish settlements sprang up on the mainland of Central and South America. The same year, Hernan Cortes led a small force from Cuba to the Gulf coast of Mexico, founded Veracruz , and set about destroying the Aztec empire. Most of Mexico fell within two years. Subsequent conquistadors followed the example set by Cortes. By , Francisco Pizarro, had effected the early stages of his conquest of the Inca empire of Peru. By Spain had dominion over the West Indies and Central America and its large surviving native population. New World mines yielded gold and silver for Spain in far greater amounts than France and Portugal had ever been able to extract from West Africa. One-fifth of the total production, the *quinto real*, went to the Spanish Crown. The average value of silver shipped to Spain rose to a million pesos a year before the conquest of Peru, and to more than 35 million a year by the end of the century. Cacao, cochineal, hides, spices, sugar, timber, and tobacco yielded additional income. Seville, through which all legal trade with the colonies passed, became a great financial center and nearly quadrupled in size between and . With such wealth at stake, Spain was concerned about possible interference by other nations. Initially, only Portugal posed a serious threat to Spanish monopoly. Intended to exclude Spain from Africa and India, and Portugal from the Far East, this treaty also effectively deprived Spain of any legitimate claim to much of present-day Brazil. Shortly after the ratification of the treaty, Portugal gained control of trade with the Spice Islands, and showed occasional interest in Newfoundland. In , to eliminate the threat of Portuguese expansion, Spain annexed Portugal. Although Spain mortgaged Venezuela to a German banking house for a brief period , she was successful in keeping most interlopers out of her holdings from Mexico to Chile for the remainder of the sixteenth century. In the early s, Spain made a few attempts to explore Florida and the Gulf coast. Around , Juan Ponce de Leon, conqueror of Puerto Rico, conducted the first reconnaissance of the area. Two years later, Ponce de Leon died in a disastrous attempt to build a settlement in Florida, and Spain withdrew from further serious efforts to establish a permanent presence there for another half-century. The first Spanish town in what is now the United States was not in Florida, but somewhere between 30 degrees and 34 degrees North. In , Ayllon had ordered a slaving expedition, and in , set out himself with approximately Spanish colonists--including women, children, and three Dominican friars--and a number of African slaves. After a false start, Ayllon built the town of San Miguel de Guadalupe. His venture was doomed from the outset. The principals of the colony quarreled, Indians attacked, slaves rebelled, and Ayllon died. Only survivors returned to Hispaniola. Later, in a slightly smaller group under Narvaez plundered and skirmished along the Gulf coast from Yampa Bay to Texas, where it disintegrated. Cabeza de Vaca and three other members finally reached Mexico in . From to de Soto and, after his death, Moscoso led an ever-shrinking party on a circuitous route through the southeastern and southcentral United States. From to Coronado explored the Southwest. In all cases, these Spanish explorers antagonized the Indians and failed to entice settlers to the higher latitudes. France The parts of North America neglected by Spain were attractive on that account to her ancient enemy--France. Although the Treaty of

Tordesillas had given France no share of the New World, the French crown ignored the arrangement. Even though war with Spain and the Holy Roman Empire impeded French expansion in the 1500s and 1510s, and the death of Henry II in 1589 led to civil and religious strife that nearly tore the country apart, France was the largest and most populous kingdom in western Europe and still a formidable adversary. Expecting a French challenge in North America, Spain sent a large contingent to secure a settlement site on the Gulf and an overland route thence to the coast of Georgia or South Carolina. In 1564, Angel de Villafane followed the Atlantic coast north past Cape Fear, looking for suitable sites and any foreigners making unauthorized use of them. Villafane dismissed the area as worthless. Charlesfort lasted only a few months, but this French incursion and well-founded rumors about a second, to the south, caused King Philip II of Spain to send Pedro Menendez de Aviles to establish a settlement in Florida, and to expel any Frenchmen in the area. Menendez arrived in August and wasted no time laying out the first St. Menendez, a strong supporter of colonization, was nearly alone in his enthusiasm for the region. His death in 1565 resulted in a decline of Spanish colonies in the area. Through Philip II continued to be interested until his death in 1598, the lack of an on-site manager with the enthusiasm and ability of Menendez made it easier for another country ignored at Tordesillas to reenter the struggle for empire in the New World.

England Redux The prodigious wealth flowing into Spain from its colonies and crown efforts to monopolize colonial trade prompted international smuggling and piracy. As a seafaring nation with few continental distractions and only one border to defend, England was a natural leader in both enterprises. Shortly after her accession to the English throne in 1558, Queen Elizabeth disestablished Roman Catholicism once and for all. When Hawkins anchored at the Mexican port of San Juan de Ullua on his third voyage in 1568, however, the Spanish retaliated with great force and skill. Only two English ships escaped. The incident poisoned Anglo-Spanish relations for the rest of the century. As a consequence, English depredations increased in frequency. From 1577 to 1580, Sir Francis Drake, who had been with Hawkins, humiliated Spain by circumnavigating the globe, much of which Spain considered its own, plundering as he went. Despite vehement Spanish protests, Elizabeth knighted him. The passage of time did little to abate English outrage over San Juan de Ullua, nor did it reduce English covetousness of Spanish treasure and trade. Gilbert disappeared returning from Newfoundland in 1583, but his half-brother, Walter Raleigh, carried on under a slightly different patent of discovery. Raleigh and his associates developed a plan to build a base well north of St. Augustine, from which to attack Spanish shipping in the western Atlantic and exploit the mineral resources of the region. To this end, Amadas and Barlowe reconnoitered the coast in 1584, and the Grenville expedition of 1585 left men on Roanoke Island under Ralph Lane. But Grenville was tardy in resupplying the colonists, and Drake, sailing homeward from victories over the Spanish at Cartagena and St. Augustine, removed them in 1586. Neither the Lane colony nor the "lost colony" had any noticeable effect on Spanish shipping. However, Spanish colonial expansion and seemingly unending sources of wealth in the New World profoundly affected English colonial policies. Drake pillaged the Caribbean in 1595, broke the Bank of Spain; nearly broke the Bank of Venice, to which Spain was heavily indebted; and ruined Spanish credit. Even after the Armada suffered mortifying defeat, and Spanish attempts to find and destroy the Roanoke colony had been indolent and inept, the threat of Spanish reprisal partly dictated the site of Jamestown. Spain did not lose her last foothold in the Americas until the Spanish-American War. Spanish language and culture are still integral to daily life in much of North and South America. But the Spanish star had begun to set over the New World by 1600. Edited and expanded by Iebame Houston and Wynne Dough Illustrations:

Chapter 4 : Spanish-American War - HISTORY

After three centuries of colonial rule, independence came rather suddenly to most of Spanish and Portuguese America. Between and all of Latin America except the Spanish colonies of Cuba and Puerto Rico slipped out of the hands of the Iberian powers who had ruled the region since the.

Spanish Exploration and Settlement in the Southeast in the first two centuries of Spanish colonization in the New World, the Chesapeake Bay red X was on the edge - far from the focus of Spanish settlements that stretched from Mexico into South America Source: Library of Congress, *Americae sive quartae orbis partis nova et exactissima descriptio* Diego Gutierrez, The Spanish were the first Europeans to explore and to establish a settlement in what today is Virginia. Despite occasional claims by boosters of tourism, the English settlements in Virginia and Massachusetts are over 80 years too late to be the first colony started by Europeans on the North American continent, and roughly 40 years too late to be called the first colony started by Europeans in Virginia. The Spanish considered Virginia to be part of Florida. Since Virginia was originally the northern part of Florida, the first European name for Virginia was based on the Spanish term for Easter. Seven decades later, a rival group of Europeans gave the region the name Virginia to honor their Queen Elizabeth, the "virgin queen. Ponce de Leon made the first major effort to establish a permanent settlement in North America in The English did not arrive at Roanoke Island for the first time until By the time investors in London started a settlement at Jamestown in , the Spanish had been exploring, conquering, enslaving, converting, and settling at different places in the New World for over a century. Spanish exploration of the New World was concentrated in the Caribbean initially because wind patterns made it easier to sail to latitudes far to the south of Virginia - but Spanish fleets returning to Europe used westerly winds that brought ships past Florida, exposing them to attacks from any pirate base located along the coastline of North America Source: Augustine, founded in after the French tried to create two colonies on the southeastern coastline. Pirates had no "political cover" but could keep all the loot. Library of Congress, *Americae sive quartae orbis partis nova et exactissima descriptio* Diego Gutierrez, The Spanish were not the first Europeans to reach North America. About 1, years ago, five centuries before Columbus sailed to the Caribbean in , the Vikings built simple fishing camps in Newfoundland and Labrador. The Spanish started permanent colonies in the Caribbean, and Santo Domingo founded remains the oldest continuously-occupied colonial settlement in the New World. The Spanish were not alone in trying to explore and settle the New World. There was competition from other European states, but initially they avoided the Caribbean because of the Spanish presence there. The sailors constructed temporary camps on Newfoundland when fishing off the coast. Those camps remained as isolated, single-purpose communities, occupied only during the time when cod were being caught and dried for transport back to Europe. In , the French tried to establish a permanent settlement on the St. That failed, but the French returned in to start again at St. Croix Island and Nova Scotia. In the six decades between those efforts, the French sought twice to build colonies on the southeastern coast of North America. The settlement at Charlesfort collapsed before the Spanish had an opportunity to attack it. The Spanish destroyed the later French colony at Fort Caroline , and then Spanish soldiers executed Jean Ribault and nearly all of his shipwrecked colonists in a massacre on a Florida beach. After that experience, France avoided conflict with Spain by settling much further north of St. Croix and then Quebec, the French left an unoccupied zone on the eastern edge of the continent. The English, Dutch, and Swedes focused their North American colonization efforts in that gap between the French and Spanish, but only after the military power of Spain was diminished by the failure of its fleet the Spanish Armada to conquer England in The Spanish were aggressive in protecting their claims to the New World, but did not have the resources to colonize the entire North American coastline. Lack of available soldiers prevented Spain from challenging all the European competitors occupying "northern Florida," and even Caribbean islands were left with few Spanish settlers. Spanish occupiers came to America immediately after completing their year reconquest of the Iberian Peninsula. The extension of the reconquista to North Africa was blocked when local tribes in Morocco were able to defend their territories and culture, including the Muslim faith. They conquered Ceuta and set up forts on the West African coast, seeking

a path to the Spice Islands. After rounding the tip of Africa, trade with India and Asia occupied the Portuguese. They were the first European nation to bypass the land routes controlled by Muslims, by going around the Cape of Good Hope to open shipping routes to the Spice Islands. The Portuguese lacked the population and military capacity to occupy the territories they "discovered" in Africa. They also found the trade in gold and slaves from Africa, and spices from East Asia, so rewarding that journeys across the Atlantic Ocean were a low priority. The Spanish did establish tiny enclaves in North Africa such as Melilla, but soon redirected their expansion towards North America. Hiring an Italian to sail west into the unknown offered the best opportunity for Spain to get access to the spices, without paying high costs to deal with rivals. In contrast to the colonization pattern of the English, the Spanish rarely sent a fleet of ships loaded with colonists directly from Spain to North America. Augustine, limiting the extent of the Spanish province of Florida Source: He returned in with people to start a settlement near modern-day Tampa. The local Calusa tribe successfully resisted his attempt to occupy their territory. Ponce de Leon abandoned the colonization project and returned to Cuba, where he died from an arrow wound suffered in Florida. Europeans brought new technology to North America, but needed food from Native Americans to survive initially Source: Augustine, a full-scale and permanently-occupied town in North America. After various ships mapped the edge of the continent from the Caribbean to Newfoundland, Spain sent expeditions that explored inland from the Florida and Carolina coast to the Mississippi River and Mexico. That same year, Captain Pedro de Quejo mapped the coastline from Florida to Delaware, sailing along the Virginia shore on that trip but capturing no slaves. He took a South Carolina native later named Francisco de Chicora back to Spain in , and Chicora spun tall tales about mineral wealth in the New World and succeeded in getting a trip back home. It left from Hispaniola in , including his captive Native American. It was too late to plant crops, and the local inhabitants were not friendly. After just three months, the survivors returned to Hispanola and San Miguel de Guadalupe was a failure. They landed at the site of modern Tampa and spent the winter at Apalachee modern Tallahassee , before traveling west along the Gulf Coast. The resupply ships and the land party failed to link up on the coast, leaving the expedition on its own. Eight years later in , the only four people to survive the trip including Cabeza de Vaca and a black slave known as Estaban reached Mexico City. It traveled inland from Tampa. Finding Juan Ortiz, a survivor of Narvaez expedition, provided de Soto a translator and guide. In , his explorers camped at the Native American town of Xuala near what is now the town of Morganton, North Carolina. The Spanish then turned west and headed towards Mexico. Library of Congress, Carte de la Louisiane et du cours du Mississipi The impact of the Spanish as they travelled through Native American communities must have been dramatic. The Spanish had swords, armor, guns, horses, large mastif dogs trained to maim people, and sufficient military capacity to go wherever they desired. Those who had been leaders lost status, since they clearly lacked the power to protect their followers. After the Spanish moved on to dominate another Native American community, those left behind who had survived the visit must have struggled to rebuild their society. After the disruption of de Soto, old assumptions of authority and obligation may have been replaced by new alliances and allegiances. The political and religious patterns discovered by later English colonists may have been created over just the last three generations. The first Europeans to penetrate the interior of the Carolinas were not peace-loving, sensitive men. The behavior of the Spanish reflected their cultural assumptions of being "better" than the Native Americans, carrying their Catholic faith into the interior of the continent. It is unlikely that the Native Americans, forced to provide food for the Spanish and to carry their supplies, welcomed their visitors as suggested in one book about North Carolina history: He reported the area to be pleasant and spent a month resting his horses and enjoying the hospitality of the natives. The soldiers probably brought diseases as well, such as influenza and malaria. Those diseases can spread to other people, but would not trigger pandemics that would depopulate the region. The damage done by those diseases would have been limited to just a small number of Native Americans living near the path of the exploration party. The soldiers were adults who had survived the killer infections, and could no longer transmit them. If the Spanish had not already brought depopulating diseases, the English did. Pandemics during the English colonization period killed most of the people within Native American towns. The drastic decline of population in the Carolina Piedmont and Tennessee River watershed triggered reorganization of Native American communities, leading to formation of

the Cherokee, Choctaw, Creek, Chickasaw, and other tribes. The depopulation reduced the opportunity to capture slaves locally. The difficulty of enslaving Native Americans led Carolinians to increase imports of black slaves from Africa. The pressure for Spain to occupy North America was minimal. The Spaniards focused on pillaging the native tribes in Mexico and South America of their gold and silver, sending shiploads of looted wealth back across the Atlantic Ocean. Portugal chose to focus on Brazil and the African slave trade, after dividing its claims to the New World with Spain under the Treaty of Tordesillas in 1494. However, European rivals were able to capture Spanish ships carrying New World wealth back home even when the nations were not officially at war. To support the intercept-the-Spanish-treasure-fleet efforts, those European nations did consider establishing bases in North America. The Spanish recognized the threat, but did not have a large enough population in the Western Hemisphere to plant settlements everywhere. Expanding to the north and planting settlements in "Florida" was a low priority. The Spanish did not try to build bases in the latitude of Virginia, far north along the Atlantic coast from the Caribbean, for two reasons: Some sort of base would enhance the legitimacy of the Spanish legal claims, pre-empting other European nations from asserting that they had discovered and occupied vacant land with no Christian presence. A base on the Atlantic Ocean might also help rescue shipwrecked Spanish sailors who might manage to reach the mainland and then get Native Americans to bring them to a known Spanish outpost. Ships from Mexico could bring a steady stream of supplies to the Gulf of Mexico base to get it started. Ships from the Caribbean or even directly from Spain could bring people and food to the Atlantic Coast base. At some point, the two bases could be self-sufficient. An overland link would give each of them an alternative way to receive supplies without a dangerous sea voyage between them through the Florida Strait. Spanish maps recorded latitude correctly, but they were off the mark for longitude. Their basic misunderstanding of longitude led Spanish officials to think they could establish an outpost somewhere on the Gulf of Mexico, send ships from Mexico to that base, and then carry supplies overland to an Atlantic Ocean base at Santa Elena at modern Parris Island in South Carolina. Supplying an Atlantic Ocean colony via overland caravans from a Gulf Coast colony was expected to be easier than sailing from Mexico through the dangerous straights around Florida. Tristan de Luna sailed from what is now called Veracruz in Mexico, with at least soldiers and Aztecs, to establish a colony at what we now call Pensacola Bay. Spain planned to supply an Atlantic Coast outpost by shipping supplies from what is now Veracruz to a Gulf of Mexico base, then using an overland route to avoid sailing through the Straits of Florida. Source: The Spanish were unable to supply the settlement, despite sending four major maritime relief expeditions. At one point, the remaining colonists moved inland to a Native America town of Nanipacana on the Alabama River, and sent men further north to Coosa at the headwaters of that river to get supplies.

Chapter 5 : Colonization of The Philippines

The first colony was established in Hispaniola (La Española in Spanish, meaning "The Spaniard") by Christopher Columbus. In 25th December of his crew started to build a fortress in today's Haiti called Christmas (Navidad) and left a contingent of men to establish a small colony with the natives.

Chipman Spanish Texas Map. Viceroyalty of Spain Flag and Coat of Arms. The Spanish province lay above the Nueces River to the east of the Medina River headwaters and extended into Louisiana. Those years may be divided into three stages: Early Spanish Missions in Texas. Courtesy of the National Park Service. The uninterrupted Spanish occupation of Texas "lasted for just years. However, the legacies of Spanish Texas are lasting and significant. On reflection they seem all out of proportion to the relatively small number of Spaniards and Hispanicized Indians who became the Mexican nation in Perhaps most obvious, yet superficial in importance, is the use of Spanish names for hundreds of towns, cities, counties, and geographic features in Texas. San Antonio, the first formal municipality in Texas, is one of the ten largest cities in the United States. Forty-two of the counties in Texas bear either Hispanic names, or an Anglicized derivation such as Galveston, or a misspelling such as Uvalde. The names of physiographical features such as Llano Estacado, Guadalupe Mountains, and Padre Island serve as reminders of Spanish explorers and conquistadors who crossed portions of Texas well before the English settled the Atlantic Coast of North America. Spaniards introduced numerous European crops, irrigation at San Antonio and other mission sites, livestock, and livestock-handling techniques. Farming, initially practiced by some Indian groups in Texas, was likewise expanded and improved by Spanish missionaries and settlers. The restored missions at San Antonio and Goliad stand as enduring monuments to the Franciscans who brought the mantle of Christianity to Texas Indians. With the exception of those in California, the finest examples of Spanish mission architecture in the United States are found in Texas. The missions in Texas, however, are much older than their California counterparts. Spanish is a second language for millions of Texans; for some it is the first language. Although much of the linguistic makeup of the state is the result of Mexican influence since , Spanish-not English, German, French, or Dutch-was the first European language spoken in Texas. The lasting impact of Spanish law on the legal system is likewise of vitally important. Rules of judicial procedure, land law, water law , and the law of family relations derive from the Spanish. Map, Spanish Explorers of Texas Courtesy of the Archivo de Indias in Spain. Courtesy of the Bullock Museum and Paul L. Foster School of Medicine, El Paso. Spaniards first approached Texas from the east by sea along the coast of the Gulf of Mexico , then overland almost simultaneously from New Mexico and Louisiana. The initial contacts were the result of historical processes generated within the West Indies and the vast kingdom of New Spain. He and his crew were the first Europeans to view the entire Texas coast. He and his men were soon separated from their support vessels and stranded on the Florida coast. In the first month at sea, the small flotilla passed the mouth of the Mississippi River and arrived off the Texas coast, where it was caught in a violent storm. Two of the five craft landed near the western extremity of Galveston Island in early November; their occupants were the first non-Indians to set foot on Texas soil. They lived for nearly seven years amid hostile Indians and the harsh environment of the Texas coast and after an incredible odyssey reached Mexico City in the summer of Their accounts and the later writing of Cabeza de Vaca provided the first descriptions of Texas landforms, Indians, and biota. Cabeza de Vaca in particular was the only Spaniard to record the names of the Indians of South Texas and to locate them relative to each other. His description of the Mariames, Avavares, Yguaces, and associated Texas Indians, according to one writer, supplied cultural information that "quantitatively exceeds that of all his successors combined. Map of Coronado Expedition to Map of De Soto and Moscoso Expedition. Courtesy of Heironymous Roe. Coronado, from a base on the Rio Grande north of the site of present-day Albuquerque, reached the Panhandle of West Texas in the spring of On the return trip to Pueblo country, Coronado again crossed the Panhandle at its extreme northwest corner. One of his friars, Juan de Padilla , chose to return to Quivira , as the country along the Arkansas River in Kansas was called. Accompanying him was a Portuguese soldier and two Indian lay brothers. After succeeding among the Wichitas, Padilla died at the hands of unidentified Indians from farther east. His three

companions, however, escaped on foot and crossed Texas from north to south en route to Mexico. The Coronado expedition is linked to that of Hernando De Soto by a chance occurrence. Both men were in the field during the early s. It would appear that Moscoso entered the future Texas in late August and penetrated to the Trinity River in what is now Houston County. Moscoso made the first documented contact by Spaniards with Indians of the Hasinai Confederacy. Location of Three Shipwrecks in Courtesy of Texas Beyond History. The next recorded contact by Europeans with the Texas coast came in as a result of three Spanish ships wrecked off Padre Island. Perhaps of the survivors were killed by hostile Indians, but a few escaped by boat and one on foot. By a twist of fate, the next remarkable experience in Texas involved Englishmen. In John Hawkins placed several dozen of his countrymen ashore near Tampico after he suffered a nearly disastrous defeat by the Spanish fleet in Veracruz harbor. Legends, however, died hard for Spaniards. Despite the reports of Coronado and Moscoso about the dearth of readily exploitable wealth in the north country, Tierra Nueva as it was then called continued to attract the attention of gold-hungry men in New Spain. Future explorers looked for the pearls of the Jumanos and the Great Kingdom of the Tejas. In the second half of the sixteenth century, the discovery of rich silver deposits in northern Mexico drew Spaniards into the area like a magnet attracting nails. The first of the mining boomtowns was Zacatecas, where a mountain of silver ore was discovered in Map of Chichimeca Nations of New Spain in The latter comprised missions and presidios, frontier agencies designed to convert Indians and pacify rebellious ones. The primary function of missions was the propagation of the Catholic faith. But missions also served the state by Hispanicizing the Indian population, thereby making Indians in theory into tractable and tax-paying citizens. Presidios, as the nuclei of military presence on the frontier, were clearly agencies of the state, but they also served as necessary adjuncts to the security of the missions and the discipline of the neophytes within-a lesson painfully learned by the friars in the early days of Spanish Texas. Francis, established their first missions in New Mexico. In the following year, the Spanish crown authorized the pacification of New Mexico by a private individual, but no formal agreement was reached for a dozen years. In the eighty-two years of continuous Spanish presence in New Mexico, Texas along the Rio Grande from modern Presidio to El Paso bordered the path from the mines, missions, and ranches of northern Mexico to the land of the Pueblos. The interior of Texas, however, remained for the most part tierra incognita. It was penetrated by some, however. The Pueblo Revolt of When the Pueblo Revolt of forced prolonged abandonment of New Mexico, El Paso del Norte , where settlement west of the river had occurred as early as , became the focal point of Spanish presence on the extreme northern frontier. Its sparse population was severely tested by the arrival of nearly 2, Spanish and Indian refugees from New Mexico. To accommodate the Indian exiles, Spaniards founded the first mission and pueblo within the present boundaries of Texas, Corpus Christi de la Isleta, at the site of modern Ysleta. In the following years, efforts were made to found missions among the Jumano Indians at the junction of the Conchos and Rio Grande near the site of present-day Presidio. However, in the middle s intelligence of French designs in the Gulf of Mexico downgraded the importance of that undertaking. Concern centered on the extraordinary threat to Spanish realms posed by Frenchmen descending the Mississippi River from Canada. If Spain closed that gap and occupied the lower Mississippi valley, Canada would lose its access to the sea and be threatened from the south. On the other hand, a French colony placed on the lower part of the river would be close to the rich mines of New Spain. La Salle returned to France in to lay his colonization plans before the court at Versailles. After some delays, occasioned by a rival and international considerations, he received generous support for his plan to challenge the Spanish empire. His expedition sailed from France in , but because of misperceptions and the reading of faulty maps it overshot the Mississippi by some miles and landed at Matagorda Bay in early By the time La Salle discovered that "his river" was not where he had landed, he was stranded on the Texas coast and had become the object of a resolute Spanish manhunt. By then La Salle, a victim of assassination, had been dead for two years. His colony had failed, as historian Robert S. Weddle has noted, not because of Spanish vigilance, but rather due to bad luck, hostile environment, fatal diseases, deadly Karankawa arrows, and the enmity of Frenchman toward Frenchman. The Spanish also underestimated the impending French threat to Louisiana. De Leon, however, wisely suggested the placement of presidios to bridge the gap between settlements in Coahuila and the proposed new mission field. If his suggestions had been accepted, the

subsequent disasters in East Texas might well have been lessened, if not avoided. Mission San Francisco de los Tejas. Courtesy of Gerald E. Mcleod Photography and the Austin Chronicle. The priests, expecting a rebellion, buried the cannons and bells, ignited the mission, and went back to Coahuila. But the mission effort in East Texas had familiarized Spaniards with the geography and Indians of Texas and convinced both church and government officials that future missions must be sustained by presidios and civilian settlements. This letter would ultimately result in the establishment of Los Adaes. Courtesy of Billy Hathorn Photography. For one of the missionaries, Father Francisco Hidalgo , unfinished work among the Tejas Indians became a consuming passion. In early the arrival of fresh supplies and reinforcements brought from France by Iberville strengthened French presence in Louisiana. Accompanying him was a relative by marriage, Louis Juchereau de St.

The arrival of a Portuguese explorer named Ferdinand Magellan was marked the day when Spanish discovered the Philippines. He claimed the islands for the king of Spain. The Philippines was a prize catch for Spain, which, at that time, was locked, in a fierce struggle for world colonization with.

Colonization of The Philippines This timeline shows the series of major events that happened from to During this period of time, the Philippines was colonized by the Spanish and the Americans and was occupied by other countries as well. He claimed the islands for the king of Spain. The Philippines was a prize catch for Spain, which, at that time, was locked, in a fierce struggle for world colonization with Portugal. The expedition continued northward reaching the bay of Manila, where new towns were established. However, the Spanish quickly retaliated, and protected their people. Led by Francisco Dagohoy, this rebellion took place in the island of Bohol from to , and took the Spaniards 85 years to quell. This led to Dagohoy vowing to correct the wrong done to his brother, and led a rebellion against the Spanish authority. Other underlying causes of the rebellion were the accumulation of anger from early revolts ignited by forced labor, Spanish oppression, excessive tax collection and payment of tributes. After 85 years of internal war, the Filipinos surrendered on the 31st of August, Manila fell into the arms of the British on October 4, but this settlement was short lived as expansion into other islands in the Philippines was met with stiff resistance from the British Forces. An agreement of armistice between the Spanish and the British resulted in the withdrawal of the British from Manila in the first week of April , and the Spanish once again took control. It was sparked by Jose Rival who wrote two novels, "Noli Me Tangere" and "El filibusterismo", which incited Filipino nationalism and revolt against the Spanish colonizers, he formed a civic movement organization called La Liga Filipina on July 3rd, This league spoke of social reforms through legal means. However, the league was disbanded four days after its formation, and Jose was declared an enemy of state by Spanish authorities. He was exiled to the remote Philippine island of Mindanao. It sought independence from Spain through armed revolt and was later discovered. As a result, it started the Philippine Revolution later in It began upon the discovery of the anti-colonial secret organization Katipunan by the Spanish authorities on August 1st, In a mass gathering in Caloocan, the Katipunan leaders organized themselves into a revolutionary government, and openly declared a nationwide-armed revolution. After a year of bloody fighting with support from the United States to the Philippines, the Spanish signed the truce pact of Biak-na-Bato on December 14, , ending the Philippine Revolution. The Philippine Revolution marked an important turning point in Filipino Nationalism, and was a major cause for the inevitable downfall of Spanish Colonial Rule. The Revolution also led to increased unfriendly relations between the Spanish and Americans, and is believed to have caused the Spanish-American war for territory. After years of Spanish rule, the U. Navy defeated the Spanish Pacific fleet, and the Spaniards surrendered control over the Philippines upon agreeing to sign the Treaty of Paris on December 10, The battle was one of the biggest naval battles in history, and marked the end of the Spanish colonial period in Philippine history. Although not recognized by the United States or Spain, the act of the declaration of independence declared that the Filipinos were free and independent and would begin to have a life of its own, cutting all political ties with Spain. An act of nationalism is seen because despite of not being acknowledged, the people still declared their independence and portrayed themselves as their own nation. They were proud to become their own country. This war, also known as the Philippine War of Independence, was an armed conflict between the United States and Filipino revolutionaries. The war was a continuation of the Philippine struggle for independence that began in with the Philippine Revolution. Fighting erupted between United States and Filipino revolutionary forces on February 4, , and quickly escalated into the Second Battle of Manila. Armed conflict broke out when American troops, under orders to turn away insurgents from their encampment, fired upon a group of Filipinos. This battle marked the beginning of a 3 year Philippine American War. It ended in American victory. The Philippine-American war officially ended on July 4, , in American victory. Under the "Philippine Organic Act", passed by the United States Congress, Filipinos were allowed to vote for some elected officials such as an elected Philippine Assembly. Though American colonial

rule gave the Filipinos more freedom than that of the Spanish, the Filipinos still aimed for complete freedom, and minor fights continued on for several days afterward. The American aircraft was severely damaged in the initial Japanese attack. Manila, declared an open city to prevent its destruction, was occupied by the Japanese on January 2, The remaining 76, American and Filipino defenders, eventually surrendered on April 9, The campaign came to a conclusion on May 8, , with Japanese control over the Philippines. The Philippines had suffered great loss of life and tremendous physical destruction by the time the war was over. An estimated 1 million Filipinos had been killed from all causes.

Chapter 7 : From Conquest to Colonization: Spain in the Marianas

English, French, and Spanish Colonies: A Comparison Spanish Colonies out. Largely a trading economy; some farm-ing in the West. Commerce was con-

Bring fact-checked results to the top of your browser search. The Spanish period Spanish colonial motives were not, however, strictly commercial. The Spanish at first viewed the Philippines as a stepping-stone to the riches of the East Indies Spice Islands , but, even after the Portuguese and Dutch had foreclosed that possibility, the Spanish still maintained their presence in the archipelago. The Portuguese navigator and explorer Ferdinand Magellan headed the first Spanish foray to the Philippines when he made landfall on Cebu in March ; a short time later he met an untimely death on the nearby island of Mactan. The Spanish city of Manila was founded in , and by the end of the 16th century most of the coastal and lowland areas from Luzon to northern Mindanao were under Spanish control. Friars marched with soldiers and soon accomplished the nominal conversion to Roman Catholicism of all the local people under Spanish administration. Ferdinand Magellan, painting, But abusive treatment of the local tribute payers and neglect of religious instruction by encomenderos collectors of the tribute , as well as frequent withholding of revenues from the crown, caused the Spanish to abandon the system by the end of the 17th century. The governor-general, himself appointed by the king, began to appoint his own civil and military governors to rule directly. Central government in Manila retained a medieval cast until the 19th century, and the governor-general was so powerful that he was often likened to an independent monarch. He dominated the Audiencia , or high court, was captain-general of the armed forces, and enjoyed the privilege of engaging in commerce for private profit. Manila dominated the islands not only as the political capital. The galleon trade with Acapulco , Mex. The exchange of Chinese silks for Mexican silver not only kept in Manila those Spanish who were seeking quick profit, but it also attracted a large Chinese community. The Chinese, despite being the victims of periodic massacres at the hands of suspicious Spanish, persisted and soon established a dominance of commerce that survived through the centuries. Manila was also the ecclesiastical capital of the Philippines. The governor-general was civil head of the church in the islands, but the archbishop vied with him for political supremacy. In the late 17th and 18th centuries the archbishop, who also had the legal status of lieutenant governor, frequently won. Augmenting their political power, religious orders, Roman Catholic hospitals and schools, and bishops acquired great wealth, mostly in land. Royal grants and devises formed the core of their holdings, but many arbitrary extensions were made beyond the boundaries of the original grants. The power of the church derived not simply from wealth and official status. The priests and friars had a command of local languages rare among the lay Spanish, and in the provinces they outnumbered civil officials. Thus, they were an invaluable source of information to the colonial government. The cultural goal of the Spanish clergy was nothing less than the full Christianization and Hispanization of the Filipino. In the first decades of missionary work, local religions were vigorously suppressed; old practices were not tolerated. But as the Christian laity grew in number and the zeal of the clergy waned, it became increasingly difficult to prevent the preservation of ancient beliefs and customs under Roman Catholic garb. Thus, even in the area of religion, pre-Spanish Filipino culture was not entirely destroyed. Economic and political institutions were also altered under Spanish impact but perhaps less thoroughly than in the religious realm. The priests tried to move all the people into pueblos, or villages, surrounding the great stone churches. But the dispersed demographic patterns of the old barangays largely persisted. Agricultural technology changed very slowly until the late 18th century, as shifting cultivation gradually gave way to more intensive sedentary farming, partly under the guidance of the friars. The socioeconomic consequences of the Spanish policies that accompanied this shift reinforced class differences. The datus and other representatives of the old noble class took advantage of the introduction of the Western concept of absolute ownership of land to claim as their own fields cultivated by their various retainers, even though traditional land rights had been limited to usufruct. These heirs of pre-Spanish nobility were known as the principalia and played an important role in the friar-dominated local government.

Chapter 8 : History of Equatorial Guinea - Wikipedia

A Spanish Colonial home is characteristically one with its environment, says Lisa Stacholy, of LKS Architects in Atlanta, Ga. The casual dwellings boast thick stuccoed walls, red tile roofs and enclosed courtyards that extend one's living space. "This style dates back to the tail end of the.

Havana was three sailing days away. Yet La Florida maintained the northern flank of protection for the great Spanish gold fleets. Such power could have become dictatorial if the Spanish had not developed clever procedures to oversee colonial officials. By Royal edict, Governors served five years if they came from Europe and three years if they came from another colony. It was, however, not usual for governors to wait several years for their replacements to actually show up. Governors were required to post one-half of their earnings in bond in Spain to pay any heavy fines imposed for incompetence. There was little corruption, because they all feared the residencia. Near the end of a term of office, the Crown sent an undercover agent to evaluate the Governor and the colony. The recommendation from this visita was final. The construction of forts was the most costly item in the colonial budget. The Indians could be bribed to remain peaceful, but English seadogs and pirates plundering individual Spanish ships along the Florida coast would not be tolerated. In 1585, the year after the English attempted to start a colony on Roanoke Island North Carolina, an English fleet under the infamous Sir Francis Drake attacked St Augustine and burnt down most of the houses. This humiliating setback convinced the Spanish to finance a massive fort, Fort San Marcos. The fort did not prevent the city from later burnings, but at least the townsfolk had a place to flee. Still, town and sword politics was a serious concern to most Governors. To improve matters, a town council or junta of town and military leaders helped solve problems. There was little in the rules and restrictions of the Spanish system to promote creative investment. Spanish Florida could not do business with nearby British Georgia. The Spanish bureaucracy always buried Governors in paperwork. The autocratic, centralized Spanish system kept St. Augustine supplied with dispatches and edicts.

Chapter 9 : Spanish Empire - Wikipedia

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Bring fact-checked results to the top of your browser search. The independence of Latin America After three centuries of colonial rule, independence came rather suddenly to most of Spanish and Portuguese America. Between and all of Latin America except the Spanish colonies of Cuba and Puerto Rico slipped out of the hands of the Iberian powers who had ruled the region since the conquest. The rapidity and timing of that dramatic change were the result of a combination of long-building tensions in colonial rule and a series of external events. The reforms imposed by the Spanish Bourbons in the 18th century provoked great instability in the relations between the rulers and their colonial subjects in the Americas. Many Creoles those of Spanish parentage but who were born in America felt Bourbon policy to be an unfair attack on their wealth, political power, and social status. Others did not suffer during the second half of the 18th century; indeed, the gradual loosening of trade restrictions actually benefited some Creoles in Venezuela and certain areas that had moved from the periphery to the centre during the late colonial era. After hundreds of years of proven service to Spain , the American-born elites felt that the Bourbons were now treating them like a recently conquered nation. In cities throughout the region, Creole frustrations increasingly found expression in ideas derived from the Enlightenment. Imperial prohibitions proved unable to stop the flow of potentially subversive English, French, and North American works into the colonies of Latin America. Creole participants in conspiracies against Portugal and Spain at the end of the 18th and the beginning of the 19th century showed familiarity with such European Enlightenment thinkers as Thomas Hobbes , John Locke , Montesquieu, and Jean-Jacques Rousseau. The Enlightenment clearly informed the aims of dissident Creoles and inspired some of the later, great leaders of the independence movements across Latin America. Still, these ideas were not, strictly speaking, causes of independence. Creoles selectively adapted rather than simply embraced the thought that had informed revolutions in North America and France. Leaders in Latin America tended to shy away from the more socially radical European doctrines. Moreover, the influence of those ideologies was sharply restricted; with few exceptions only small circles of educated, urban elites had access to Enlightenment thought. At most, foreign ideas helped foster a more questioning attitude toward traditional institutions and authority. European diplomatic and military events provided the final catalyst that turned Creole discontent into full-fledged movements for Latin American independence. When the Spanish crown entered into an alliance with France in , it set off a series of developments that opened up economic and political distance between the Iberian countries and their American colonies. By siding with France, Spain pitted itself against England , the dominant sea power of the period, which used its naval forces to reduce and eventually cut communications between Spain and the Americas. Spanish Americans now found themselves able to trade legally with other colonies, as well as with any neutral countries such as the United States. Occurrences in Europe in the early 19th century created a deep political divide between Spain and its American colonies. The immediate effect of that concession was to send the Portuguese ruler, Prince Regent John , fleeing in British ships to Brazil. Arriving in Rio de Janeiro with some 15, officials, nobles, and other members of his court, John transformed the Brazilian colony into the administrative centre of his empire. When Napoleon turned on his Spanish allies in , events took a disastrous turn for Spain and its dominion in the Americas. Shortly after Charles had abdicated in favour of his son Ferdinand , Napoleon had them both imprisoned. With these figures of legitimate authority in his power, the French ruler tried to shatter Spanish independence. In the process he set off a political crisis that swept across both Spain and its possessions. The Spanish political tradition centred on the figure of the monarch, yet, with Charles and Ferdinand removed from the scene, the hub of all political authority was missing. Yet the Creoles who participated in the new Cortes were denied equal representation. Moreover, the Cortes would not concede permanent free trade to the Americans and obstinately refused to grant any degree of meaningful autonomy to the overseas dominions. Having had a taste of freedom during their political and economic isolation from the mother country, Spanish Americans did not easily consent to a

reduction of their power and autonomy. Two other European developments further dashed the hopes of Creoles, pushing them more decisively toward independence. The year saw the restoration of Ferdinand to the throne and with it the energetic attempt to reestablish Spanish imperial power in the Americas. Rejecting compromise and reform, Ferdinand resorted to military force to bring wayward Spanish-American regions back into the empire as colonies. The effort only served to harden the position of Creole rebels. That concession divided and weakened loyalist opposition to independence in the Americas. Many supporters of the crown now had doubts about the monarchy for which they were fighting. The wars of independence ,

â€”26 The final victory of Latin American patriots over Spain and the fading loyalist factions began in with the political crisis in Spain. With the Spanish king and his son Ferdinand taken hostage by Napoleon, Creoles and peninsulars began to jockey for power across Spanish America. During â€”10 juntas emerged to rule in the name of Ferdinand VII. In Mexico City and Montevideo caretaker governments were the work of loyal peninsular Spaniards eager to head off Creole threats. Not all of these governments lasted very long; loyalist troops quickly put down Creole-dominated juntas in La Paz and Quito. By , however, the trend was clear. Without denouncing Ferdinand, Creoles throughout most of the region were moving toward the establishment of their own autonomous governments. Transforming these early initiatives into a break with Spanish control required tremendous sacrifice. Over the next decade and a half, Spanish Americans had to defend with arms their movement toward independence. After difficult conquests of their home regions, the two movements spread the cause of independence through other territories, finally meeting on the central Pacific coast. From there, troops under northern generals finally stamped out the last vestiges of loyalist resistance in Peru and Bolivia by . In a British expeditionary force captured Buenos Aires. When the Spanish colonial officials proved ineffective against the invasion, a volunteer militia of Creoles and peninsulars organized resistance and pushed the British out. In May prominent Creoles in Buenos Aires, having vied with peninsulars for power in the intervening years, forced the last Spanish viceroy there to consent to a *cabildo abierto* , an extraordinary open meeting of the municipal council and local notables. Although shielding itself with a pretense of loyalty to Ferdinand, the junta produced by that session marked the end of Spanish rule in Buenos Aires and its hinterland. After its revolution of May , the region was the only one to resist reconquest by loyalist troops throughout the period of the independence wars. Central authority proved unstable in the capital city of Buenos Aires. An early radical liberal government dominated by Mariano Moreno gave way to a series of triumvirates and supreme directors. More troubling still were the bitter rivalries emerging between Buenos Aires and other provinces. At stake was not only political autonomy per se but also economic interest; the Creole merchants of Buenos Aires, who initially sought the liberalization of colonial restraints on commerce in the region, subsequently tried to maintain their economic dominance over the interior. A constituent assembly meeting in adopted a flag , anthem, and other symbols of national identity, but the apparent unity disintegrated soon afterward. Distinct interests and long-standing resentment of the viceregal capital led different regions in the south to pursue separate destinies. By Artigas and this force dominated Uruguay and had allied with other provinces to oppose Buenos Aires. Buenos Aires achieved similarly mixed results in other neighbouring regions, losing control of many while spreading independence from Spain. Other expeditions took the cause to Upper Peru , the region that would become Bolivia. After initial victories there, the forces from Buenos Aires retreated, leaving the battle in the hands of local Creole, mestizo, and Indian guerrillas. The main thrust of the southern independence forces met much greater success on the Pacific coast. After establishing naval dominance in the region, the southern movement made its way northward. Its task, however, was formidable. Having benefited from colonial monopolies and fearful of the kind of social violence that the late 18th-century revolt had threatened, many Peruvian Creoles were not anxious to break with Spain. Final destruction of loyalist resistance in the highlands required the entrance of northern armies. The north and the culmination of independence Independence movements in the northern regions of Spanish South America had an inauspicious beginning in . The small group of foreign volunteers that the Venezuelan revolutionary Francisco de Miranda brought to his homeland failed to incite the populace to rise against Spanish rule. Creoles in the region wanted an expansion of the free trade that was benefiting their plantation economy. At the same time, however, they feared that the removal of Spanish control might bring about a

revolution that would destroy their own power. Creole elites in Venezuela had good reason to fear such a possibility, for a massive revolution had recently exploded in the French Caribbean colony of Saint-Domingue. Beginning in 1791, a massive slave revolt sparked a general insurrection against the plantation system and French colonial power. The rebellion developed into both a civil war, pitting blacks and mulattos against whites, and an international conflict, as England and Spain supported the white plantation owners and rebels, respectively. By the first years of the 19th century, the rebels had shattered what had been a model colony and forged the independent nation of Haiti. Partly inspired by those Caribbean events, slaves in Venezuela carried out their own uprisings in the 1790s. Just as it served as a beacon of hope for the enslaved, Haiti was a warning of everything that might go wrong for elites in the cacao-growing areas of Venezuela and throughout slave societies in the Americas. Creole anxieties contributed to the persistence of strong loyalist factions in the Viceroyalty of New Granada, but they did not prevent the rise of an independence struggle there. Creoles organized revolutionary governments that proclaimed some social and economic reforms in 1793, and in Venezuela they openly declared a break with Spain the following year. Forces loyal to Spain fought the Venezuelan patriots from the start, leading to a pattern in which patriot rebels held the capital city and its surroundings but could not dominate large areas of the countryside. Some saw the earthquake that wreaked particular destruction in patriot-held areas in 1795 as a sign of divine displeasure with the revolution. That year certainly was the onset of a difficult period for the independence cause. With loyalists displaying the same passion and violence, as well as obtaining significant support from the common people of mixed ethnicity, the revolutionists achieved only short-lived victories. By the independence movements in Venezuela and almost all across Spanish South America seemed moribund. The following year a larger and revitalized independence movement emerged, winning the struggle in the north and taking it into the Andean highlands. While laying out sharp criticisms of Spanish colonialism, the document also looked toward the future. Although liberal in some respects, in the Jamaica Letter and elsewhere, he expressed strong doubts about the capacity of his fellow Latin Americans for self-government, revealing his socially conservative and politically authoritarian side. He believed that a virtuous governing system would not be possible if the nation was divided by ethnicity. The Liberator emerged as a strong military and political force in the struggles that began in 1808. At this point he expanded the focus of the movement, shifting his attention to New Granada and courting supporters among the *casta* majority. Consolidating victory in the north proved difficult. Furthermore, loyalist supporters still held much of Venezuela, parts of the Colombian Andes, and all of Ecuador. Still, the tide had turned in favour of independence, and further energetic military campaigns liberated New Granada and Venezuela by 1812. There the southern and northern armies came together in a pincer movement to quash the remaining loyalist strength. From that point on, the northerners took charge of the struggle in Peru and Bolivia. While he organized the government there, his lieutenants set out to win the highlands of Peru and Upper Peru. Within two years independence fighters mopped up the last of loyalist resistance, and South America was free of Spanish control.