

Summary, Conquest of the Americas
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This is the end of the Chronology of the Conquests of the Americas. The inquisition occurred at different times, it was the time when the Catholic Church was persecuting Jews that refused to convert to Christianity. At that time the Catholic Church won the “Five Star Award” for persecuting and sentencing to death many philosophers who had a different scientific view or version of evolution. In fact, in 1633, Italian astronomer Galileo tested the heliocentric theory in the early 17th century and published evidence in support of it. Galileo was persecuted by the Roman Catholic Church for advocating a heretical model, to *abjure* (formally renounce his beliefs) and was sentenced to life imprisonment (swiftly commuted to permanent house arrest). But in 1984 a papal commission acknowledged that the church had been wrong. At least, an apology was given.

In this course I have learned where the Bloody Mary name comes from: It was named after Queen Mary, and the following is a summary of her injustices against the protestants:

“Mary I, the daughter of Catherine of Aragón, restored the Roman Catholic Church and married her cousin, Philip II of Spain. Her burning of almost 300 Protestants made the people hate her and Rome, however, and her marriage led to war with France and the loss of Calais.

At that time, the Catholic Church committed many injustices, and just for an allegation, an accusation without evidence, the Church hierarchy accused people of heresy, thus burning them to the ground, as you well know, the fire extinguishers were not discovered at that time. They had plenty of practice burning people, yet they condemned cremation.

Portugal was the master of the Seas in the 14th-15th century. Subsequently, Spain displaced Portugal and in turn the British displaced Spain under the Queen Elizabeth reign. She was the one that said in a farewell address to her troops on the way to fight the French: “I am a woman but I have the heart and courage of a King.”

1476: Cabot became a naturalized Venetian in 1476, but about eight years later settled in Bristol, England. He had developed a theory that Asia might be reached by sailing westward. This theory appealed to several wealthy merchants of Bristol, who agreed to give him financial support.

1478: Also distinct from the medieval Inquisition, the Spanish Inquisition was established with papal approval in 1478 at the request of King Ferdinand V and Queen Isabella I. This Inquisition was to deal with the problem of Marranos, Jews who through coercion or social pressure had insincerely converted to Christianity.

1492-93: Cabot's voyage came on the heels of Christopher Columbus' first two voyages to the Caribbean in 1492 and 1493.

1493: When reports reached England that Christopher Columbus had made the westward passage to Asia, Cabot and his supporters began to make plans for a more direct crossing to the Orient.

1496: The proposed expedition was authorized, by King Henry VII of England.

1497: With a crew of 18 men, Cabot sailed from Bristol, on the *Matthew*. He steered a generally northwestward course. After a rough voyage, he landed, perhaps on present-day Cape Breton Island; he subsequently sailed along the Labrador, Newfoundland, and New England coasts. Believing that he had reached northeastern Asia, he formally claimed the region for Henry VII. Cabot returned to England in August and was granted a pension. Assured of royal support, he immediately planned a second exploratory voyage that he hoped would bring him to Cipangu (Japan).

Italian navigator John Cabot sailed from England to North America to find a Northwest Passage to Asia. Cabot explored the coasts of present-day Labrador and Newfoundland and New England becoming the first European to sight the land since the Vikings about 500 years earlier.

Ponce de León explored Florida and part of the Yucatán Peninsula in the early 1500s.

1498: The expedition, consisting of four or five ships and 300 men, left Bristol. The fate of this expedition is uncertain. It is believed that in June, Cabot reached the eastern coast of Greenland and sailed northward along the coast until his crews mutinied because of the severe cold and forced him to turn southward. He may have cruised along the coast of North America to Chesapeake Bay at latitude 38° North. He was forced to return to England because of a lack of supplies, and he died soon afterward.

1499: The island of Curacao was visited by the Spanish explorer Alonso de Ojeda.

1500: Gaspar Corte-Real or Gaspar Corterreal (1450?-1501?), Portuguese navigator. Gazpar visited the North American coast at various points between Labrador and southeastern Newfoundland.

1501: Gazpar began another voyage to the same region; although he did not return, two of his vessels came back safely.

1502: His brother Miguel Corte-Real set out to find him and reached the coast of North America, but he too failed to return.

1503: King Manuel of Portugal sent an expedition to learn the fate of the two brothers, but it was unsuccessful. The discovery of Bermuda is attributed to a Spanish navigator, Juan de Bermúdez, who was shipwrecked.

1506: Pope Julius II commissioned Renaissance architect Donato Bramante to design the basilica.

16th Century: Saint Peter's Basilica in the Vatican is a masterpiece of 16th century Italian architecture. Some of Italy's finest artists of the time, including Michelangelo, worked on its design and decoration. Notable features include the central dome, designed by Michelangelo, and the high altar, which according to church tradition stands over the tomb of the apostle Peter. Only the Pope may conduct mass at the high altar.

Although in theory any baptized male can be elected pope, the cardinals have not gone outside their own number since the 16th century. Until then it was not uncommon to elect as pope individuals who had not yet received priestly ordination.

The pope is assisted by an elaborate bureaucracy known as the Curia. After many reorganizations, the Curia still retains the same tripartite structure it was given in the 16th century: (1) congregations (administrative committees), each charged with a specific area of government; (2) tribunals, to handle legal matters; (3) offices, councils, and secretariats, of which the most important now is the secretariat of state, which functions as the chief organ of government to which the others generally report.

1517: The Spanish established it in Sicily, but were unable to do so in Naples and Milan. Historians have noted that many Protestant lands had institutions as repressive as the Spanish Inquisition, such as the consistory in Geneva at the time of the French reformer John Calvin.

1522: The grand inquisitor and his tribunal had jurisdiction over local tribunals in colonies such as Mexico and Peru, which were usually more concerned with sorcery than heresy. Holy Roman Emperor Charles V introduced the Inquisition into the Netherlands in 1522, where it failed to wipe out Protestantism.

1546: Bramante died before completing the church, which was then worked on by several architects until Florentine artist Michelangelo took over the commission.

1609: No settlement was established, however, until 1609, when a party of English colonists under the mariner Sir George Somers sailing for Virginia, was also shipwrecked here.

1612: The island group, known as Somers Islands, was included in the third charter of the Virginia Company, and a second group of English colonists arrived. This charter was revoked in 1684, however, and the islands then became a crown colony.

16th Century: El Dorado (chief) (Spanish, “The Gilded One”), term applied in the Americas by the 16th-century Spanish explorers to the legendary chief of a Native American tribe said to inhabit a region in the northern part of South America. In Native American mythology, the chief was enormously wealthy. At yearly festivals he would cover his entire body with gold dust. The term came to be applied also to his kingdom, supposedly abounding in gold and precious stones.

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1541-42: The most celebrated expedition was that of the Spanish explorer Francisco de Orellana, who went down the Amazon River to its mouth in 1541 and 1542 in an unsuccessful attempt to find the city.

1541: The German adventurer Philip von Hutten led an exploring party from Coro, a German settlement on the Venezuelan coast, and searched as far as the Omagua region, near the Amazon River.

1595: The English explorer Sir Walter Raleigh took up the search and, upon his return to England, published a romantic account of his voyage, in which he described Manoa as being on an island in Parimá Lake, in Guiana.

1518-19: Gustav was born in Lindholmen, Sweden to a noble family, and was educated at the University of Uppsala. As a young man he entered the army, and from 1518 to 1519 he fought against Christian II, king of Denmark, who had invaded Sweden to regain the throne that the Danes had lost in 1501.

1520: Gustav was taken hostage but managed to escape. He was still a fugitive when he heard that Christian had massacred his father and other nationalist Swedish nobles in the Stockholm bloodbath of 1520.

1521-1523: With an army of peasants, Gustav led a successful revolt and drove the Danes out of Sweden.

1397: His victory resulted in the dissolution of the Union of Kalmar, which in had placed Sweden and Norway under the Danish crown.

1521-23: Gustav was administrator of the kingdom from 1521 to 1523, when the *Riksdag*, or national assembly, elected him king. He strengthened his political hold and restored order by

introducing the Reformation into Sweden. The Roman Catholic church had supported Christian II, and Gustav used this as an excuse for stripping the church of political power and confiscating its property.

1527-29: Gustav made Swedish bishops subject to royal power, and in 1529 he proclaimed Lutheranism the state religion.

1537: He joined with Norway to defeat the German city of Lübeck, making Sweden economically independent of the Hanseatic League, a federation of German cities to enhance their commercial interests. Gustav created a strongly united state by introducing a sound financial administration, strengthening manufacturing, trade, and agricultural interests, and increasing the military forces.

1544: Gustav made the Swedish crown hereditary through his line, the house of Vasa. On his death, Gustav was succeeded by his son, Eric XIV.

1519: Hernán Cortés invaded Mexico and subsequently spent several years conquering the Aztecs.

1481: He spent his youth at the court of King Afonso V of Portugal; he later took part in the expedition against the Ottoman Empire that culminated in a Christian victory at Otranto, Italy.

1503 he made his first trip to the East, traveling with a Portuguese fleet around the Cape of Good Hope to India. Three years later King Manuel of Portugal appointed him viceroy of all Portuguese possessions in Asia.

1508-09: His predecessor, Francisco de Almeida, at first refused to give up his office and imprisoned Albuquerque. The new viceroy was eventually released to assume office when a fleet arrived from Portugal to free him.

1510: As viceroy, Albuquerque captured the Indian district of Goa. He went on to complete the conquests of Malabar, Sri Lanka, the Sunda Islands, the peninsula of Malacca, and the island of Hormuz at the entrance to the Persian Gulf. He maintained strict military discipline in the territories under his control but was respected and beloved by his subjects. In spite of his valuable services, Albuquerque was the victim of intrigue at the Portuguese court.

1515: King Manuel, who had become suspicious of him, appointed one of Albuquerque's enemies as his successor. Although he was offered assistance to help him resist Manuel's arbitrary decree, Albuquerque would not violate his allegiance. A few days after receiving notice that he had been superseded, he died at sea off the Malabar Coast near Goa.

1520: He entered the service of Spain and in 1520 accompanied the Spanish soldier Pañfilo de Narváez to Mexico. There Cabrillo joined the conquistador Hernán Cortés and helped him to complete the conquest of Mexico.

1540: Cabrillo served in Guatemala and became chief lieutenant of an expedition exploring the western coast of Mexico.

1541-42: Succeeding to the command of the expedition after the death in 1541 of the leader, Pedro de Alvarado, Cabrillo sailed northward and on September 28, 1542, discovered San Diego Bay. His subsequent discoveries during the voyage include Santa Catalina Island, Santa Barbara Channel, Monterey Bay, and San Miguel Island, where he died.

1543: Juan Rodríguez Cabrillo died, Portuguese explorer and soldier.

1520: During the summer of 1520, Cortés reorganized his army in Tlaxcala with the aid of reinforcements and equipment from Veracruz. He then began his return to the capital, capturing Aztec outposts along the way and subduing Aztec settlements around Lake Texcoco.

May 1521: The island capital of Tenochtitlán was isolated and surrounded by the Spaniards. Spanish artillery mounted on ships specially constructed for the shallow lake bombarded Tenochtitlán. Spanish soldiers launched daily attacks on the city, whose supplies of food and fresh water had been cut. Famine, dysentery, and smallpox ravaged the Aztec defenders.

August 1521: After a desperate siege of three months, Cuauhtémoc, the new emperor, was captured and Tenochtitlán fell. More than 40,000 decomposed bodies littered the destroyed city and bloated corpses floated in canals and the lake. A fabulous city and its empire had been destroyed.

1528: Landmarks include the massive Castillo de San Juan de Ulúa, a fortress begun by the Spanish in 1528 to guard the harbor, and the Plaza de la Constitución, the city's main square since colonial times. A technological institute is here.

1519: The site of Veracruz was first settled by the Spanish, who subsequently abandoned the area; the city was permanently established by them about 1600. It was captured by United States forces in 1847, during the Mexican War.

1860's: The French occupied Veracruz.

1914: The United States landed troops here for a short time- Population (2000) 457,377.

14th Century: It became the capital of the Aztec Empire.

16th Century: When the Spanish conquered it in the early 16th century, Tenochtitlán was one of the largest cities in the world.

13th Century: The Mexica, a Chichimec hunter-gatherer tribe, entered the Valley of Mexico from the north. With land at a premium in the region, they were forced to take refuge on two swampy islets near the western shore of Lake Texcoco. A Mexica legend foretold that they would

establish a powerful civilization in a place where an eagle, perched on a prickly-pear cactus, was eating a snake. Mexica priests proclaimed that they had seen the promised omen.

1325: The Mexica founded Tenochtitlán and Tlatelolco on the islets. To create additional land, they anchored wickerwork baskets on the lake's shallow bottom and piled silt and plant matter onto them, creating artificial islands known as *chinampas*. They further anchored the soil with trees. The Tenocha, as the residents of Tenochtitlán now called themselves, eventually came to control Tlatelolco as well. They soon conspired and fought their way to dominance over other city-states in the valley. The Tenocha eventually took the name *Aztec* after the legendary Aztlán, supposedly their original homeland.

1521: A Spanish army under Hernán Cortés occupied Tenochtitlán in 1521, and razed it, even as the Spaniards marveled at it as the “Venice of the New World,” comparing it to Venice, Italy. Upon its ruins they founded Mexico City. Recent excavations by Mexican archaeologists at the Aztec Templo Mayor yielded the most spectacular findings of this century in Mexico; the site can be visited along with other ruins of the Aztec city. But other remains of the once great Tenochtitlán lie buried beneath Mexico City, one of the most densely populated urban centers in the world.

June 30, 1520: The Spanish and their allies were driven out of the city by a group of Aztecs on a dark, rainy night, the famous *Noche Triste* (“Sad Night”). The Aztecs pursued the retreating Spanish troops.

July 7, 1520: After defeating a very large force of Aztecs, Cortés finally reached Tlaxcala. There, during the summer, he reorganized his army with the aid of some reinforcements and equipment from Vera Cruz. Cortés then began his return to the capital, capturing outlying Aztec outposts on the way.

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Lake Texcoco

1532: Cajamarca, city in northern Peru, capital of Cajamarca Department and Cajamarca has many colonial houses and buildings, including the Church of Santa Catalina and the San Francisco Belén Church, as well as the site where the Inca Emperor Atahualpa was held prisoner after his ambush and capture here by Spanish invaders in 1532. There are numerous Inca ruins nearby. Thermal baths near the city have been used for centuries.

1525: Both Huayna Capac and his appointed heir died within a few days of each other, probably from one of the European diseases that accompanied the arrival of the Spaniards. Their deaths set off a struggle for power between two of Huayna Capac’s remaining sons, Huáscar and Atahualpa.

1532: Civil war weakened the empire until Atahualpa captured Huáscar and ordered his execution. That same year, Spanish explorer Francisco Pizarro and 180 Spanish soldiers landed on the coast of Peru. The Incas at first believed Pizarro to be their creator god Viracocha, just as the Aztecs of Mexico had associated the Spanish explorer Hernán Cortés with their god Quetzalcoatl.

November 15, 1533: Manco Capac II was Crowned Emperor of the Incas Empire. The small Spanish expedition under the conquistador Francisco Pizarro enters the Inca capital of Cuzco, where they are regarded as supporters of Huáscar, the former emperor Atahualpa's rival. Pizarro, however, sets up Huáscar's brother, Manco Capac II, as emperor in December.

APRIL 18, 1536: Manco Capac II Escapes from Cuzco. Manco Capac II, the Spanish puppet ruler of the Inca Empire, flees from the Inca capital of Cuzco. Cuzco is held by the Spanish conquistador Francisco Pizarro's half brothers Hernando, Juan, and Gonzalo.

May 06, 1536: Manco Capac II Leads an Inca Revolt. Manco Capac II, the Spanish puppet ruler of the Inca Empire, leads an assault on the Inca capital of Cuzco, held by Hernando, Juan, and Gonzalo Pizarro, half brothers of the Spanish conquistador Francisco Pizarro. The Spanish are besieged for a year.

APRIL 18, 1537: Civil War Begins Between Conquistadors; a Spanish expedition led by Diego de Almagro relieves Cuzco from its siege by the Inca leader Manco Capac II. Almagro then seizes the city from Hernando Pizarro, starting the civil wars between the conquistadors.

NOVEMBER 1538-OCTOBER 1539: Manco Capac II Founds Vilcabamba; Inca revolts in favor of Manco Capac II are suppressed by the Spanish after initial successes. Manco Capac retreats to the mountains and founds the Inca succession state of Vilcabamba.

DECEMBER 1544: Spanish Faction Kills Manco Capac II; Manco Capac II takes advantage of the civil wars in Spanish Peru to advance on the former Inca capital of Cuzco. While his armies are engaged there, refugee supporters of the Almagro faction of Spanish conquistadors murder Manco Capac II.

1562-67: Hawkins carried cargoes of slaves from the West African coast to the West Indies.

1568: This slave trade was a violation of Spanish laws, and in 1568, as Hawkins was preparing to return to England, he was attacked by a Spanish fleet in the harbor off Veracruz, Mexico. Hawkins managed to escape with two ships, but the attack convinced him that war with Spain was inevitable.

1570: Hawkins pretended to betray Queen Elizabeth I of England to the Spanish in order to gain information about the proposed Spanish invasion of England.

1571: He entered Parliament and later served as treasurer and comptroller of the navy. He used his position to prepare the English navy for war with Spain, making a number of important improvements in ship construction and rigging and increasing the size of the fleet.

1588: Hawkins served as rear admiral in command of the *Victory* during the defeat of the Spanish Armada and was knighted for his service.

1590: Hawkins made an unsuccessful voyage to the Azores in search of the Spanish silver fleet. He died on an expedition to the West Indies.

1544-65: Martin Frobisher was apprenticed as a cabin boy in 1544, his skills and daring as a seaman brought him a steady rise in rank, and by 1565 he had become a captain.

1576: Frobisher was placed in command of an expedition to the New World, the first attempt by an Englishman to search for the Northwest Passage.

June 7, 1576: Frobisher set sail with three small ships, the *Gabriel*, the *Michael*, and a Pinnace that was lost in a storm. The *Michael* deserted soon afterward and the *Gabriel* continued alone, sighting the mouth of what is now known as Frobisher Bay on Baffin Island—and mistaking it for the entrance to the Northwest Passage—a little more than a month after starting out on the voyage.

1577: Frobisher returned to Canada with another fleet outfitted by Queen Elizabeth I of England. Both this expedition and a subsequent voyage were unsuccessful in finding valuable ore or in establishing colonies, but Frobisher continued in the favor of the queen.

1585: As vice admiral on the *Primrose*, he participated in an expedition to the West Indies to raid its Spanish colonies, led by the English seaman and adventurer Sir Francis Drake.

1588: Frobisher was knighted for his valiant role in the defeat of the Spanish Armada.

1591-92: Frobisher settled in Yorkshire, but soon tired of country life, and in 1592 he commanded a fleet outfitted by Sir Walter Raleigh to harry (caused distress by repeated attacks) Spanish merchant ships bringing gold from Panama.

November 1594, engaged in the relief of Fort Crozon near Brest, France, against Spanish forces, Frobisher was mortally wounded and died on November 22, 1594, in Plymouth, England.

1562-66: Gilbert saw active service (1562-64) in France during the French religious wars and in 1566 was commissioned a captain in the English army in Ireland.

1569: Golbert was appointed governor of Munster, Ireland, and in the following year was knighted.

1571-72: Gilbert served (1571) in Parliament and was sent (1572) to the Netherlands with an English force in an unsuccessful attempt to aid the Dutch Protestant revolt against Spain.

1572-78: Gilbert spent the period from 1572 to 1578 in retirement, mainly engaged in writing.

1566: As early as 1566, and again a year later, he petitioned Queen Elizabeth I of England to be allowed to seek a northeast or northwest passage to the Orient. In consequence, during his period of literary activity his most important production was *A Discourse of a Discovery for a New Passage to Cataia* (1576).

1578: Gilbert's efforts were finally rewarded by a royal charter granting the privileges of exploration and colonization in North America. Gilbert and Raleigh fitted out an expedition the same year, but their ships were dispersed by the Spanish off the coast of Africa, and they were forced to return.

1583: A second expedition sailed from Plymouth and, after a voyage of 50 days, reached Newfoundland, where Gilbert founded the first English colony in America near the present city of St. John's. The colonists were mutinous, however, and the expedition returned to England.

On the return voyage, Gilbert sailed in the small 9-metric-ton frigate, the *Squirrel*, rather than in his 36-metric-ton flagship, the *Golden Hind*.

September 1583: In a storm off the Azores, the *Squirrel* was lost.

1567: He served an apprenticeship as a mariner, he was given his first command. His ship, the *Judith*, was one of a squadron of vessels led by a kinsman of Drake, the English navigator Sir John Hawkins, on a slave-trading voyage in the Gulf of Mexico.

All but two ships of the expedition were lost when attacked by a Spanish squadron.

1570-1571: Drake made two profitable trading voyages to the West Indies.

1572: Drake commanded two vessels in a marauding expedition against Spanish ports in the Caribbean Sea. During this voyage, Drake first saw the Pacific Ocean; he captured the port of Nombre de Dios on the Isthmus of Panama and destroyed the nearby town of Portobelo.

He returned to England with a cargo of Spanish silver and a reputation as a brilliant privateer.

1573-76: Drake was sent next to Ireland to help quell the rebellion there.

1577: Drake was secretly commissioned by Elizabeth I, queen of England, to undertake an expedition against the Spanish colonies on the Pacific coast of the New World.

December 13, 1577: With five ships and 166 men, Drake set sail from Plymouth, England. After crossing the Atlantic Ocean, two of the ships had to be abandoned in the Río de la Plata estuary of South America.

August 1578: The three remaining ships left the Atlantic Ocean and entered the Strait of Magellan at the southern tip of the South American continent.

Sixteen days later they sailed into the Pacific Ocean. A series of violent storms, lasting more than 50 days, destroyed one ship. Another sailed back to England. Drake, blown far south, sailed on in his flagship, the *Golden Hind*.

July 23, 1579: Drake set sail again, this time heading westward across the Pacific Ocean.

November, 1579: Drake reached the Moluccas, a group of islands in the southwest Pacific.

September 1580: Drake stopped at Sulawesi (Celebes) and Java, islands of Indonesia, rounded the Cape of Good Hope at the southern tip of Africa, and reached England.

Bearing a rich cargo of spices and captured Spanish treasure, he was hailed as the first Englishman to circumnavigate the world. Seven months later he was knighted aboard the *Golden Hind* by Queen Elizabeth.

1581-85: Drake became mayor of Plymouth in 1581 and served as a member of Parliament in 1584 and 1585.

Late 1585: Drake sailed again with a large fleet for the West Indies. He raided many Spanish settlements, including Saint Augustine in present-day Florida. Before returning, he put in at the first English colony in the New World, on Roanoke Island, off the coast of what is now North Carolina, and brought the unsuccessful colonists back to England.

According to tradition, Drake introduced tobacco to England as a result of this visit to North America.

1587: War with Spain was recognized as imminent, and Drake was dispatched by the queen to destroy the fleet being assembled by the Spanish in the harbor of Cádiz. He accomplished most of his purpose and in the following year served as vice admiral of the English fleet that defeated the rebuilt Spanish Armada.

1589: Drake was unsuccessful in an expedition designed to destroy the few remaining Spanish ships. He returned to Plymouth and to Parliament.

1595: The queen (Elizabeth I) sent Drake and Hawkins on an expedition against the Spanish forces in the West Indies. This mission as well was a failure. Both Drake and Hawkins contracted dysentery in the Caribbean, and their bodies were buried at sea.

He made three voyages in search of a northwest passage from Europe to the Indies in 1585 and the two succeeding years. During the last of these voyages he explored the west coast of Greenland as far north as 73° latitude, passing through the strait, which was named after him, between Greenland and Baffin Island.

1588-91: Davis commanded a ship in the battle against the Spanish Armada, and in 1591 he sailed with the English navigator Thomas Cavendish on an expedition to the South Seas, during which Davis discovered the Falkland Islands (Islas Malvinas).

He sailed on several more long voyages, during the last of which he was killed by Japanese pirates near the present site of Singapore. Davis was the inventor of a navigational instrument that became known as the Davis quadrant, which long remained in use, and he was the author of several works on navigation.

1578: Raleigh sailed to America with his half brother, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, a voyage that may have stimulated his plan to found an English empire there.

1585: Raleigh sponsored the first English colony in America on Roanoke Island in present-day North Carolina. The colony failed, as did another one in 1587.

1595: His explorations in South America fared little better; his search in 1595 in what is now Guyana for El Dorado, the city of gold, achieved no practical success.

Raleigh first came to Queen Elizabeth's attention through his work in Ireland, where he went in 1580 to help suppress a rebellion. He used his Irish experiences to pose as an expert on Irish affairs in London, and became the queen's favorite. He was soon knighted, and became one of the most powerful figures in England.

1592: Temporarily fell from the queen's favor when she discovered in 1592 that he had secretly married one of her maids of honor. His eventual return to power in the last years of Elizabeth was short-lived; her successor, James I, disliked Raleigh.

1603: Raleigh was accused of plotting against the king and was convicted and sentenced to death. King James, however, commuted the sentence to life imprisonment, and Raleigh was sent to the Tower of London, where he remained for the next 13 years.

During his imprisonment he completed the first volume of his *History of the World* (1614), which, with his other works—several poems, *The Last Fight of the Revenge* (1591), and *The Discovery of Guiana* (1596)—gave him an important place among Elizabethan intellectuals. He became a hero to the heir to the throne, Prince Henry, who tried to secure Raleigh's release from prison.

1612: Prince Henry's death in 1612, so frustrated Raleigh that he proposed to give King James a fortune in gold if the king would allow him to return to Guiana. James agreed on the condition that no offense be given to the Spanish.

1616: The expedition was a disaster. In Guiana, Raleigh sent his son and an aide to search for El Dorado. They attacked a Spanish settlement, and his son was killed.

1603: Raleigh returned to England, where King James invoked the death sentence.

October 29, 1618: Raleigh was beheaded.

1577-80: Thomas Cavendish (circa 1560-c. 1592), English navigator and buccaneer, the third circumnavigator of the globe. Cavendish sought to retrace the exploits of the English navigator Sir Francis Drake.

1586: Setting out, he founded Port Desire (now Puerto Deseado, Argentina), sailed through the Straits of Magellan, and plundered Spanish settlements and ships as far north as California. The voyage was completed in 2 years, 50 days. Cavendish died while attempting a second circumnavigation.

1601: John Smith (colonizer) (1579?-1631), English colonizer in North America who helped establish Jamestown, Virginia, the first permanent English settlement. Turks captured Smith and sold him into slavery, from which he later escaped.

1604: Smith had returned to England, where he became a member of the London Company's colony council.

December 1606: Smith and the rest of the colonial expedition set sail for America. During the voyage he was accused of conspiracy, although the charges against him were dropped. Smith was one of seven men chosen to be on the governing Council of Virginia by the London Company.

June 1607: He was formally sworn in as Councillor.

May 1607: The expedition founded the settlement named Jamestown. The colonists fared badly, suffering from famine, disease, and attacks by the natives.

December 1607: George Kendall, the leader of the council of Jamestown, was shot for mutiny.

1608: Smith was chosen president of the colony. Smith insisted that all the colonists work, declaring: "He that will not work shall not eat, except by sickness he be disabled." The colony survived, but Smith's strict leadership resulted in uneasy relations with some of the colonizers, especially members of the gentry who were not used to hard labor.

1608-09: Smith was president of the Jamestown colony for this period, when he returned to England after being badly burned in an accident.

1614: Smith returned to America and led an expedition that explored and mapped the coast of New England, which he named. He returned to England with valuable furs and fish. Once back in England, Smith was a prolific writer and an ardent supporter of English colonization in America.

1609: John Rolfe (1585-1622), English colonist of Jamestown, Virginia, who was married to Pocahontas, the younger daughter of the Native American chief Powhatan. Rolfe sailed to America with the expedition led by English navigator Sir George Somers.

1610: Rolfe reached Virginia and became a planter. Rolfe cultivated the strain of tobacco that became Virginia's staple crop—exports of tobacco to England provided economic stability for the colony.

1614: Rolfe, a widower, married Pocahontas. Their marriage brought a time of peace between the colonists and Native Americans that lasted for eight years.

1616: The couple, with their infant son, went to England. Pocahontas received a royal reception, but she became ill and died the following year.

1621: Rolfe returned to Virginia, where in 1621 he became a member of the colony's first Council of State.

1622: Rolfe was killed in the massacre of 1622.

1608: Pocahontas, (1595?-1617), daughter of the Native American chief Powhatan. She was born in Virginia. Her real name was Matoaka; the name *Pocahontas* means “playful one.” According to a legend, Pocahontas saved the life of Captain John Smith by holding his head in her arms as he was about to be clubbed to death by her father's warriors. Many historians doubt the story, which is not found in Smith's detailed personal narrative written at the time. The story first appeared in Smith's *Generall Historie of Virginia* (1624).

1613 Pocahontas was captured by the English and taken to Jamestown. She became a convert to Christianity and took the name Rebecca.

1614: Pocahontas she married John Rolfe, one of the colonists, with the blessings of both the governor and her father. Eight years of peace between the Native Americans and the English followed the marriage.

1615: Pocahontas had her first child, Thomas, and the following year the family went to England. She met the king and queen of England and was received with royal honor. On the eve

of her return to Virginia, Pocahontas died of smallpox and was buried in the chapel of the parish church in Gravesend, England. Her son was educated in England, but returned to Virginia and became an important settler; many prominent Virginians claim to be his descendants.

1666: Jacques Marquette, known as Père Marquette (1637-75), French missionary and explorer in America, born in Laon, in northern France.

He landed at Québec in the New World and passed the next 18 months studying indigenous languages.

1668-71: He founded a mission at Sault Sainte Marie (now in Michigan) in 1668 and served at La Pointe (now in Wisconsin) from 1669 to 1671.

The Sioux forced him to flee to Mackinac (now in Michigan), where he founded a mission at Point Saint Ignace (now Saint Ignace).

Mid 1673: French-Canadian explorer Louis Joliet and French missionary Jacques Marquette began a journey to explore the Mississippi River. They traveled south until reaching a point below the mouth of the Arkansas River, where they headed north and returned to Canada.

He was visited there by the French explorer Louis Joliet, who invited him to take part in an expedition to chart the Mississippi River.

May 1673: Joined by five others, they set sail for the Mississippi River.

June 17, 1673: They entered the Mississippi and were the first Europeans to travel on the river. Marquette later worked as a missionary among the Illinois peoples.

1681: His account of the Mississippi journey was posthumously published.

1666: Robert Cavalier de la Salle (1643-1687), French explorer in North America, who navigated the length of the Mississippi River and claimed the Louisiana region for France.

Réne-Robert Cavalier, Sieur de La Salle settled in Canada. La Salle received a land grant near Montréal and entered the fur trade. He also began exploring the North American continent.

1682: During an expedition on the Mississippi River, La Salle claimed the entire Mississippi Valley for France, naming the territory Louisiana.

Corbis

René-Robert Cavalier, Sieur de La Salle was born on November 22, 1643, in Rouen, France, and educated by the Jesuits.

1666: He immigrated to Canada, was granted land on the St. Lawrence River, and became a trader.

1669-1670: He explored the region south of Lakes Ontario and Erie.

1671: La Salle later claimed to have discovered the Ohio River. In the course of his explorations in the wilderness, La Salle became familiar with indigenous languages and traditions. Because of his capabilities, French colonial governor Louis de Buade, comte de Palluau et de Frontenac, appointed him commander of Fort Frontenac, then being built as a trading station.

1674: La Salle was sent to France as Frontenac's representative to justify the building of the fort. His mission was successful, and he received a patent of nobility.

1677: La Salle subsequently conceived a plan for exploring and trading farther west, and again visited France to secure royal approval of his scheme. He returned with Italian explorer Henri de Tonty, who became his associate.

1679-80: He set out on a preliminary expedition in 1679, and after establishing forts at the mouth of the Saint Joseph River and along the Illinois River, in February 1680, he sent a group to explore the upper Mississippi River.

1682: La Salle then returned to Fort Frontenac to procure new supplies and funds. By spring he was able to travel west again, and he and Tonty proceeded with their party of French and indigenous peoples to the Mississippi, which they descended to the Gulf of Mexico, claiming all the land drained by the river for Louis XIV, king of France, and naming the region Louisiana. La Salle subsequently commenced construction of forts in the new territory.

Late 1682: When Frontenac was recalled to France later in 1682, however, La Salle's rivals succeeded in turning the new governor against him.

1683: Journeying to France in 1683, La Salle made a successful appeal to the king, who commended him for his discoveries and named him viceroy of North America.

1684: He sailed from France with a fleet of four ships on an expedition to establish a colony at the mouth of the Mississippi River. When he reached the Gulf of Mexico he was unable to find the Mississippi, and landed on the shore of what is now Matagorda Bay, Texas, believing the bay to be the western outlet of the Mississippi. After several fruitless searches by land for the mouth of the river, La Salle realized his mistake.

January 1687: La Salle set out for Canada with a party of 17 men to procure help for the few members left of the original expedition. His men mutinied, however, and he was killed near the Trinity River.

1686: One of La Salle's supply ships, the *Belle* was sank during a storm and was discovered in Matagorda Bay in 1995.

1668: Louis Joliet (1645-1700), French-Canadian explorer, who led an expedition to explore the upper Mississippi River with Jesuit missionary Jacques Marquette. He also studied briefly in France, but in 1668, upon his return to New France (France's North American colonial empire), he abandoned the church to become a trader among the indigenous peoples.

1669: Joliet met Jacques Marquette.

1672: Joliet, already familiar with the region, was chosen to lead an expedition in search of the upper reaches of the Mississippi River. Father Marquette was named chaplain for the party.

May 17, 1673: The expedition, joined by five woodsmen, left Saint Ignace (now in Michigan). They crossed Lake Michigan, ascended the Fox River, and descended the Wisconsin River.

June 17, 1673: The expedition entered the Mississippi River. The party then followed the Mississippi southward to a point below the mouth of the Arkansas River before turning back.

1674: Marquette remained at Lake Michigan while Joliet continued on to Québec, reaching it in 1674. On the return portion of the voyage Joliet lost his records in a canoe accident, but he replaced them from memory. Later Joliet explored in the region of Labrador and Hudson Bay.

1697: He was appointed royal hydrographer of New France.

1624: Smith organized trade with the Native Americans and led expeditions to explore and map the region surrounding Jamestown. On one of these expeditions he was captured by the Native American chief Powhatan, and, according to his account in a book he published in 1624, he was saved from being put to death by the chief's daughter, Pocahontas. This adventure has become part of American folklore.

15th century: As the dominant group within the Inca Empire, the Quechua spread their language and culture throughout the Andes region during the 15th century.

Early 1400s: Many people mistakenly assume that the Inca Empire spread the Quechua culture throughout the Andes region. In fact, Quechua culture originated in central Peru at least a thousand years before the rise of the Inca Empire in the early 1400s. Most scholars believe that the Quechua language spread up and down the Andes as a *lingua franca*, or trade language, long before the Inca adopted it.

17th-18th Centuries: The Quechua language was widely written using the Roman alphabet. Most Quechua writings were used for religious purposes in the Roman Catholic Church. A few Quechua writers authored books of their own. The best known of these authors, Felipe Guaman Poma de Ayala, wrote a 1,000-page illustrated chronicle detailing Quechua folkways and history.

1700's: Andean peoples launched innumerable revolts against Spanish rule during the 1700s.

1780: The rebellion, led by a wealthy Cuzco native, Tupac Amarú II, posed a serious military challenge to Spain. After the Spanish suppressed this rebellion, they banned Quechua language and culture from politics and education.

1820s: The Spanish colonies of South America rebelled against Spain and succeeded in establishing themselves as independent republics. These new Andean republics did little to change conditions for the Quechua people.

1834: The Inquisition was finally suppressed in Spain.

1975: Peru recognized Quechua, alongside Spanish, as an official language. Quechua is one of the few native languages of the Americas to receive such official recognition. Nonetheless, many Peruvians still look down upon Quechua culture and language.

1980s: A Maoist guerrilla group, known as the Shining Path, killed many Quechua as part of its terrorist campaign to topple the Peruvian government. The Peruvian government forces sent to fight the Shining Path in the highlands committed similar atrocities in the Quechua zones and elsewhere. This wave of violence spurred the Quechua to develop new forms of political self-defense, such as village militias.

1952: In Bolivia, Quechua peasants played a leading role in the 1952 revolution that led to sweeping changes in that country's political and economic affairs. Bolivia's Native American majority has remained strongly mobilized.

1990: In Ecuador, a confederation of Native American groups, including the Quechua, staged a nonviolent uprising to reclaim their land and cultural rights.

Many Quechua leaders have participated in pan-Andean meetings designed to foster multiculturalism and feelings of Quechua solidarity across national boundaries.

2003: A government-appointed Truth and Reconciliation Commission found that 75 percent of those killed in Peru during the Shining Path insurgency were Quechua-speaking Indians. The commission estimated the total death toll at nearly 70,000, twice as many as previously believed.

15th Century: The Aymara inhabit the high plateau region near Lake Titicaca, which borders both Peru and Bolivia. Despite contact with European cultures, the Aymara have maintained much of their own culture. Aymaran music is primarily instrumental. Because the Aymara were conquered and absorbed by the Inca Empire about the late 15th century, much of the music of this group is based around the Inca *pentatonic* (five-tone) scale.

This example illustrates the combination of traditional Aymaran music with European stringed instruments. It is taken from a composition called “Song of the Condor.” The condor is a powerful symbol among the Aymara, and its appearance is a good omen for all.

1634: Curaçao remained a Spanish possession until 1634, when it was seized by the Dutch.

1815: The island subsequently changed hands between the Dutch and English several times but was awarded to the Netherlands in 1815.

1939-45: During World War II (1939-1945), after Germany invaded the Netherlands, French and British troops reinforced Dutch defenses on the island.

1942: The United States assumed full responsibility for the defense of Curaçao and the other Dutch islands for the duration of the war.

1960: During the late 1960s Curaçao was the scene of much racial strife and general unrest. Area, 444 sq km (171 sq mi); population (1991) 143,816.

Avis Dynasty (Portugal)

1521-1557: Under John III (reigned 1521-1557), Avis Dynasty of Portugal, Manuel’s son, the resources of the state proved inadequate to meet Portugal’s obligations. The French, and later the English, increasingly challenged Portugal’s trading monopoly, and revenues declined as prices for Asian goods fell in Europe.

At the same time, the enormous costs of mounting expeditions and manning a chain of posts and bases from Brazil to China burdened the Portuguese crown with debts. Portugal’s extravagant court drained national resources, and few funds were invested in internal development.

John III encouraged the colonization of Brazil, which rapidly became the center of a new trade in sugar. However, the exuberant days of Portugal’s expansion and conquest were over.

John’s reign coincided with the emergence of the Counter Reformation, the Roman Catholic response to the Protestant Reformation in Europe.

16th Century: The Counter Reformation reached Portugal in the first decades of the 16th century.

1531: John III introduced the Inquisition in Portugal—a key tool of the Counter Reformation to enforce religious uniformity and root out heresy. The Jesuits, a religious order founded to promote the cause and teachings of Catholicism, gained influence with the crown and over education, and began missionary work in Portugal’s overseas possessions.

1557: By the time John III died, Portugal was in decline as a political and commercial power.

1578: This trend continued under Sebastian, John's son, who in 1578 organized an army to fight Muslims in Morocco. Sebastian and most of the Portuguese army perished at the hands of the superior Muslim forces, leaving Portugal largely defenseless and without an heir to the throne.

1580: The crown fell to Sebastian's aged uncle, Henry. At Henry's death in 1580 the Avis dynasty came to an end.

12th Century: Arab mariners reached the group of the Canary islands.

1334: The Canary Islands was visited by French navigators.

1344: Pope Clement VI awarded the islands to Castile.

1402-1404: The French mariner Jean de Bethencourt began the conquest of the islands in 1402 and was made king of the Canaries in 1404 by the Castilian ruler Henry III.

1479: Claimed by Portugal, the islands were recognized as Spanish possessions by a treaty negotiated in 1479.

Late 1490'S: Spanish conquest of the islands was completed. The indigenous population, the Guanche, a Berber people, eventually became extinct.

1927: The Canaries, previously a single province, were divided into two provinces. Area, 7,447 sq km (2,875 sq mi); population (2003) 1,894,868.

Late 15th Century: Those of the Lesser Antilles were subjugated in fighting with the Carib peoples.

16th Century: The Arawak population in the West Indies fell from a probable 2 to 3 million to a few thousand by the early 16th century; by the end of that century, island Arawak were extinct. This catastrophic mortality rate was due to the introduction of European diseases, damage to the Arawak's food supplies, and Spanish brutality and enslavement.

Before the Spanish conquest, the large-island ecologies, offering bountiful harvests and abundant fish, combined with the compact and stable island populations, permitted the development of an elaborate political and social structure. A class of hereditary chiefs ruled three other classes, the lowest of which was composed of slaves. Conflict between classes was apparently minimal. In this matrilineal society, rulers were succeeded by their eldest sister's eldest son. Religion offered a hierarchy of deities parallel to the social structure.

The Arawak tribes of South America better survived European contact because their groups were smaller and more scattered. Their social structure was also matrilineal but much less complex. Mainland Arawak traded with the Dutch and English.

17th-18th centuries: They made a transition to plantation agriculture.

20th century: The existing Arawak began to accept wage-paying jobs as a supplement to farming, hunting, and fishing. Although their present-day culture reflects various non-Arawak influences, this group has been noted since pre-Columbian times as skilled potters, weavers, and wood- and metalworkers.

1518: Governor Velázquez sponsored another expedition, this time under the command of his nephew, Juan de Grijalva. The Spaniards returned to Champóton, where they avenged the defeat of the previous expedition, forcing the Maya to retreat inland after three days of fierce fighting.

The expedition continued exploring the Gulf Coast, eventually encountering friendly Mayan-speaking peoples who told the Spaniards of a powerful empire to the west. Although the Spaniards did not realize it, they had reached the outer limits of the Aztec Empire.

1501-1502: The isthmus is said to have been discovered by Spanish explorer Rodrigo de Bastidas in 1501, but the first exploration was made in 1502 by Christopher Columbus, who entered what is now Portobelo and established a colony there.

September 26, 1513: The Spanish explorer Vasco Núñez de Balboa crossed the isthmus to discover the Pacific Ocean.

16th Century: Hernando de Alarcón flourished during this period, Spanish navigator and explorer in America.

May 9, 1540: Alarcón sailed to the head of the Gulf of California and completed the explorations begun by the Spanish explorer Francisco de Ulloa in the preceding year.

During this voyage Alarcón proved to his satisfaction that no open-water passage existed between the Gulf of California and the South Sea, or Pacific Ocean. Subsequently he entered the Colorado River, which he named the Buena Guía. He was the first European to ascend the river for a distance considerable enough to make important observations.

On a second voyage he probably proceeded past the present site of Yuma, Arizona. A map drawn by one of Alarcón's pilots is the earliest accurately detailed representation of the gulf and the lower course of the river.

1526: A Spanish scouting expedition first landed on the coast of what is now Ecuador, led by Bartolomé Ruiz.

1532: Spanish conquistadores under Francisco Pizarro invaded the country and two years later were in control of the area.

1540: Pizarro, acting in the name of the Spanish crown, appointed his brother Gonzalo governor of Quito. A short time later Francisco Pizarro was assassinated, and Gonzalo Pizarro led a rebellion against Spain.

1548: Gonzalo Pizarro independent rule lasted until this year, when forces of the Crown defeated his army at Jaqui-jaguana and he was executed.

29th August, 1533: The doom of the Inca was proclaimed by sound of trumpet [sic] in the great square of Caxamalca; and, two hours after sunset, the Spanish soldiery assembled by torch-light in the *plaza* to witness the execution of the sentence.

Atahualpa was led out chained hand and foot,—for he had been kept in irons ever since the great excitement had prevailed in the army respecting an assault.

Father Vicente de Valverde was at his side, striving to administer consolation, and, if possible, to persuade him at this last hour to abjure his superstition and embrace the religion of his Conquerors.

He was willing to save the soul of his victim from the terrible expiation in the next world, to which he had so cheerfully consigned his mortal part in this.

1539: The first European to visit the river was probably Spanish soldier and explorer Francisco de Ulloa, who explored the mouth of the Colorado.

1540-1541: Another Spaniard, Francisco Vásquez de Coronado, traveled through much of the region around the Colorado River. An exploring party from the Coronado expedition, led by Garcia López de Cárdenas, was probably the first group of Europeans to view the Grand Canyon.

1540: The viceroy of Mexico also sent Hernando de Alarcón, a navigator, to supply Coronado by sea. Alarcón failed to locate Coronado's party but traversed parts of the Colorado River with his own men, twice making the difficult passage from the river's mouth to the vicinity of the Gila River, near present-day Yuma, Arizona.

1531: The first European to penetrate the continental interior successfully was Spanish conquistador Francisco Pizarro. Pushing southward from Panama, he invaded the gold-rich empire of the Inca.

1535: The conquest and colonization of the region bordering the Río de la Plata were begun in 1535 by Spanish soldier Pedro de Mendoza.

1536: Pedro de Mendoza founded a settlement at Buenos Aires.

1536-1538: Spanish soldier Gonzalo Jiménez de Quesada subjugated the Chibcha and founded the Audiencia of New Granada (present-day Colombia).

1539: Gonzalo Pizarro, brother of Francisco, crossed the Andes and arrived at the upper reaches of the Amazon River.

1542: One of his companions, Francisco de Orellana, followed the river down to its mouth, reaching the Atlantic Ocean in 1542. In the previous year conquistador Pedro de Valdivia began the systematic subjugation of the Araucanian, the native people of Chile.

1541: Valdivia founded Santiago. Meanwhile (about 1530) the Portuguese had begun to establish settlements along the coast of the eastern bulge of South America.

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1578: Raleigh sailed to America with his half brother, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, a voyage that may have stimulated his plan to found an English empire there.

1585-87: Raleigh sponsored the first English colony in America on Roanoke Island in present-day North Carolina. The colony failed, as did another one in 1587.

1595: His explorations in South America fared little better; his search in 1595 in what is now Guyana for El Dorado, the city of gold, achieved no practical success.

1580: Raleigh first came to Queen Elizabeth's attention through his work in Ireland, where he went to help suppress a rebellion. He used his Irish experiences to pose as an expert on Irish affairs in London, and became the queen's favorite. He was soon knighted, and became one of the most powerful figures in England.

1592: Raleigh temporarily fell from the queen's favor when she discovered that he had secretly married one of her maids of honor. His eventual return to power in the last years of Elizabeth was short-lived; her successor, James I, disliked Raleigh.

1603: Raleigh was accused of plotting against the king and was convicted and sentenced to death. King James, however, commuted the sentence to life imprisonment, and Raleigh was sent to the Tower of London, where he remained for the next 13 years.

1614: During his imprisonment he completed the first volume of his *History of the World* (1614), which, with his other works—several poems, *The Last Fight of the Revenge* (1591), and *The Discovery of Guiana* (1596)—gave him an important place among Elizabethan intellectuals.

He became a hero to the heir to the throne, Prince Henry, who tried to secure Raleigh's release from prison.

1612: Prince Henry's death in 1612 so frustrated Raleigh that he proposed to give King James a fortune in gold if the king would allow him to return to Guiana. James agreed on the condition that no offense be given to the Spanish.

1616: The expedition was a disaster. In Guiana, Raleigh sent his son and an aide to search for El Dorado. They attacked a Spanish settlement, and his son was killed. Raleigh returned to England, where King James invoked the death sentence of 1603; Raleigh was beheaded on October 29, 1618.

18th-Century: German physician and chemist Georg Ernst Stahl coined the word *animism* to describe his theory that the soul is the vital principle responsible for organic development.

Late 19th Century: The term has been mainly associated with anthropology and the British anthropologist Sir Edward Burnett Tylor, who described the origin of religion and primitive beliefs in terms of animism.

In *Primitive Culture* (1871) Tylor defined animism as the general belief in spiritual beings and considered it “a minimum definition of religion.” He asserted that all religions, from the simplest to the most complex, involve some form of animism.

16th Century: A large population of Bantu, Yoruba, and Dahomen were brought to Brazil as slaves. The religious beliefs of these West African groups merged with the enforced doctrines of Catholicism, allowing them to worship their own gods under the guise of the slaveholders' religion.

1642: Martha's Vineyard, island, Dukes County, southeastern Massachusetts, separated from Cape Cod by Vineyard Sound. It measures 280 sq km (110 sq mi) in area. It is noted as a summer resort. Edgartown, the chief town, was a whaling center. The island, which still shows traces of colonial life, was settled in 1642.

April 3, 1559: Treaty of Cateau-Cambrésis, peace treaty signed in Cateau-Cambrésis (now Le Cateau), France, by Henry II of France and Philip II of Spain. The treaty ended the Italian wars, a series of wars which had been fought intermittently for more than a century over conflicting territorial claims.

The treaty was also signed by England, who had fought briefly as an ally to Spain. By the terms of the treaty, France returned most of its Italian conquests, including Piedmont (Piemonte) and Savoy which it had taken from Spain.

Against the claims of the English, France retained the port of Calais and the bishoprics of Toul, Verdun, and Metz. The treaty reaffirmed Spanish control over the greater part of the Italian Peninsula.

16th Century: Creole (people), term first used in the 16th century in Latin America to distinguish the offspring of European settlers from those born elsewhere and from Native Americans. In colonial America the designation originally applied to any American-born descendant of a non-native person. The term—a French word believed to come from the Spanish *criollo*, which means “native”—has since acquired varying meanings in different regions and periods of history.

19th century: Creoles were generally classified into two groups: white Creoles and Creoles of color. White Creoles were the descendants of early French, Spanish, or German settlers. Creoles of color were of mixed African and European heritage. Historically, Creoles of color differentiated themselves from African Americans, although the two cultures have integrated somewhat over time. Today, Creoles of color are sometimes known as Afro-Creoles.

Juana Inés de la Cruz

17th-century : Juana Inés de la Cruz (1648?-1695), Mexican poet and scholar, whose ingenious, eloquent, and expressive verse established her as the outstanding poet of colonial Latin America for this century.

1667: She retired from court life to become a nun. Some biographers have attributed her retirement to an unhappy love affair, but she declared that only the monastic life permitted her sufficient opportunity to carry on her intellectual pursuits.

As a nun, Juana de la Cruz studied theology, literature, history, music, and science, and in the process acquired a vast library. She corresponded with many leading poets and scholars of her day and wrote poetry that earned her the sobriquet of the Tenth Muse. Some authorities of the Catholic Church in Mexico disapproved of her studies and sought to curtail them.

1691: In response to a public critique from a superior, she wrote a letter defending her secular interests and pleading for equal educational opportunities for women. The letter, which came to be known as *Respuesta a Sor Filotea* (Response to Sister Filotea) is one of her best-known works and is considered a defining work in feminist literature.

Two years after writing it, however, she gave up her studies and turned almost wholly to religious contemplation.

1689-1700: Her writings, comprising lyric and allegorical poems and religious and secular drama, were first published in Spain during this period.