



Willem Peeters

The History of Spain in a Nutshell

Casa Cultural

Introduction

Spain can boast of a rich history. In prehistoric times Spain was the last refuge of the Neanderthals that harboured our ancestors, the Cro-Magnon people who adorned the caves of Altamira with beautiful paintings. Later, the trading Phoenicians and the Greek settled in the Iberian Peninsula and it was there that the Carthaginians fought the Second Punic war against the Romans. The subsequent Roman occupation lasted many centuries that profoundly influenced the culture of Spain. After the Romans the Visigoths took possession of the Iberian Peninsula, in their turn followed by the Moors that ensued an unprecedented cultural boom. Many centuries later, the Christian kings of Castile and Aragon conquered the Peninsula (the Reconquista) and Carlos I (emperor Karl V) and Felipe II established a world empire, mainly because of their conquests in America. In the nineteenth century, after a long period of decline, the struggle between the old regime and liberalism began. Anarchism took root and the prelude to the Civil War of 1936-1939 commenced. This war left traces up to the present day and it brought Spain nearly forty years of dictatorship.

This brief history spans the period from prehistory to the end of the Spanish Civil War.

Atapuerca and Altamira 1.2 - 4,000 BC

In the Sierra de Atapuerca, near the city of Burgos, remains have been found of the oldest inhabitants of the Iberian Peninsula. 800,000 years ago the homo antecessor lived there, one of the last common ancestors of the Neanderthal and Cro-Magnon man. Homo antecessor was about as big and heavy as Homo sapiens, but his brain volume of 1,000 cm³ was significantly smaller than ours (1,350 cm³). From carves that occur on fossils it is almost certain to infer that cannibalism was practised among the homo antecessor. The discovery of a jaw, estimated at 1.2 million years old, has also been reported.

About 50,000 years ago, the Homo sapiens began their journey from the east to Europe, reaching the Iberian Peninsula through the Cantabrian and Catalan coast, and at the eastern and western end of the Pyrenees respectively. As elsewhere in Europe, these invaders, the Cro-Magnon people, lived for about 25,000 years along with the Neanderthals. Neanderthals were smaller than Homo sapiens, but they were much stronger whereas their brain volume was larger. Whether they mastered a language remains the question and also whether they mixed with their neighbours. The Neanderthals, of whom the most recent remains were



found in the vicinity of Gibraltar, became extinct about 24,000 years ago. The most probable cause is that the Homo sapiens was a little bit smarter in gathering food, whereas the Neanderthals suffered.

The Cro-Magnon people lived between 35,000-10,000 BC in the Peninsula and that was the time when they, like their relatives at Lascaux in France and Altamira in northern Spain, created their brilliant paintings on the walls of the cave they lived in. Upon seeing the cave paintings of Altamira, Pablo Picasso is said to have exclaimed, 'Después de Altamira, todo parece decadente' (After Altamira everything seems decadent).

Around 10,000 BC, a major upheaval occurred in the Human history. In the Middle East, hunter-gatherers founded farming communities at fixed locations where they developed pottery craft. Not long thereafter urban centres arose, followed by trends of trade. This so-called Neolithic revolution expanded westwards and it has left many impressive traces. The oldest Neolithic remains found in the Iberian Peninsula date back as far as 5,500 BC.

Pre-Roman peoples 4,000 - 200 BC

Around 3,000 BC the Bronze Age began and metallurgy developed. First they used the easy extractable copper, and later on they invented bronze, an alloy of copper and tin. Compared to other Mediterranean countries, Spain is rich in mineral resources such as iron, tin, lead, copper and silver. The indigenous population did not only exploit this wealth, but it also attracted other peoples.

In the southeast of Spain remains were found of the *El Argar* culture, dating back to the Bronze Age (around 1,500 BC), a nation that had accomplished a high perfection in metalworking. This culture probably originated from the even older culture of *Los Millares* (3,100-2,200 BC), which culture was spread over the south eastern part of Spain. The disappearance of the El Argar culture remains a mystery. There is no evidence of wars and disasters and perhaps this culture came to its end by the influence of the invading peoples at the beginning of the Iron Age. Around 1,200 BC, iron began its expansion through Europe and it were the Celts, coming from France, who introduced this metal in the Iberian Peninsula. The Celtic invasion took place in two waves, the first one at the end of the second millennium BC and a second one from the beginning of the eighth century BC. The Celts spread over the northern part of Spain, almost certainly looking for tin, and it is likely that they probably partially mingled with the Iberos into Celtiberos.



The Iberos inhabited the entire Levantine part of the Iberian Peninsula. A difference of opinion remains about the issue where they came from. One theory has it that they originate from the more easterly regions and settled in Iberia around 5,000 BC. Others claim that they are from North Africa. And a third theory assumes that they are descendants of the Cro-Magnon people. In each case the Iberos had a highly developed culture that is testified by their famous artwork *La Dama de Elche* that can be seen at the Museo Arqueológico Nacional de España in Madrid.

The Rio Tinto mines are located in the Sierra Morena in the extreme south of Spain near Huelva. These mines are still important to this day. They contain copper, iron and magnesium and were exploited by the *Tartessos* from the end of the Bronze Age, until around 500 BC. On the north side of the area, in the vicinity of the present town of Linares that was dominated by the Tartessos, stood Cástulo as a centre of mining industry that started in the Bronze Age and who, according to the Greek historian Artemidoro, had at the beginning of the sixth century BC developed as one of the most important cities in the region.

At the time of the Celtic invasion (from 1,200 BC) the Phoenicians got ashore on the Levantine coast. They were seafarers and traders who populated the shores of what is now Lebanon and Syria. They had no conquests in mind but wanted to get a foothold to establish small businesses and to trade. Towards the beginning of the eleventh century BC it began to take on the character of colonization and in an isolated region the city of Gádir was founded, later called Gades and today known as Cádiz, which is therefore the oldest city in Western Europe.



Not until the eighth century BC, the Greek began their colonial expansion in Iberia, long after the Phoenicians. Around 600 BC they penetrated the Iberian Peninsula from the city of Massalia, today known as Marseille, where they founded the city of Ampurias, or Emporion where the remains are to be found near the Gulf of Rosas. The influence of the Greek reached as far as to the mouth of the Ebro. After being defeated during the first Punic War (236 BC) by the Romans, the Carthaginians settled in the southeast of the Iberian Peninsula. In 227 BC, the Carthaginians founded the town Qart Hadasht (Ciudad Nueva), nowadays Cartagena. This was the beginning of the Carthaginian conquest campaigns led by Hannibal that heralded the Second Punic War (218-202 BC).

Before the arrival of the Romans, the Iberian Peninsula was a real patchwork of peoples with different origins that lived roughly into four areas. One that had an Indo-European character in the north-western part, inhabited by *Celtas* (Celts), a second area in the east and southeast with a clearly Mediterranean culture of which the *Turdetanos* and the *Iberos* were important exponents and a third transitional area that had a mixed culture, that of the *Celtiberos*. The fourth area was that of the *Vascones* (Basques).

The Romans 200 BC - 410 AC

The conquest of the Iberian Peninsula by the Romans lasted two hundred years. A prolonged conquest compared to that of the Moors, who nine hundred years later managed to get their hands on almost the entire peninsula within two decades. The Romans did not confront the earlier invasion by the Carthaginians and the indigenous Hispanics with a preconceived and detailed strategy. There was more talk of reactions to events and circumstances that occurred to them. However, they were aware of the wealth of minerals and ores in the Iberian soil and that's why the Romans fought the Carthaginians who were also keen on the exploitation thereof.

After the Second Punic War in 202 BC, the Romans founded two provinces in Hispania as parts of their empire: Hispania Ulterior and Hispania Citerior. Then they penetrated deeper into the Peninsula and fought several wars with the natives who rebelled against them.



The Celtiberian wars were fought in the northeastern part of the Peninsula and ended in 134 BC with the siege and destruction of the city of Numancia near

Soria. In the Atlantic area of the Iberian Peninsula, Lusitania, emerged Viriato as the leader of the revolt against the Romans. He is believed to have been a member of one of the noble Lusitanian families, albeit that he may also have been a local gang leader, but in that case unquestionably a formidable one. Viriato built a Lusitanian front against the Romans and defeated them several times in battles. In 139 BC, at the height of his power as the *Rey de Hispania meridional* (king of southern Hispania) Viriato was assassinated that ended the Lusitanian resistance against the Romans.

When around the middle of the second century BC the Romans began the conquest of the northwest of the Iberian Peninsula, they came across some Iberian tribes as the *Vascones* (Basques) the *Cantabros* and in the west the *Astures* who did not know any form of authority and who resisted the Romans aggressively. Their resistance lasted from 150 to 19 BC before the Romans, except the above-mentioned tribes, also subjected the in the southeast of the Cantabrian Mountains living Turgones and Vacceos during the so-called Cantabrian wars. The Romans were operating from the city of Augusta Asturica, today called Astorga, founded by Emperor Augustus.



The Romanization of the Iberian Peninsula has been a long process that began with the first conquests in the second century BC and lasted until the collapse of Roman rule at the beginning of the fifth century. Throughout Spain, the Romans introduced Latin, with the exception of the Basque Country. The Iberian script and alphabet already disappeared in the first half of the first century. Control of Latin was required to obtain Roman citizenship. The rise of Christianity was facilitated initially by the tolerant attitude the Romans assumed towards spiritual influences from the east - including Christianity - that they considered a nine-day wonder. Whether Christianity made its way to the Iberian Peninsula from Rome, or from Africa will always remain a subject for discussion, as well as the moment when the advance of this religion began in Spain.

In a general sense the Roman governance introduced in Hispanic population centres did not focus on religious and political customs of the subjected peoples. For the Romans the collection of taxes and the recruitment of soldiers were priorities. Typical of this administrative culture was the focus on urban societies. Closely linked to the urbanization of Spain to Roman cut was in a more general sense the introduction of Roman law, which is one of the cornerstones of our Western civilization. During, and especially after the conquest of the Iberian Peninsula, the Romans began mining on a large-scale and the development of irrigated agriculture. All these activities generated huge trade movements between Spain and Italy. Without infrastructure trade is not possible and the Romans were real masters in its construction. The most notable buildings are the roads with its many bridges, aqueducts and dams.

The Romanization did not take place everywhere at the same time and it did not get the same foothold everywhere. The process began in the provinces of Baetica and the eastern parts of Cartaginensis and Tarracensis where all the urbanization centres consisted of the pre-Roman times. In other parts the Romanization came into being later and there they still retained the use of their native languages, as they did in the Basque Country. The instrument that has most contributed to the Romanization of the Iberian Peninsula was the Roman army, particularly during the period of four centuries of peace, in which the army not as much fulfilled the role of an occupier, but of the protector of the citizens of the Iberian Peninsula against external attacks.

Vandals and Visigoths 410 - 720

In the year 409, an alliance of 'barbarians' crossed the Pyrenees and entered the Iberian Peninsula. This alliance consisted of two peoples of Germanic origin: the Vandals, Suevi and a nomadic tribe the Alana, possibly of Iranian ascent. These invaders went marauding the Peninsula, creating havoc that, at the request of the Romans, was ended by the Visigoths. Around the year 470, the Visigoths ruled the Iberian Peninsula and the Romans were completely expelled.

The Visigoths adhered to Arianism, a variant of Christianity. In the Holy Trinity Arianism only grants the Father divine status. The Son is only first among the creatures. Thus, after the arrival of the Visigoths two opposing versions of Christianity were practised in the Iberian Peninsula, each with its own clergy, councils and liturgy.

The Visigoth kings were obviously Arians, but they were in general tolerant towards Catholics. Catholics converted to Arianism, and vice versa. It was King Recaredo who after his accession to the throne in 587 converted to Catholicism, and two years later the council of Toledo elevated Catholicism as the religion of the state. The transition to Catholicism turned out bad for the Jews, because they were then much more and intensively persecuted than in the period of Arianism.



Edition of the Liber Iudiciorum from 1600

Before the Visigoth period there was no such thing as the concept of Spain, there were only provinces that were each by itself under Roman rule. But the Visigoths were able to bring the whole Iberian Peninsula under one rule. In 654, King Recesvinto bundled the many legislative work of his predecessors and himself in the Liber Judiciorum, the crown on an egregious attempt to coincide the unity of the country and law, unheard of at the time. For centuries Liber Judiciorum would continue to play a significant role. At the end of the sixth and during the seventh century Seville was the cultural centre of the Visigoth Empire where Bishop Leandro played a prominent role. Under Leandro's younger brother and successor Isidoro, who was to occupy the episcopal chair, the Visigoth culture reached its peak.

Moorish rule 720 - 1030

In 710, a Moorish army of 9,000 Berbers led by Tariq ibn Ziyad, crossed the Strait of Gibraltar and began a conquest that brought almost the entire Iberian Peninsula under Moorish rule in only fourteen years. It became a province of the Moorish caliphate of the Umayyads by the name of al-Andalus. In 721 the Moors were defeated at the Battle of Covadonga (near Oviedo). The Visigoth Pelayo led this battle that was caused by an uprising of the Christian Asturian elite. The Moors withdrew from this inhospitable region and Pelayo was proclaimed King of Asturias. Pelayo is considered to be the first Reconquistador. The term Reconquista stands for the 'reconquest' of Spain on the Moors, by the Christians of Spain.

Setbacks for the Moors were also the defeats by the Franks in the battles in Toulouse (721) and in the famous battle of Poitiers in 732, where Charles Martel destroyed the Arab army. Of course, the

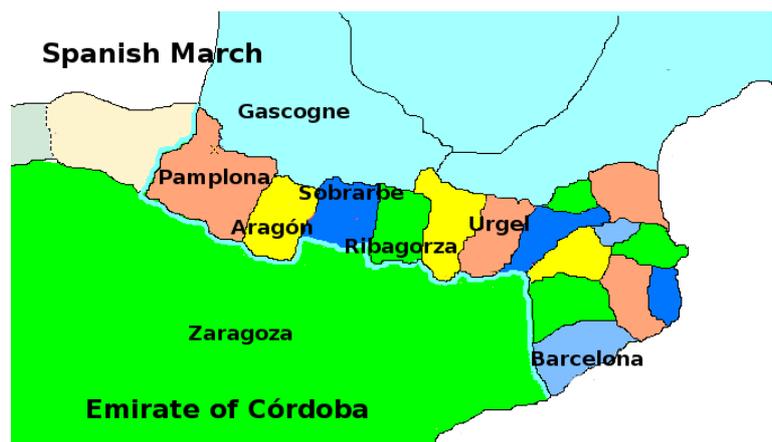
defeat of the Moors at Poitiers was a hard felt loss for the Moors, but it has not stopped them to attack the Franks afterwards on their own soil to expand al-Andalus.



Attempts that eventually failed because of internal strife caused by Berber uprisings demanded too much energy. It was not Charles Martel, but the insurgent Berbers who prevented Christian Europe to be Islamized. In the end the internal conflicts were settled by Abd al-Rahman I, who in 756 founded the Emirate of Córdoba.

Abd al-Rahman I turned out to be a moderate and magnanimous ruler who prevented that the Islamic al-Andalus collapsed. Out of respect for Islamic traditions and also to avoid political complications he did not venture to assume the title of caliph. Under his reign Cordoba flourished and it was adorned with beautiful gardens and buildings. According to an old legend, all the palm trees in the Iberian Peninsula are from the first and only one palm tree that Abd al-Rahman I had planted in his garden. The highlight was undoubtedly the beginning of the construction of the Mosque of Cordoba. Abd al-Rahman I reigned until 788. After the death of Abd al-Rahman I a period of instability and uprisings ensued, until Emir Abd-al-Rahman III adopted the title of Caliph in 929 and thus freed himself from the Caliphate of Baghdad. The Caliphate of Córdoba is the political and cultural highlight of Islamic civilization in al-Andalus. It was governed in a strictly centralized manner and it thus formed a huge army of officials who settled in the city of Medina al-Zahra, located at a few kilometres west of Córdoba. Medina al-Zahra was entirely built according to a planned schedule and the largest built urbanization in the Mediterranean in one go.

During the eighth and ninth centuries, the Asturias Kingdom expanded southwards and conquered of what is known as the Duero Desert. A kind of no man's land created by the retreating Berbers. Around 910 Asturias disintegrated, creating the León Kingdom around the city with the same name that bordered in the east on the Kingdom of Pamplona, which had emerged since 824.



Pamplona was previously a shire that was part of the Spanish Mark, a buffer zone ruled by Charlemagne among his Frankish Empire and the Moorish emirate. The shires of

Aragon and Barcelona were also located in the buffer zone. In 932, the most eastern part of the kingdom of León, the powerful shire of Castile was established by King Ramiro II and ruled by Fernán González.

This display of Christian power provoked a reaction from the Caliph of Cordoba, Abd-al-Rahman III, who fought the Christian kingdoms but he was defeated in 939 by a joint army of Christian princes in the battle of Simancas. From 941, the year when a peace treaty was signed, skirmishes continued to take place between Christians and Moors, where the borders between their realms did flourish, but it did not change its borders substantially.

However, the Christian rulers consolidated their positions, a situation that lasted until the rise of the Moorish ruler Almanzor. He ruled with an iron fist over the caliphate, undertaking more than fifty *aceifas*, i.e. punitive expeditions, against the Christian kingdoms in the north, where parts of the Duerodal were recaptured. Almanzor died in 1002 and from then on the caliphate lost power as a result of flaring internal strife.

The opposite happened on the other side of the border, where in 1004 Sancho Garcés III, or Sancho the Great came to power in Pamplona. Sancho managed to expand his empire both to the west and the east. Eastward to the shire of Barcelona and in the west he acquired not only control of Castile, but he also subjected the León kingdom to serf hood. Across this mighty Pamplona, a caliphate torn by internal strife disintegrated around 1030 in a number of smaller kingdoms, the *reinos de taifas*, which seemed to have shifted the balance of power in the Iberian Peninsula, in favour of the Christians. But after the death of Sancho the Great in 1035, the situation in the north changed. His kingdom was divided and a bitter struggle ensued between his heirs.

Taifas, Almoravids and Almohad 1030 - 1470

By the time the central authority of the Caliphate of Córdoba disappeared, the already three centuries Moorish al-Andalus supremacy disintegrated into many kingdoms, called *reinos de taifas*. The word *taifa* is Arabic and in Spanish it means band or gang, among other. Because of infighting the boundaries between these autonomous regions were not accurately recorded and they changed constantly, at which the regional rulers in turn called for the assistance of the Moorish colleagues, or Christian leaders. Also in the Christian north there was at that time talk of fragmentation by the division of the Pamplona kingdom, which after the death of Sancho the Great in 1035, was divided in Pamplona (or Navarre), Aragon and the County of Castile. For a long time battles were fought for supremacy in the north, where the kingdoms of Castile that would devour León in the long run, and Aragon emerged as the victor.



In 1085, Alfonso VI of Castile conquered the city of Toledo. This shifted the balance of power on the Peninsula in such a way that the rulers of the taifas were forced to enlist the help of their co-religionists, the Almoravids, a Berber tribe that had risen strongly in North Africa. Over a long period of time, al-Andalus developed in fact as a province of the Berber Empire that ruled the area from Marrakech. Although Toledo remained in Christian possession, it was in 1102 that Valencia fell into the hands of the Almoravids, the city that was occupied in 1094 by Rodrigo Díaz de Vivar, better known as El Cid. He is the icon of the struggle of the Christians against the Moors and he was a very competent general who was not always loyal to his master, King Alfonso VI. In 1118, King Alfonso I of Aragon, nicknamed El Batallador, proposed a siege to the city of Zaragoza and forced it to surrender. For this he obtained the title King of Zaragoza and he made the city the government seat of his kingdom.

From 1145 onwards, the power of the Almoravids decreased and fractured al-Andalus again into a number of independent kingdoms (second period of the reinos de taifas). This unstable period lasted until 1170 when the invasion took place by another band of Berbers, the Almohad, led by Yusuf I who made Seville the capital of his empire. Yusuf I had himself surrounded with numerous scholars, writers and philosophers, including the two, perhaps most important of all thinkers from the Moorish period, Ibn Tufayl en Averroës. During the five years of his stay in al-Andalus Yusuf maintained peace and stability. He also initiated the construction of several buildings in Seville, including the Alcázar.

The successor of Yusuf I, Yaqub, marched with a huge army towards al-Andalus to stop the ever-advancing Christians, but it was not until 1195 that there was a serious confrontation. At Alarcos, north of Córdoba, the armies met and the Christian forces suffered heavy losses. After the death of Yaqub in 1199 the power of the Almohad had worn off and it was in 1212 that it suffered a final blow by a combined army of León, Castile, Navarra and Aragon in the battle of Las Navas de Tolosa, a town northeast of Córdoba. This victory is considered as the definitive turning point in the Reconquista.



After the defeat at Navas de Tolosa, the Almohad were gradually driven back and al-Andalus again disintegrated into taifas that became an easy prey for the Christians. From that moment on, King Fernando III of Castile took the helm. Fernando III, who as a token of thanks for his many conquests, was nicknamed the Holy, came to power in 1230 after a violent conflict for the throne of León was settled in his favour. From that moment Castile and León were formed as a whole: the crown of Castile. Fernando's administrative qualities were a guarantee for carefully collecting taxes that allowed him to resume the Reconquista. He captured key cities as Jerez, Córdoba, Jaén and Seville. Jaime I, King of Aragon also achieved significant victories at the expense of the Moors. During his sixty-three years of reign Jaime I rightfully earned his name as the Conqueror by the takeover of Mallorca, Ibiza, Valencia and Denia. The Treaty of Almazora (1244) settled the border disputes between Castile and Aragon. The treaty provided Castile the county of Murcia as well as direct access to the Mediterranean.

In 1252 Alfonso X succeeded his father Fernando III as king of Castile. History knows him as Alfonso the Wise and he was one of the most important rulers the Iberian Peninsula has known. He built the Escuela de Traductores, or translator school in Toledo into a knowledge centre where Spanish, Hebrew and Arabic scholars and linguists worked together to translate writings from the Greek and Arab world in Latin. At the time Toledo expanded into a prominent link between the East and the West. From his hand are also the Siete Partidas, a significant unification of the Castilian legislation. In 1264, Alfonso X seized the city of Cádiz that put an end to the Reconquista. For Castile there now only remained the conquest of Granada. Castile managed to get hold of parts of it during the period from 1264 until 1344, but it lasted until 1482 before the final attack on Granada was launched.

The Catholic monarchs 1470 - 1516

In the history of Spain marriages between members of the royal families have always played an important role to increase their power. This way Sancho the Great was able to expand his kingdom Pamplona significantly at the beginning of the second millennium and in the thirteenth century Aragon annexed the county of Barcelona. But the most spectacular example of such an increase of power is the marriage in 1469 between Isabel I of Castile and Fernando II of Aragon. Through this marriage the two great empires on the Iberian Peninsula were riveted together and this created the modern Spain. Isabel I and Fernando II were for that matter distantly related to each other: Juan I of Castile and Leonor of Aragon, who had married a century before were their common great-grandparents.

Isabel I was a half-sister of King Enrique IV (nicknamed the Impotent) who was married to Juana of Portugal. Her older brother, Alfonso, was put forward as successor to the throne, because some nobles contested the right to the throne of Enrique's daughter Juana. According to them, Juana would be an illegitimate child fathered by the nobleman Beltrán de la Cueva, which is why it was called Juana la Beltraneja. In the conflict that arose between Enrique IV and his half-brother Alfonso, Isabel was in a difficult position. She supported the claims on the throne of her brother but she realized that she could not openly desert the king.



Isabel I of Castile
1451-1504

When the young Alfonso died and Isabel was put forward as a candidate for the throne, she made a successful attempt to bring peace between the rebels and Henry IV. This was done by refraining from attacking the position of the king while alive, in exchange for which Henry would elect her as a legal successor, instead of his daughter Juana la Beltraneja. This was recorded in the so-called *Pacto de los Toros de Guisando*, at which the king transferred the rights to the throne to Isabel with the prerequisite that she would not marry without his consent. It became clear that with Isabel a pretender to the throne had taken office who distinguished herself by a clear political insight and perseverance



Fernando II of Aragon
1452-1516

Isabel did not respect the agreements she had made with her father and in 1469 she secretly married the Crown Prince of Aragon, Fernando II, at which Enrique attributed the rights to the throne to Juana la Beltraneja. Since the citizens of Castile had a great longing at the time for peace in the kingdom after many years of feuds, it was not surprising that growing support occurred for Isabel, of whom they expected that she would restore order and peace in the country. In December 1474, Isabel was proclaimed Queen of Castile. With her husband she entered into an agreement in which the position of Fernando was made equivalent to that of Isabel. This close intertwining of Castile and Aragon manifested in the expression *Tanto monta, Isabel como Fernando; tanto monta, Fernando como Isabel* (Isabel or Fernando, it is all the same).

The war of succession that erupted between the Portuguese who defended the rights of Enrique's daughter Juana la Beltraneja (the enriquinos) and the supporters of Isabel (the isabelinos) ended with the Pacto de Alcáçovas, which provided that the Portuguese abandoned their rights to the Castilian throne. This finally brought an end to the aspirations of Juana la Beltraneja.

Isabel I and Fernando II who succeeded his father Juan II as king of Aragon in 1479, decided in 1482 to conquer the last Moorish stronghold Granada that only succeeded in 1492 when the Moorish sultan Boabdil surrendered. As a reward for completing the Reconquista Isabel and Fernando were decorated in 1496 by Pope Alexander VI, given the honorary title of Reyes Católicos (Catholic Monarchs).

The administration of the Catholic Monarchs has been of great significance for the institutional reform of the country and during their reign the conquests in America gathered momentum. The *Casa de Contratación* in Seville was founded in 1503 with the task of regulating the expeditions to the new world and the exploitation of these areas. As early as 1501, Isabel forbade the enslavement of the natives, a regulation that resulted in the *encomiendas* system. To settlers, the *encomenderos*, the law could be granted to them to have Indians work for them, whom they were supposed to treat fairly and to Christianise them. Although a fair intended system, it gradually degenerated into outright slavery. With Portugal, the Pact of Tordesillas was concluded that divided the hitherto undiscovered world into two equal parts for each of them.



Casa de Contratación in Seville

The existence of the Jewish minority prompted Isabel and Fernando to establish the Spanish Inquisition in 1480, and to issue a regulation in 1492, the edict of Granada, regarding the expulsion of Jews who did not want to be converted to Christianity. A similar decision in 1499 exceeded the Gypsies, who because of their different culture were not accepted and in 1502 it happened to the Muslims. Although with the capture of Granada religious freedom had been promised to the Moors, this promise was from the onset violated by the actions of Cardinal Cisneros, who was then head of the Inquisition.

Isabel died in 1504. Since her heir to the throne, Juana de Castilla (later nicknamed the Lunatic), was not considered to rule the kingdom, the power was handed over to her husband, Felipe I Habsburgo (the Beautiful one). When he died after two years, Fernando II was regent and he had Juana who had completely collapsed, locked up in the convent of Tordesillas. In 1512, Fernando conquered Navarre that had been formally added to the Spanish crown in 1516. With that, Portugal not included, the integration of the Christian kingdoms was completed on the Peninsula. Fernando died in the same year. The son of Juana of Castile, Carlos I, the later Emperor Karl V of the Holy Roman Empire, inherited the throne of Spain.

The Empire of Carlos I 1516 - 1556

In 1504, Juana de Castile (Joanna the Lunatic) inherited the throne of Spain of her mother Isabel I. Because of the mental instability of Juana, her father Fernando II became the regent and from 1517, her son Carlos I assumed the role of king beside Juana, who formally remained queen, until her death in 1555. In 1500, Carlos I was born in Ghent on February the



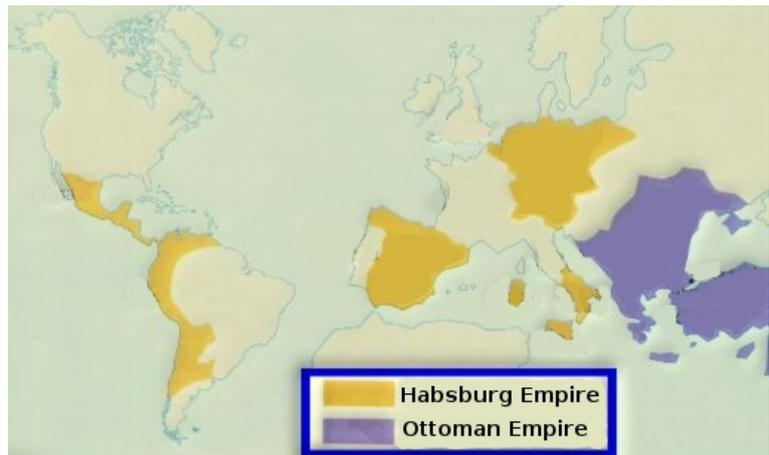
Carlos I
1500 - 1558

24th in Flanders. His native language was French, the language spoken at the court, but he also mastered the Dutch language. Carlos was a pious man, especially because of the influence Adrian of Utrecht, the later and only Dutch pope ever had on him. In 1517, Carlos left for Spain to be sworn in as King Carlos I of Castile. At the beginning of 1519 Maximilian I died, the Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire, and to obtain the imperial throne Carlos travelled to Aachen. Because the Castilians had to pay for the cost of this campaign, fearing that with the coronation of Carlos I as Emperor Castile would degrade to an adjunct of the Habsburg Empire, several cities revolted. This revolt led to the war of the *Comunidades* of Castile, which ended in 1522.

In 1519 the plague broke out in Valencia, whereupon the residents revolted. Superstitious as they were, the mudéjares became their target, Muslims who had remained in the territories conquered by Christians from the Moors and whom they suspected of having caused the epidemic. This led to an uprising of the *Germanías* (craft guilds) in Aragon, which uprising was suppressed with iron fists. The fanaticism of Cardinal Cisneros to convert the mudéjares led to the complicated social problem of the Moriscos, as the converts were called. Initially, the Moriscos received the same status as Christian workers by their conversion that robbed the landowners of their cheap Muslim labour. A second problem was the answer the Muslims had conceived regarding the forced conversions. Defending their faith to the end, martyrdom, according to the Qur'an is too heavy a sacrifice and in case of compulsion it is permitted to hide their own faith, or to simulate another conviction. This form of passive resistance is called *taqiyya*. Therefore, the Moriscos ended up in the same position as the Jews who were expelled after the fall of Granada in 1493. The mistrust that existed in the Roman Catholic clergy and the government on the authenticity of the Christian faith of the Moriscos led to increased activity of the Inquisition, and finally after nearly a century of forced conversions, to expel the Moriscos in 1609.

When Carlos after his election as emperor returned to Spain in 1522, he had been that clever to learn Spanish. Additionally, the Castilians appreciated it much more that he married someone who came from the Iberian Peninsula: his cousin Isabel, princess of Portugal. Their first child, Felipe II was born in 1527. Isabel died in 1539 while giving birth to her sixth child.

After Colombo's discovery of the Indies in 1492, the Caribbean islands were rapidly colonized and the colonizers were busy looking for a passage from the Caribbean Sea to the Pacific. Of course, finding the western passage was an important motive to explore the American continent, but the spread of the Christian faith was also of great importance for the Spanish. For the King of Spain there was also the lure of riches that were important to cover the cost of the wars he waged as emperor of the Holy Roman Empire, as well as for the conquistadors themselves. Hernán Cortés, who seized Mexico, made the first major conquest in 1519. In 1531 the expedition of Francisco Pizarro to Peru began. The capital of the Incas, Cuzco, was captured and Pizarro seized huge gold treasures from the Incas. In 1521 the Spaniards also invaded the



North American continent. The system of *encomiendas* developed by Castile that conferred the right to the colonists to make Indians work for them, if they treated them justly, soon degenerated into slavery, uprisings and massacres.

In the eyes of the Dominican Bartolomé de las Casas the conduct of the conquerors was a smudge on the Christian escutcheon and his account of the massacres of the conquistadors caused a shock in Castile. In 1542 this led to a ban by Carlos I on the system of *encomiendas* and slavery. The reaction in America was furious and it triggered a rebellion among the settlers. The debate on this issue flared up high among theologians, but it never led to a judgement of them, albeit that in Castile the ideas of De las Casas could count on the most sympathy. On the other side of the ocean the atrocities were just continuing.

After his election as emperor of the Holy Roman Empire Carlos I, King of Spain, reigned as Karl V over a huge area that covered about half the size of Europe and part of America. Throughout his reign, Carlos has had to fend against attacks from mainly the French and Ottomans on parts of his empire located outside the Iberian territory. He also waged war within the Holy Roman Empire against the Protestant principalities. All these wars were largely financed with funds coming from the political tranquil Castile that could dispose of a large influx of wealth from the conquered territories by the conquistadores.

In 1556, Carlos decided to abdicate and left his Spanish possessions to his son Felipe II, who thus inherited the Netherlands. Carlos' brother Fernando inherited the empire and was formally appointed Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire in 1558. Carlos I severely suffered from gout and he preferred to spend his last years in peace and meditation. He took up residence in a palace next to the Monastery of Yuste, and after painful agony he died there from malaria on the 12th of September 1558.

Felipe II and heresy 1556 - 1598

Felipe II of Castile was undoubtedly the most powerful man of his time. Between 1556 and until his death in 1598 he reigned over a vast empire in Europe that encompassed, besides Spain, also Naples, Sicily, Sardinia and the Netherlands. Portugal, at the time a global trading empire, was added to the Spanish crown in 1580. Felipe furthermore possessed colonies in America and the Philippines. Felipe II is invariably referred to as the Great, the Prudente or the champion of Christianity. Not unjustly, because he was an able ruler who 'knowing that God had called upon him' had set a target to maintain his father's inherited possessions to Roman Catholicism.

Prince Felipe was born in 1527. In 1543 he married the Portuguese princess Maria and two years later an heir was born, Carlos. Mary died in childbirth. Carlos showed all kinds of defects, he was the produce of inbreeding among his forefathers and he died in 1568. In 1543, Felipe's father left Spain to return

after waging war for fourteen years. During that time Felipe was regent of Spain and he matured in his role as administrator. At the age of twenty Felipe II made a trip along the main European cities and he visited the Netherlands. The marriage of Felipe II with Mary Tudor, Queen of England (nicknamed Bloody Mary), was solemnised in 1554.



Felipe II
1527-1598

Mary was a Roman Catholic and a marriage with Felipe was a great opportunity to promote the restoration of Roman Catholicism in England. But the marriage was not a success and Felipe abandoned her. He arrived in Brussels in 1555 where his father transferred his possessions to him, including the Netherlands. At the beginning of 1556, Carlos I abdicated the Spanish throne in favour of Felipe. With the death of Mary Tudor two years later, the reign of Felipe ended in England.

Around that time the conflict flared up with France that started an attack on the Netherlands. The French suffered a defeat against the Spaniards who were supported by William of Orange. In 1559, a treaty was signed between Spain and France and to seal it Felipe II agreed in a marriage with Elizabeth of Valois, the eldest daughter of the French king, Henry II. Felipe then decided to return to Spain. He transferred the management of its northern possessions to his half-sister Margareta de Parma, a daughter from an extramarital affair by Carlos I. Like his father, Felipe II persisted in applying a hard stance against the Dutch Protestants. After the Iconoclasm, he decided to intervene militarily and the Duke of Alba was sent to Brussels, whereupon the Eighty Years' War commenced in 1568. Alba's crackdown aroused resentment in the Austrian branch

of the of the Habsburg family, who were tolerant of Protestantism. Emperor Maximilian II sought to strengthen the bond with his cousin Felipe, because they needed each other in the fight against the Ottomans. He offered Felipe to marry his daughter Ana (Elizabeth had deceased in 1568). However, Maximilian could not persuade Felipe to change his attitude towards the Netherlands. His Spanish cousin stubbornly adhered to not tolerating heresy.



● **Spanish territory in the sixteenth century**

When in 1492 the last Moorish stronghold Granada fell into the hands of the Catholic monarchs Isabel I and Fernando II, a number of Muslims remained loyal to their faith and refused to be Christianised: the Moriscos. Their position on the social scale was low and they were endlessly exploited and persecuted. This led to a rebellion in the Alpujarras on the southern flank of the Sierra Nevada in 1568. A bloody intervention ensued and thousands of Moriscos were killed.

The Turkish Navy always meant a threat to the Christians. That threat was that serious that Pope Pius V asked Felipe II to launch a crusade against the Islamic enemy. Initially, the Spaniard was not keen on it, he had enough on his mind with the Moriscos and the troubles in the Netherlands, but when in 1571 the Turks conquered Cyprus he agreed to join the Holy League, to which also Venice and the Vatican took part in. During the Battle of Lepanto the League triumphed. Among the Spanish fighters was a young writer, Miguel de Cervantes, the later author of *Don Quixote*.

In 1580 the king of Portugal died, at which Felipe II forcefully claimed his rights to this throne. Hence all the kingdoms of the Peninsula were united under one single crown. Felipe moved his residence to Lisbon, but he returned to Madrid in 1582, due to the death of Crown Prince Diego, one of five children he had with Ana de Austria.

Around 1586, the relationship between Spain and Britain reached an all-time low when the English Queen openly gave support to the raids of Francis Drake. Drake started piracy in the Caribbean where he robbed Spanish settlements and ships. Of course, a Spanish reaction was inevitable. Felipe ordained the building of the Armada Invencible, with which he tried to conquer England in 1558. Because of the bad weather and the astute strategy of the opponent this attempt ended in disaster for the Spaniards.

Battle-weary, Felipe decided in 1596 to transfer the government of the Netherlands to Archduke Albrecht von Habsburg, a cousin of his, who was respected as bishop of Toledo. Albrecht renounced his clerical status and married Felipe's daughter Isabel (from his marriage to Isabel de Valois). The king transferred sovereignty of the Netherlands to the couple with the provision that if one of them were to die without offspring, the regions would again fall to the Spanish throne. Then the health of the king worsened rapidly and two months before his death he was suffering such pains that doctors no longer dared to move him and he had to lie on his back until the end of his life. Felipe II breathed his last breath on the morning of September 13, 1598. The exact cause of his death is not to ascertain, but it is not unlikely that he died of cancer. Felipe III, the fourth son of Felipe II and Ana de Austria, succeeded him.

The age of validos 1598 - 1700

The phenomenon of the valido (confidant) with a lot of influence on the king was not a novelty in the Castilian history, but it was the first time that a king actually surrendered power when Felipe III in 1598 appointed the Duke of Lerma as his valido. Felipe's choice of the Duke of Lerma was unwise because he turned out to be someone who pursued self-



Felipe III
1578-1621

enrichment and all state affairs were made secondary. Felipe III, born in 1578, was the third Habsburg king of Spain and child of the marriage of Felipe II with Ana de Austria. In 1599, Felipe III married his fourteen-year-old niece Margarita of Austria. They had eight children, including the heir Felipe IV, who was born in 1605. Felipe III was nicknamed "The Pious One" and he was considered a pacifist because he signed two major peace treaties, the treaty with England in 1604 and in 1609 with the Netherlands (the twelve year truce). But it was not pacifism that motivated him. Castile was in dire economic circumstances and the costs of war could not be funded by means of tax increases.



Duke of Lerma
1552-1625

Lerma hoped he would be able to win over Prince Felipe IV, but he gradually lost the confidence of the king and in 1618 he had to step down. In 1623 Felipe III died. His sixteen-year-old son succeeded him and like his father he chose to be assisted by a valido. The choice fell on his teacher and friend Gaspard de Guzman, Count of Olivares, who would always loyally serve his master and unlike Lerma who only pursued his own interests. In 1625, Felipe IV granted the title of duke of Sanlucar la Mayor to

him, whereby Olivares joined the *Grandeza* (the highest nobility) of Spain. Hence his nickname: *conde-duque* (Count-Duke). With the arrival of Olivares, the period of pacification came to a close: Pax Hispanica. For many the defeatist years were over and Olivares initiated a policy aimed at restoring the grandeur of Spain and a renewed offensive against heresy.

To support the Austrian branch of the Habsburgs, Felipe III engaged in the Thirty Years' War in 1618, in which the great powers struggled for power over Europe and around 1635 Spain was fighting on many fronts. Their main enemy was France that tried to conquer the dominant position by the Spaniards in Europe.

The costs of all these military efforts were huge and although silver was still coming from the mines in America, the main source of income for the Spanish crown were those of taxes, paid by the Castilian population. The Spanish empire had no uniform legislation, which meant that rich parts such as Catalonia and Portugal contributed little or nothing to cover the expenses that entailed the defence of the empire. Olivares tried to change the law fundamentally, but with that this statesman was way ahead of his time and he only succeeded in raising an army that was common funded.

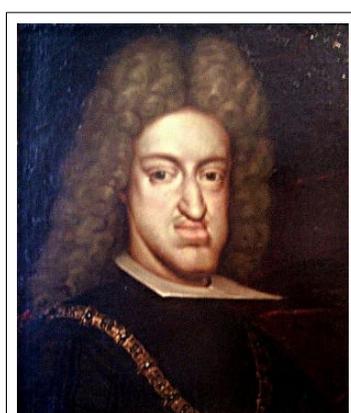


Felipe IV
1605 - 1665

After an invasion of the French in Catalonia a revolt broke out that led the Catalans, protected by the French, turning against Olivares. Revolts in Portugal culminated in secession from Spain in 1640. To Felipe IV it became clear that it the policy of Olivares had failed and he fired his valido. In 1643, Olivares died a broken man. In 1648 the peace treaties of Westphalia and Munster were signed which put an end to both the Thirty Years' War and the Eighty Years. The Dutch Republic was formally independent from the Spanish Crown and the southern Netherlands remained in Spanish hands. Eleven years later, after fierce fighting, Felipe IV made peace with the French that led to the peace agreement of the Pyrenees. Spain had to relinquish its possessions in French territory that belonged to Catalonia, by which the Pyrenees finally formed the border between the two countries.



Gaspard de Guzmán
Count of Olivares
1587-1645



Carlos II
1661 - 1700

The Spanish king cherished hopes that his son Baltasar Carlos, born in 1629, would succeed him, but he died from smallpox in 1648. At that time, Felipe was the only remaining male of the Spanish Habsburg dynasty, which enthused him to marry again. In 1649, he married his first cousin Mariana of Austria, the intended bride for Baltasar Carlos. She bore him five children, including the heir Carlos II, who was born in 1661. Felipe IV died in 1665. Carlos II was deformed and ailing, mentally unstable and unable to beget offspring. His deviations, which were due to many years of inbreeding among the Habsburgs, were in his time attributed to the work of the devil, hence his nickname *El Hechizado* (The Bewitched). Because Carlos II was only four years old when his father died, his mother acted as regent, advised by the Junta de Gobierno (Executive Council), which was set up by Felipe IV to prevent that a powerful valido would again prevail.

For several years this situation persisted, but gradually another strong man appeared: Fernando Valenzuela. Mariana appreciated his advices, although she did not want him to handle state affairs like the valido's that preceded him.



Fernando de Varenzuela
1636-1692

When in 1676 the Spanish Grandeza had revolted out of outrage over the growing chaos in the country, Juan de Austria, an illegitimate half-brother of Felipe IV, committed a coup d'état. Varenzuela and Queen Mariana were banished. Juan de Austria did not turn out as a valido, but rather as a dictator, a caudillo. Detested by everyone he died in 1679. In the last two decades of the seventeenth century the French king Louis XIV (the Sun King) constantly attempted to strengthen a dominant position in Europe, and Spain had to pay for it, until he was beaten in the Nine Years' War by the Grand Alliance. Carlos II died in 1700 and left his empire to the Duke of Anjou from the house of Bourbon,

grandson of the Sun King. The Austrian branch of the Habsburg family did not accept this and the War of Succession broke out.

Felipe V and the Nueva Planta 1700 - 1746

Philippe de Bourbon was born on December 13, 1683 at Versailles, the second child of Prince Louis de France. He turned into an introvert person, who at his departure for Spain appeared melancholic, a first omen of his frequently occurring depressions later on. He was proclaimed King of Spain at the youthful age of seventeen and like Carlos I he did not speak a word of Spanish and he had no clue of what was happening on the Iberian Peninsula. Yet his entry



Felipe V
1683-1746

into Madrid on the 14th of April 1701 was a real triumph. The Habsburg emperor Leopold I of the Holy Roman Empire refused to accept the testament of Carlos II and he moved his own pretender to the Spanish throne, the Archduke Karl von Österreich, or Carlos III, after which the War of Succession began. This name suggests that the warring parties had the question in mind of who the rightful successor of Carlos II was, but it was actually a continuation of the long-standing struggle of power for the hegemony in Europe between the major powers. This was the moment that the Grand Alliance of Austria, England and the Dutch Republic turned against the Spaniards and the French.

From 1705 onwards, the War of Succession also developed into an internal conflict in Spain between supporters of Felipe V and the Austrian pretender to the throne. At the end of the year, Austrian troops landed on the Catalan coast. Barcelona surrendered and Carlos III was acclaimed and recognized as the legitimate successor of Carlos II. In 1710, the troops of Carlos III conquered Madrid, but the people of Madrid soon made it quite clear to Carlos that Madrid was not a place for a Habsburg.

There was nothing else for Carlos III to do but to leave the capital and with that he actually surrendered his claims to the Spanish throne. What also was playing a part was that he succeeded the deceased Emperor Leopold, as Karl VI. That abated his interest in the Spanish crown to some extent. There were negotiations that resulted in the Treaty of Utrecht in 1714. All the Spanish territories outside the Iberian Peninsula (Naples, Milan, Sardinia, Luxembourg and the Netherlands) were transferred to the Austrian Habsburgs.

When Felipe V took office as king of Spain, the country still consisted of several kingdoms, each with their own legislation. He was crowned as king of Castile, but to ensure his status as sovereign of Aragon of Navarre he had to pledge his allegiance to their ancient rights. Felipe made an end to that by introducing uniform legislation for the whole of Spain: the so-called *Nueva Planta*. From 1716 onwards, there prevailed a more or less equal tax legislation throughout Spain and the existing customs barriers between Castile and Aragon disappeared. The regional courts also disappeared and the Spanish Crown now appointed new judges. For the Spanish Government, the Nueva Planta meant an increase in state revenues, because of the taxes that were levied previously in Aragon, part of it now ended up in the central coffer.



Luis I of Spain
1707-1724

Early in 1714 Felipe's wife, Maria de Savoy passed away. She had given birth to four male children, of whom two children, Luis and Fernando were to succeed their father as king of Spain. The king remarried Princess Isabel Farnese, a cousin of the Duke of Parma.

The arrival of Isabel certainly affected the foreign policy of Spain that with the conquest of Sardinia and Sicily violated the Treaty of Utrecht. The *Quadruple Alianza* of Great Britain, the Netherlands, France and Austria forced Felipe to withdraw. In 1724, the health of Felipe V was that bad that he abdicated the throne in favour of his eldest son Luis, who ruled only seven months before he succumbed to smallpox. That brought Felipe V back on the throne.

After signing the peace treaties of Utrecht in 1714, Spain and the Republic of the Netherlands established normal diplomatic relations. As an envoy and later as ambassador, the Republic sent Willem baron Van Ripperda to Madrid. In 1725, Felipe V sent him on a diplomatic mission to the Austrian capital, which resulted in the Vienna Convention. Emperor Karl VI, who had not signed the Treaty of Utrecht and until then was still the pretender to the Spanish throne, recognized Felipe V as the legitimate king of Spain. From his part, Felipe V renounced his claims to the French throne. He also granted the Austrians important trading rights, which they could deploy in commercial activities in America, via Ostend.

That was ill received by the other powers and again another European alliance was forged, this time consisting of Britain, France, Prussia, Denmark, Sweden and the Republic of the Netherlands, with the aim to ensure that the agreements of the Treaty of Utrecht would be sustained. The dispute between Spain and Britain over Gibraltar ran high. Felipe V did not succeed to conquer this fortification and it forced him to relinquish his claims on Gibraltar. At the end of 1729, France, England and Spain signed the peace treaty that ensured Felipe V and his wife of the right of succession of their son Prince Carlos of the Duchy of Parma, the homeland of his mother.

During the next decades, three treaties (1733, 1743 and 1761) were concluded between the monarchs of the house of Bourbon, the so-called Pactos de Familia (family conventions). The first time that Spain supported France this way was during the War of the Polish Succession War that ended with the Vienna Convention in 1738, where France left the Polish throne to the Austrian pretender and Prince Carlos of Bourbon recognized as King of Naples and Sicily, in exchange for surrendering his rights to the Duchy of Parma. In 1748, his brother Prince Felipe, the founder of the dynasty Borbón-Parma and ancestor Carel Hugo, husband of Princess Irene of Orange, obtained Parma.

Felipe V was manic-depressive which led to bizarre behaviour in his later life. He had a daily schedule that left many in a state of despair. He would have dinner at five o'clock in the morning, to bed at seven o'clock and breakfast around noon. As late as two o'clock in the night he would summon his ministers for consultations. Felipe V died in 1746 and he had ruled longer than any Spanish king before: 45 years and 21 days.

Enlightened despotism 1746 - 1788

By the end of the seventeenth century the national government of Spain, the ancient regime that existed from the reign of the Catholic monarchs Isabel I and Fernando II, began its decline. This form of government, an absolute monarchy relying on the three pillars, being the Church, the Military and the Aristocracy, had given its golden age to Spain, but also burdened it with huge debts as a result of the imperial wars and ever-worsening economic conditions. In the seventeenth century, criticism of this failed form of governance came from the *novatores*, forerunners of the Enlightenment in Spain. The Enlightenment philosophy not only paved the road in Spain for a cautious separation of the Church and the State, but it also gave an impetus to the development of the enlightened despotism, a form of government in which the monarchs believed in the use of reason and in making themselves subservient to their subjects.

After Fernando VI, the successor of Felipe V had signed the peace treaty of Aachen in 1748 that ended the Austrian Succession War, a period of peace ensued that gave room to getting the state's treasury in order and the salvage of the economy. Fernando VI was the fourth child of Felipe V of his marriage to Mary Louise Savoy. In 1729, he married Princess Barbara de Bragança, daughter of King João V of Portugal. Fernando VI had competent ministers,



Fernando VI
1713-1759

including the Marquis of Ensenada, who had plenty of leeway to give shape to their policy of rehabilitation and neutrality. Ensenada's attempt to introduce a form of property tax, the *Catastro*, came gently about. However, the creation of a State Bank (the Giro Real) and the improvement of the infrastructure, of which the *Canal de Castilla* still testifies were spectacular. The conclusion of a concordat in 1753 by Fernando VI with Pope Benedict XIV marked a milestone in the relationship of Spain with the Vatican. Deployment of those negotiations regarded the rights of patronage and the financial relationship between the Spanish Crown and the Church.

Bárbara de Bragança died in 1758. Her death caused Fernando, who like his father suffered from depressions, to arrive in a state of insanity that he never recovered from. Fernando died the following year and was succeeded by the King of Naples, his half-brother Carlos III, who inherited an empire where a firm foundation was established for the second half of the eighteenth century. The new king of Spain gradually turned into the prototype of the enlightened despot and is celebrated as the great King Carlos III.

It is true that during the reign of Carlos III something fundamentally changed the despotism and the personal character of it was replaced by an impersonal variant in the practice of a powerful bureaucracy: from absolute monarchy to absolute state, where the king guaranteed the continuity more than that he effectively controlled the country. The first period of Carlos' reign shows traces of the reform strategy of the Marquis de Esquilache who had travelled with Carlos III from Italy and who tried to revive the tax reforms initiated in the fifties by the Marquis of Ensenada. Anti protectionist measures were taken in the agricultural sector, culminating in the abolition of the fixed grain prices that protected the people against major fluctuations in the cost of bread, in particular the necessities of life. The effect of this measure proved to be disastrous for the population, because from 1761 onwards, bread prices increased significantly, leading to famines. Discontent grew throughout Spain and erupted into revolt in the spring of 1766. Carlos III dismissed Esquilache and in his place he appointed the President of the Council of Castile, the Count of Aranda who put matters right with the utmost severity.

Of course, the Government attempted to find out who could be held responsible for the uprising. It culminated in the expulsion of the Jesuits who were branded as a scapegoat. The drama reached its climax when under pressure from the Catholic monarchies in Rome the Pope decided to disband the order.



Carlos III
1716-1788

After the uprising of 1766 Aranda started a new series of reforms, although less hurriedly than that of his predecessors. In addition to taking care of the building of the military apparatus he focused the attention on the renewal of academic education. Universities were still dominated by teachers from the privileged upper class of society, whose obsolete education was not based on modern scientific knowledge.

A new way to reform the economy was the establishment of the *Reales Sociedades Económicas de Amigos del País*, (Royal Economic Societies of Friends of Spain) which arose in 1765. They were no state societies, but they were encouraged by the monarchy and focused on the development of the regional economy. One of the most outstanding projects of the Spanish Enlightenment is that of the *Nuevas Poblaciones de Andalucía*. It was a utopian tinted project, intended to establish a number of new villages in Andalusia, whose inhabitants could live a happy life, unobstructed by the problems that the traditional societies in rural areas had been confronted with.

In previous decades, Spain had twice entered into an alliance with France, called the Pactos Familia, alliances between the Bourbon royal houses of both countries, and in 1761 it happened again when Carlos III interfered in the Seven Years' War. In this war it was mainly about the overseas territories in the Americas and Asia, and it were the British who threatened the Spanish possessions. In this war France lost its status as a colonial power by the loss of Canada and it gave a huge area, the Louisiana basin in North America to Spain as a gift. It turned out to be a poisonous pill. Incorporation of Louisiana in the Spanish empire, although it meant that with this it never reached unprecedented dimensions, but also that Spain by itself had to thwart the rise of the English settlers, a battle the Spaniards lost. Carlos III was married to Maria Amalia von Saxen. Their eldest son Felipe was retarded so that the second son Carlos was appointed as successor to the throne. Carlos III died on the 14th of December 1788, and his successor became King of Spain as Carlos IV.

In the shadow of the French Revolution 1788 - 1814

In the eighteenth century and during the early nineteenth century Spain was a lot under the influence of France. It began with the arrival of Felipe V, grandson of the French Sun King,



Carlos IV
1748-1819

and it peaked in 1701 when NapoLeón Bonaparte claimed the Spanish throne for his brother Joseph in 1808. This happened at the end of the reign of Carlos IV, who had succeeded his father Carlos III in 1788. He was born in wedlock of Carlos III and Maria Amalia von Saxen. At the age of fourteen, Carlos IV married his far younger cousin María Luisa de Parma, who turned out to be a powerful queen and who is said to have had several lovers. One of them was Manuel Godoy, the powerful favourite of the king is said to have fathered some of her children.



Manuel Godoy
1767-1851

Carlos IV, who worried that the spirit of the French Revolution would spread to Spain appointed in 1792 his confidant Godoy as prime minister, believing that he could save the monarchy. At the beginning of 1793, the French king Louis XVI was beheaded and the War of the Convention erupted, which war is also known as the War of Roussillon, or the War of the Pyrenees.

This was part of an ultimate attempt by the major European powers to put an end to the French Revolution and to rescue the monarchy. After an overwhelming offensive of the French, Godoy barely managed to avoid a total defeat by arranging the Basel Peace Agreement in 1795.

For this effectively negotiated agreement Godoy received the honorary title of Príncipe de la Paz (Prince of Peace). The relationship with France stabilised and Godoy shifted his attention to domestic policy. In the years until 1798, he took measures to promote the production and publication of newspapers and magazines and modern scientific institutes were founded.

Spain had much to fear from the British who were sovereign on the oceans of the world. Hence Godoy rejuvenated ties with France in 1796 with the Treaty of San Ildefonso. This agreement was immediately interpreted in London as a threat whereupon England declared war on Spain. Spain thus lost its control over the overseas territories. Such conflicts with England continued to occur, culminating in the destruction of the Spanish-French fleet at the Battle of Trafalgar in 1805 by the British naval power. Two years later Godoy established the Fontainebleau Treaty with NapoLeón Bonaparte who had meanwhile attained power in France, with the intention to occupy and divide Portugal that favoured the British. Spain allowed France to send a large army to assist Spanish troops with the conquest of Portugal and the first step to this end was the capture of Lisbon. However, a split of Portugal did not come about. The Portuguese revolted and the French were defeated with the help of the British.

Meanwhile, the internal struggle between supporters of the king and the growing group of malcontents about the politics of Godoy was in full swing and many of them feared that NapoLeón wanted to interfere in the conflict. This finally happened when during an uprising at Aranjuez Godoy was chased away and Carlos IV abdicated in favour of his son Fernando. At the invitation of the French emperor the Spanish royal family travelled to Bayonne to discuss the consequences of the uprising of Aranjuez. Pressured by NapoLeón, Prince Fernando abandoned his claim to the throne that induced the emperor to appoint his brother Joseph as King of Spain, José I. After his arrival in Madrid riots erupted in several major cities, which culminated in the Spanish War of Independence.

The first major success for the Spaniards in the War of Independence took place when they defeated the French forces at the Battle of Bailén. The emperor retaliated with an army of 150,000 men strong, la Grande Armée, which the Spaniards could not withstand and at the end of 1808 the emperor led his troops into the city of Madrid. The French controlled almost entirely Spain until 1812, whereas their army had expanded to 360,000 men.



José I
1768-1844

During the War of Independence the power of the traditional Spanish army shrank and in rural areas guerrilla combat developed as a new way of resistance against the French. Because of this origin, it showed a politically conservative character, driven by religion. The Carlist movement that arose around 1830 is rooted in this tradition. Resistance was mainly organised by local juntas, governing boards of insurgents, coordinated by the Junta Suprema in Madrid. In 1809 the Junta decided to abandon seat and to retreat in Cádiz. There was the Cortes (parliament) elections followed by the inauguration thereof in 1810. On the 19th of March 1812, the Cortes adopted a new constitution. The key message in the Sovereignty Statement read: "The Spanish nation is free and independent and is not, nor can it be owned by a family, or a person. That implied a huge change in the position of the Crown. To persuade the conservative members of the Cortes, they refrained from abolishing the monarchy, or to violate the unity of the Church and the State. It was nevertheless an unparalleled revolution.

The adoption of the Constitution of Cádiz turned out to be a turning point in the Revolutionary War. The English army chief, Arthur Wellesley, launched an offensive and with his army of Englishmen, Spaniards and Portuguese he managed to defeat the French. The pressure on Spain declined even more when in October 1812 the Grande Armée, personally commanded by the Emperor, was relegated to Russia. About six months later Wellesley struck again, which was the end of the French presence on the Peninsula. On the 29th of June, 1813, José I also left the country. In 1814 the Spanish War of Independence ended.

Fernando VII and Carlism 1814 - 1833

Fernando VII was the ninth child in wedlock of his father Carlos IV with María Luisa de Parma. He was born on the 29th of September 1784. Due to the forced abdication of his father in 1808, Fernando officially became king of the realm, but Napoleon Bonaparte put him aside and claimed the Spanish throne for the benefit of his brother José I. Not before 1813, after the conclusion of the War of Independence, did Fernando VII start his reign that lasted until his death in 1833.



Fernando VII
1784-1833

The Spanish War of Independence ended in 1814 and with the Treaty of Valençay NapoLeón recognised Fernando VII as the legitimate king of Spain. Fernando then staged a coup, annulled the constitution of Cádiz and began a thorough restoration of the ancien régime.

He restored the ancient structure of councils; the Inquisition, the guilds, wonderful rights and he restored the expropriation of the properties of the Church. That went too far, even for the Holy Alliance. This was an alliance of Russia, Austria and Prussia, in order to protect Christian values in Europe. But their protests fell on deaf ears.

In 1808, when the Spaniards rebelled again against the French ruler, a situation developed in the colonies that closely resembled those in the native country. In several places revolts broke out and they began with the process of the declarations of independence. In 1815 fights broke out in Peru, followed by Argentina in 1816 and in 1819 Simon Bolivar founded the Republic of Colombia. The Spaniards were incapable to turn the tide. The end came in 1824 when the Spanish troops were at last defeated near Ayacucho in Peru. That meant a huge loss for the Spanish Empire. Until the final end of it in 1898, the Spanish only possessed the overseas territories that included Cuba, Puerto Rico and the Philippines.

In Spain also resistance grew against the reactionary policy of Fernando VII, which resulted in a successful pronunciamiento (uprising) in 1820. Three years of liberal-constitutional policy followed. On March the 10th, Fernando VII declared to accept the Constitution of Cádiz with the famous proclamation: 'Marchemos francamente, y yo el primero, por la senda constitucional' (let us, ahead with me, freely walk the constitutional road). He appointed a cabinet of liberal signature that got into trouble because of the disagreements between radical and moderate liberals that had hitherto been hidden under the surface. Among other, the bone of contention was the creation of the so-called *Sociedades patrióticas* (patriotic societies), mostly in pubs; opportunities were given to read newspapers and to participate in discussions. These groups were a thorn in the side of the moderates who saw nothing good in the involvement of ordinary citizens in the government. The radicals thought otherwise. In the societies they envisaged a vehicle that allowed the public opinion to evolve.

Apart from being criticized by their own ranks, fervent supporters of the absolutist ideas of Fernando VII opposed the liberal government. Gangs arose, consisting of campesinos (peasants) from the countryside that had fought against the French during the War of Independence. They regarded the liberals as the rich people whose sole aim was to bleed farmers by levying new taxes. The clergy also felt wronged by the expropriation politics and a religious-agrarian front grew against the liberal government. From 1821 this caused uprisings by the absolutists, particularly in Navarre and Catalonia, but they were quelled by the troops of the Liberal government.

This prompted the French King Louis XVIII to send a large intervention force to succour his family and to save the Old Spanish Empire from destruction. This action led to the end of the three-year liberal government and Fernando VII again presented himself as an absolute monarch. Ten years of repression followed: the *Década Ominosa*. An estimated of more than 15,000 liberal exiles left the country.

What Fernando had not dared to do was to restore the function of the Inquisition. Foreign pressure to abandon that idea was too strong, but with that decision he incurred the wrath of his most implacable supporters. In this regard Fernando VII may be considered moderate in



Carlos de Bourbon
1788-1855

comparison to his brother Carlos, who reproached him as being too liberal. Similar accusations Fernando received from his eldest sister Carlota Joaquina, married to the Portuguese King João VI. Round about their son Miguel and Fernando's brother Carlos, two very similar ultraconservative movements emerged, in Portugal known as the Miguelism and in Spain as Carlism.

In 1827 an uprising sprung up in Catalonia. Agrarians sided with poor residents of the major population centres against the hated authorities, who were being called guerra de los agraviados, in Catalan - dels malcontents. The insurgents not only demanded the total elimination of the liberals and reintroduction of the Inquisition, but also openly called upon Fernando VII to make room for his brother Carlos. Fernando crushed the rebellion, but he was pondering about throne succession, because he had no male offspring at the time, and in its absence thereof his brother Carlos would succeed him and that he wanted to avoid at all costs. He nominated his daughter Isabel as the heiress to the throne.

The last months of his life were tough for the king. The Carlists openly opposed Fernando. When Carlos refused to take the oath to recognize Isabel as Princesa de Asturias, the official title for the heir to the throne, he overstepped the line and he was forced to flee to Portugal. On September the 29th, 1833, Fernando VII died after a fatal stroke.

Isabel II and the generals 1833 - 1868

After the death of King Fernando VII in 1833, his wife Maria Cristina was appointed regent for Isabel II who was less than three years old. Maria was barely in function when an uprising of the Carlist broke out, it meant the prelude to the First Carlist War. The costs of fighting the Carlists were generated by expropriation of church property. By public auctioning of the possessions these fell into the hands of the wealthy elite. It filled the coffers, but the liberal premise to fairly divide the land did not turn out to be true. In 1836, the current census suffrage that had been set by the Royal Charter of 1834, by which less than half a per cent of the population could go to the polls, brought a victory for the moderate liberals. That gave rise to fierce protests that made the regent to effectuate the Cádiz Constitution of 1812. After elections, the progressives came to power.



Isabel II
1830-1904

The Carlists, an ultra-conservative movement that made a case for restoration of the absolute monarchy under the reign of Carlos, the brother of Fernando VII, started the first war in 1834. They were particularly successful in the north where the movement had its origin, but a further advance to the south was unsuccessful. The First Carlist War ended in 1840 when General Baldomero Espartero defeated the Carlists. In 1837 a new constitution was created that offered visions on cooperation between progressive and moderate liberals.



Baldomero Espartero
1793-1878

However, they remained to distrust each other and the ensuing instability in 1840 forced the regent Maria Cristina to hand over her duties to the popular General Espartero. She could look back to a period in which the industrialization in Spain had evolved.

In Catalonia the cotton industry flourished in the Basque Country, as did the mining and metals industry in Asturias and Malaga. Of course, industrialization also brought social conflicts about, due to the mechanization that had caused unemployment among the impoverished working class. Not hampered by the monarchy, the departure of Maria Cristina enabled Espartero to achieve the goals of the progressives. The legislation regarding the expropriation of the Church and the property of the nobles was expanded. A negative aspect was the abuse made by the progressives to appoint their allies on administrative posts.

Patronage was rampant and in areas where a lot of land, thanks to the expropriations, had come into the hands of the rich and as such true oligarchies developed. Caciquismo was widely introduced. The opposition to Espartero increased and revolts broke out that gained so much momentum that Espartero fled to England in 1843.

His conservative counterpart, Field Marshal Ramón María Narváez, seized power. In 1845 he introduced a new conservative constitution that maintained the social order under the traditional hierarchy. New legislation also came about to increase the effectiveness of tax collection. A distinction was made between a direct tax in rural areas (real estate, agriculture and animal husbandry) and indirectly in urban areas (consumption).

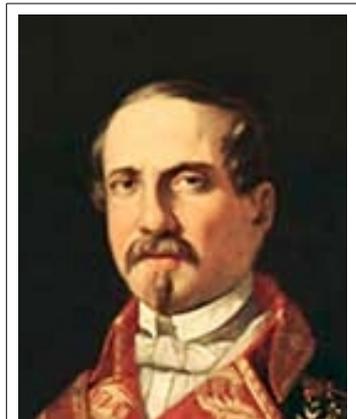


Ramón María Narváez
1800-1866

On her sixteenth birthday in 1846, Isabel got married to her cousin Francisco de Asisi. The political situation in Spain was very tense. As in other European countries, left-wing movements were on the rise that elsewhere led to the revolutions of 1848, but the threat for the Spanish government did come from the ultra-right junction of the Carlists. Their revolt in Catalonia culminated in a three-year war: la guerra dels Matiners, but pretender Carlos was

defeated. The moderate liberals ruled until 1854 and Narváez led several cabinets, which he often ruled in a dictatorial fashion. Against this rule, field marshal Leopoldo O'Donnell (a Spaniard of Irish descent) among others, rebelled and the call for the return of Espartero led to a renewed appointment of the General, with O'Donnell at his side as the Minister of War. A number of important economic laws were introduced, such as the law on Expropriation, the Railways Act and various laws on the banking system. The Railways Act gave a huge boost to the construction of railroads. Ten years later they had already built a track of 5,000 km.

Addressing the emerging labour unrest drove a wedge between Espartero and O'Donnell, which marked the end of the two-year progressive regime. At the request of Queen Isabel II, O'Donnell intervened roughly, but he refused to abolish the Expropriation laws. That gave Isabel II reason to appoint Narváez again as Cabinet Secretary that offered no problem for him. Narváez remained only short in power and he established an education law that offered plenty of room for the religious doctrine and he assigned a supervisory role to the Church.

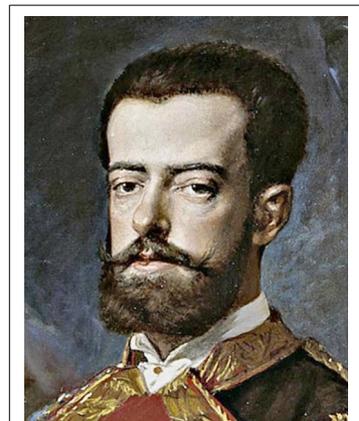


Leopoldo O'Donnell
1809-1867

The year 1857 brought joy to the court by the birth of Crown Prince Alfonso on November the 28th, but it was also a year of major socio-economic problems, due to a shortage of grain. The resulting unrest was bloodily crushed. Isabel returned to O'Donnell who in mid-1858 managed to form a government of a broad configuration. Owing to good election results he could remain in office until 1863, at the time an exceptionally long period. New legislation contributed to the modernization of the government. After the fall of O'Donnell turmoil rose again and the position of Isabel II was almost unsustainable because of her extramarital escapades. Early in 1866 Spain got into a crisis and a shortage of primary resources created an explosive environment that gave rise to both the revolution La Gloriosa and the fall of monarchy.

The First Republic 1868 - 1874

The First Spanish Republic was born during the so-called revolutionary years (the Sexenio Revolucionario), which began after the uprising La Gloriosa in September 1868. Queen Isabel II had lost all sympathy with all political parties because of her interference with daily politics and her promiscuous behaviour. She was deprived of power and went into exile. After the elections at the beginning of 1869, the moderate liberal government started with the formulation of a new constitution. The main topics were the recognition of national sovereignty and the establishment of citizens' rights. The latter was reflected in the provision that Spaniards and also foreigners adhering to a different religion than Catholicism were fully entitled to do so, provided that the performance of it was not contrary to morality. Since the existence of the monarchy was not questioned, the Prime Minister Juan Prim was searching for a new king. The choice fell on Amadeo di Savoia, or Amadeo I de España. From her exile quarters, Isabel II raised a sharp protest against the violation of the Borbóns entitlement to the throne.

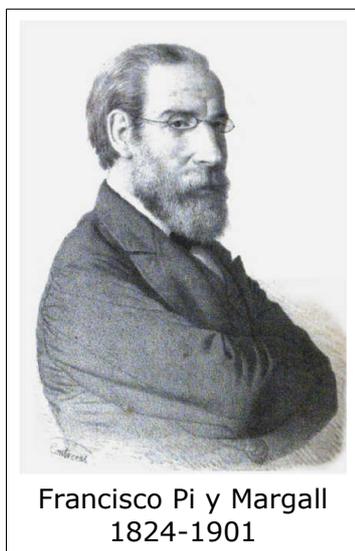


Amadeo I
1845-1890

Amadeo received a lukewarm reception in Spain where the people had meanwhile sparked various uprisings, because they were dissatisfied that the government had not kept its promises, such as ending taxes on consumption goods (consumos) and to abolish the hated system of army recruitment, the so-called quintas, a form of lottery among men who had come of age. Because it was possible to buy off conscription, with the effect that the poor were always called upon for the defence of the country. During the regime of Prim federalism emerged in Spain that advocated autonomy at all administrative levels, envisioning the establishment of a federal state like the American example. After the successful attempted murder of Prim in 1870, a very unstable period followed since the two major political leaders, the conservative Praxedes Sagasta and radical Manuel Ruiz Zorilla, were barely or not prepared for compromises.

The resulting democratic monarchy, governed by the Spanish affluent middle classes who had alienated from the poor was not a success. Stability and broad support among the population were necessary because of the increasing aggressiveness of the Carlists, the rise of the alfonsinos, a movement that supported Prince Alfonso, the son of Isabel II, as a pretender to the throne, and especially because of the growing strength of the socialist movement.

King Amadeo, who did not give in to the wishes of the armoured Spanish monarchists to seize power resigned on the 11th of February 1873 and he left the country. The First Republic was proclaimed that gave room to other ideas. The revolution consisted of three essential elements: the exchange of the monarchy for a republic, converting the confessional state for a neutral state and the choice for a state with a decentralized character. In addition, social conscience played an important role. The spiritual father of this new state concept was the federalist Francisco Pi y Margall, who got into power late in 1873.



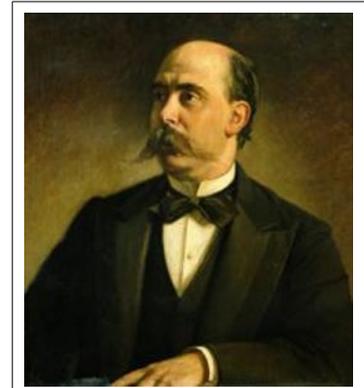
Around that time the Second Carlist War raged that had begun in 1872. The Carlists, led by pretender Carlos VII, managed to conquer large parts of northern Spain and there they even established an alternative state, based on ancient feudal attitudes. This war ended not earlier than in 1876.

In the south Pi y Margall was confronted with the so-called cantonal uprisings that got him in an awkward position. Although he was a federalist at heart, he detested movements from below that wanted to change the constitution by force. The in his view lenient attitude towards the cantonnalism of conservatives led to a forced resignation, after which the conservative Nicolás Salmerón got even with the insurgents in a most severe manner.

Cartagena was the last city to surrender in 1874, after it was virtually levelled to the ground by bombing.

Another issue that played in the background during the existence of the First Republic was the emerging liberation movement in Cuba and Puerto Rico that in 1868 led to declarations of independence in the two colonies. In Cuba, a resistance war had started that would last ten years, ending with the recognition of the island as a province of Spain, the liberation of slaves and the expansion of civil rights.

The debates in the Cortes on a new constitution began in 1873. A committee chaired by Emilio Castelar had prepared the concept. The starting point was the unitary state, the Nación Española, where seventeen individual states would exist (the term canton was carefully avoided): thirteen on the Iberian Peninsula, two island states (Balearic and Canary Islands) and two American states (Cuba and Puerto Rico), the other Spanish territories such as the Philippines remained outside the system for the time being. Three levels of government had been identified, the national level of the federal state, the regional level of the states and the municipalities. The two lower levels experienced its own sovereignty or autonomy, however it was limited by the competences and duties of the levels above. This autonomy of the lower levels was ample. Thus states could formulate their own constitutions, provided they did not conflict with the national constitution. The municipalities enjoyed full administrative and economic independence.



Emilio Castelar
1832-1899

Castelar, who was appointed president in September 1873, could not convince his conservative opponents of the importance of his proposals. He had to step down as the military staged a coup and relinquished the power in the hands of conservative governors who, for that matter, were unable to create stability. It was the monarchist Antonio Cánovas del Castillo who intervened and called upon the son of Isabel II, the young prince Alfonso who stayed in London, to sign the manifesto of Sandhurst that included a blueprint developed by Cánovas for the establishment of a constitutional monarchy of Roman Catholic cut. After the publication of this manifesto in Spain, the military organized a rebellion late in 1874, proclaiming Alfonso XII as their king. The First Republic had come to an end and Cánovas del Castillo began the restoration of the monarchy.

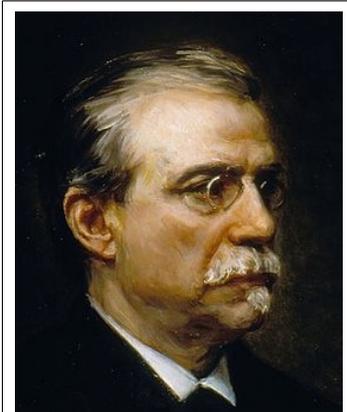
Restoration and the disaster of '98 1874 - 1900

In 1874, the First Spanish Republic drew to a close and the monarchy restored under the reign of Alfonso XII. That was the work of the historian Antonio Cánovas del Castillo, who during the last quarter of the nineteenth century was undoubtedly the most influential politician of Spain. He created a new monarchical system, which housed a conservative coloured, but nevertheless, liberal-capitalist system in which the primacy of politics was controlled by the Government and the Cortes, with the king as the guardian of the liberal state.



Alfonso XII
1857-1885

The final piece of the political doctrine of Cánovas was the creation of a system that enabled the conservative and more progressive coloured movements to alternate as the ruling party. If a particular party was no longer pulling the reins, the king was asked to dismiss the government and dissolve the Cortes. The subsequent manipulation of the elections automatically brought the other party



Antonio Cánovas del
Castillo
1828-1897

to power. This system, the so-called *turnismo*, had the advantage that it had ensured the survival of the monarchy and that it provided the necessary stability after decades of blazing uprisings. The *turnismo* was mainly sustained by local *caciques* that committed electoral fraud on a large scale. This cheat is known in Spain as *el pucherazo*, derived from the word *puchero*, or the 'box' in which they kept the fraud votes, to be added to the voting boxes. The term is still in vogue today.

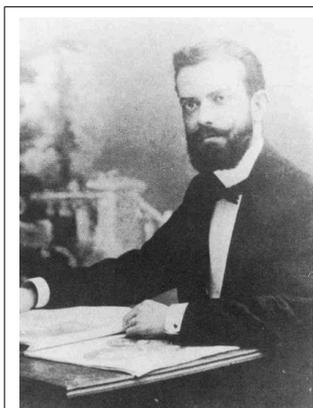
In order to ensure that the desired political system could function properly it was essential that both the conservatives, as well as the progressives, were inclined to the formation of new parties that endorsed this model. This meant that Cánovas himself united the moderate liberals in the *Partido Conservador*, while at the left Praxedes Sagasta forged progressive groups in the *Partido Liberal*. In 1876, a new constitution was established which stipulated that the sovereignty of Spain was a part to be conferred to the king and the Cortes.

From 1874 to early 1881, Canovas ruled with an iron fist and this period is also called the *dictadura canovista*. The end of the Second Carlist War (1876) and of the ten-year war of liberation in Cuba (1878) contributed to the image of a government that knew how to put things in order and was able to maintain the peace. Characteristically of the Government of Cánovas was his curtailment of press freedom and freedom of assembly and association.

In 1881, owing to *turnismo*, Sagasta came to power, who restored civil rights and put the state budget in order. During his reign the previously established *Institución Libre de Enseñanza* got a practical dimension. The starting point of this institute was the philosophy of the German Karl Krause and it became a renowned centre for educational innovation. After a brief government intermezzo led by *Izquierda Dinástica*, a division of the Partido Liberal, Cánovas became again the Prime Minister.

Alfonso XII died at the end of the year 1885. At that time, his wife Maria Christina von Österreich was pregnant. Cánovas and Sagasta agreed that they would take the regency upon them. In May 1886, a boy was born: Alfonso XIII. Until his majority in 1902, conservatives and progressives alternated seven times as part of the *turnismo*. In 1887, during the reign of Sagasta, they adopted an important law that not only anchored the right to associate, but also the right to undertake collective actions. This law got international acclaim for its progressive nature and is of great significance for the development of the labour movement. It was a huge boost for the establishment of the trade unions in 1888, such as the *Unión General de Trabajadores* (UGT). In 1890, universal suffrage was reintroduced for adult men (the first time was in 1869). Formally the reintroduction of universal suffrage signified the confirmation of the democratic level of the Spanish nation, but in practice the *turnismo* continued to hold the upper hand with the associated large-scale manipulation of election results. Still control prevailed from above and there was hardly any evidence of political influence by the people.

Towards the end of the nineteenth century the independence movements in the colonies (Cuba, Puerto Rico and the Philippines) grew in strength, whereas they received support from the United States who had already made it known through President Monroe in 1823 that the Caribbean islands were part of the Americas. In 1897, Spain granted autonomy to Cuba and Puerto Rico, but it brought no



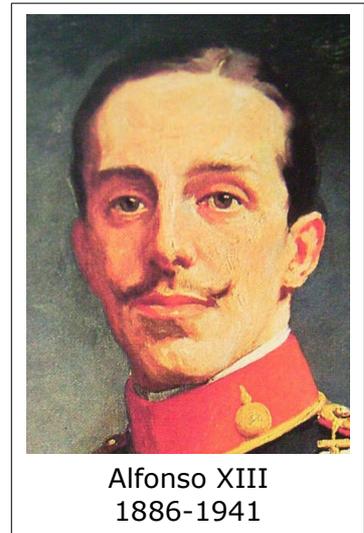
Pablo Iglesias
1850-1925

peace, mainly because of the explosion of the American cruiser *Maine* in the harbour of Havana. Its cause has never been revealed, but the US blamed Spain, after which the Spanish-American war ensued that ended in a major defeat for Spain. The peace treaty of Paris, signed on the 10th of December 1898, brought Cuba's independence whereas Puerto Rico, the Philippines and Guam (part of the Mariana Islands in the Pacific) passed into American hands. Materially, but its prestige in particular, the once mighty Spanish Empire had nothing else left but their possessions in Morocco. During the colonial wars, protests were raised in Spain, especially by the former Prime Minister Pi y Margall and Pablo Iglesias, founder of the *Partido Socialista Obrero Español* (PSOE). In Barcelona, people were killed in a bomb attack and many innocents were imprisoned and tortured. It was in this atmosphere that an anarchist assassinated Prime Minister Cánovas del Castillo in 1897.

Regeneration, war and dictatorship 1900 - 1931

After the disastrous year of 1898, in which Spain lost the war with the US and lost its overseas colonies, all were actually convinced of the need for political reconstruction. Regeneration thinking was introduced. There were two movements, a movement of intellectuals and politicians who favoured a clear and scientifically sound renovation, and a movement of writers and artists who preferred their own points of view. This second movement, the generation of '98 were more pessimistic about it, and the philosopher José Ortega y Gasset later called them the Doom Generation. He belonged to the optimistic-minded movement that at the beginning of the First World War presented themselves as: the Generation of '14, the generation of hope.

Serious efforts were made for the financial and economic rehabilitation of the country. Antonio Maura, leader of the Partido Conservador, tried to achieve that by introducing managerial changes at the top, while his colleague from the progressive Partido Liberal, José Canalejas was aiming at reforms in a democratic way, from the bottom up. Canalejas also recognized the importance of dialogue with the labour movement. In 1902, Alfonso XIII actually accepted royalty at the adult age of sixteen. He interfered emphatically with government affairs and he usually stood in line with the military. He married the British Princess Victoria Eugenie of Battenberg in 1906. Their third child was Juan, grandfather of the present King Felipe VI.

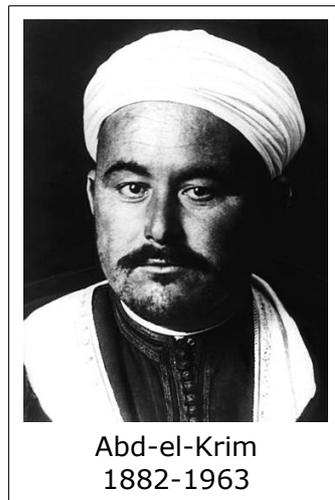


In 1909, war broke out in Morocco, the Melilla war, as the result of an attack by natives on workers employed by Spanish mine operators. The decision by Maura to call up large numbers of reservists led to serious incidents in Barcelona, known as the Tragic Week. In a climate where republicanism and anticlericalism was rapidly growing among workers and where anarchists were not shy of violence, the incidents grew into a revolt that was crushed by the Civil Guard and the military. Protests against Maura at home and abroad induced the king to appoint Canalejas as prime minister. At the 1910 election for the first time a socialist was elected in the Cortes: Pablo Iglesias, founder of the PSOE (1879). Canalejas encouraged collective bargaining between employers and employees and focused on improving working conditions. In 1912 an anarchist killed him.

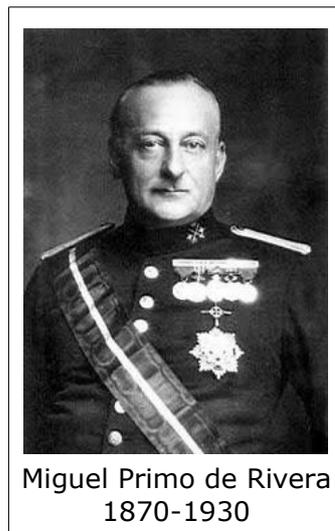
In 1914, the First World War broke out, in which Spain remained neutral. For Spain it signified that the war had opened a foreign market, which also accelerated the Spanish economy. But migration to the big cities and the rising inflation caused social unrest that culminated in the great revolutionary strike of 1917, organized by the PSOE and the UGT (the national trade union).

The strike ended in a failure and many leading socialists were arrested, among them Julian Besteiro of the PSOE and Francisco Largo Caballero of the UGT. After their release, the leaders of the strike were able to obtain a seat in the Cortes at the polls in 1918. After the strike of 1917, the labour unrest precipitated further and the unions grew in size, in particular the anarchist union, the CNT, established in 1910. Strikes were rampant. Not only the improvement of working conditions were the issue, but trade unions also demanded to stop the archaic ownership relations.

After World War I, a fierce struggle loomed between the Spanish troops and rebellious natives in the Spanish-Moroccan protectorate. This so-called Rif War culminated in 1921 with the battle at Annual, where the followers of the Rif leader Abd el-Krim crushed the Spanish armies. Of course, the army leadership was strongly blamed for this, nor did they spare Alfonso XIII from criticism. The socialist MP, Indalecio Prieto, flatly put the blame of Annual on the monarchy.



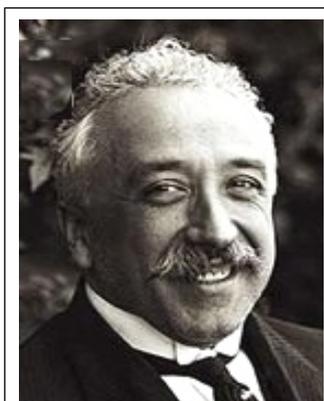
Backed by the king, General Manuel Primo de Rivera committed a coup in 1923. The constitution was dissolved, the Cortes sent home and the Military Directorate took over the government of the country. Inspired by the way Mussolini had given shape to the Italian state, Primo de Rivera chose to ban all the political parties and to proceed to a one party system: the Unión Patriótica. Freedom of the press was restricted, the use of languages other than Castilian prohibited, as well as the display of regional symbols as the Basque flag. The battle for power in North Africa was resumed and after a major offensive the Rif War ended in 1926 with the surrender of Abd el-Krim. The popularity that Primo de Rivera received because of his success in Morocco enabled him to venture perpetuating his regime by giving it a more civilian character. He replaced the Military Directorate by a civilian administration, the Civil Directorate. Primo de Rivera had big plans regarding socio-economics: a combination of state intervention in the economy and a program of social reforms. He wanted to achieve these reforms through a corporatist model of harmonious co-operation between employers and employees, for which he sought and received the support from the UGT leader, Largo Caballero.



Gradually the criticism of intellectuals on the dictator increased and in 1926 the army also began to show signs of discontent because of the open system of promotions, launched by Primo de Rivera (not based on seniority). In December 1929, Primo de Rivera gave up and offered his resignation. Abandoned by everyone and exhausted he moved to Paris where he died in solitude a few months later. In 1931, municipal elections took place, which resulted in a victory for the Republican Party in the cities. April 14 was the day; the king abdicated and went into exile.

The Second Republic 1931 - 1936

Following the resignation of King Alfonso XIII in 1931, the Second Spanish Republic was proclaimed. This was made possible by a combination of different political movements. Centre-right, led by Niceto Alcalá Zamora, leader of the *Derecha Liberal Republicana*, pursued a moderate liberal course and he did not want social reforms and changes too rigorously in regard with the relationship of the Church and State. The second right movement was the *Partido Republicano Radical* of Alejandro Lerroux, whose goal was the separation of Church and State, as well as a free market economy. The left-Republicans of *Acción Republicana*, led by Manuel Azaña saw the birth of the republic as an opportunity to



Niceto Alcalá Zamora
1880-1949

achieve basic economic, social and political reforms. The Socialists, finally united in the *Partido Socialista Obrero Español*, favoured a gradual, non-revolutionary transition to a socialist society. Soon a battle emerged within the PSOE about what course to follow between the pragmatic democrat Indalecio Prieto and the revolutionary-minded Francisco Largo Caballero.

The proposal by the republican government for a new constitution caused fierce debates on land reform and the position of the Church. Anticlerical measures, such as separation of the Church and State, expulsion of Jesuits and the ban on the congregations to provide education, led to the departure of the faithful Alcalá Zamora as government leader. To avoid a split in the ranks, they offered the presidency to him. Azaña succeeded Alcalá Zamora as prime minister.



Manuel Azaña
1880-1940

Of course the Catholics and monarchists did not endorse the measures taken by the leftist government. For the first time in the Spanish history right-wing Catholics united in a political organization, the Confederación Española de Derechas Autónomas (CEDA), which offered strong opposition against the leftist government, but they were not inclined to unleash riots.

The only attempt came from General Jose Sanjurjo in 1932. It was poorly prepared and quickly suppressed by the government. A far more serious threat to the government was the revolutionary-minded anarchists with their violent actions.

After several insurgent peasant workers had been executed by the police in the village of Casa Viejas, early in 1933, opposition increased towards the course the Azaña government had taken, which put the lid on for Alcalá Zamora and he ordered a general election that resulted into a resounding victory for the right-wing CEDA. Instead of appointing its leader, José María Gil Robles, to form the government, he appointed Lerroux Prime Minister, who compiled a cabinet of representatives of his own party. Lerroux was forced to steer a right course in order to secure parliamentary support of the CEDA.

In the fall of 1934, a general uprising erupted that had been instigated by the left-revolutionary forces, by which Largo Caballer, also known as the Spanish Lenin, tried to cut off the road to power for CEDA. The revolt did not materialize, except in Catalonia and Asturias. In Barcelona, the Catalan president Lluís Companys proclaimed the Catalan state within the republic and in Asturias a revolutionary regime was installed. In Catalonia it all ended quickly and Lluís Companys was incarcerated, but in Asturias a real civil war started when government forces, led by General Francisco Franco cracked down the revolution.

In the Lerroux government five CEDA ministers were appointed, among whom Gil-Robles who became the minister of the War Office. He annulled the reorganization plans that were developed by Azaña and he appointed General Franco as Chief of the general staff. Other initiatives from the previous period, such as land reform were repealed. Attempts to change the Constitution failed because of the downfall of the government, owing to a budget issue. The stability of the government team was seriously jeopardised when it appeared that Lerroux was involved in a major corruption affair, called the Straperlo scandal, and named after an illegally imported gamble. The CEDA provoked a government crisis, hoping that Gil Robles would be appointed as Prime Minister, but President Alcalá Zamora, fearing violent reactions of the leftists, was steering at new elections that indeed took place on the 16th of February 1936, at which the leftist Popular Front and the CEDA were facing each other as opponents. The People's Front won and again Azaña came to power. Since the Socialists did not want to cooperate with civilian politicians, Azaña formed a minority government that almost entirely consisted of members of his own party.



José María Gil Robles
1898-1980

Meanwhile, mutual violence severely increased between right-wing groups like the Falange and the left-Revolutionaries and anarchists, whereas Azaña failed to act stringently, particularly against attacks on churches and monasteries by the supporters of the extreme left. Unemployment rose alarmingly and as such labour unrest followed. The revolutionaries bided their time to seize power and the army was preparing to intervene.

Early in April 1936, Alcalá Zamora was ousted and Azaña elected president. Prieto, the man who had orchestrated this would rather see Azaña disappear from active politics in order to pave the way for a prime minister of a broader composed cabinet that could act more decisively. Prieto had wanted that role for himself, but again his own party, the PSOE, prevented this. The followers of Largo Caballero remained adamant and wanted to collaborate exclusively with revolutionary left, not the Republicans. Another minority government took office, watching virtually impotently that street violence had intensified. For the military this was where they drew the line and the assassination on the 13th of July of the monarchist leader José Calvo Sotelo was the straw that broke the camel's back. The revolt of the military, led by General Emilio Mola Vidal, began and the Civil War broke out.

The Spanish Civil War 1936 - 1939

In 1936, political tensions in Spain were growing to a climax. As a result of the political fragmentation and the inability of politicians to compromise, they failed to form a stable government that could put an end to the growing street violence. The military decided to rebel, the people asked for weapons and war broke out. No one thought, or hoped for a protracted conflict, but it turned out differently. The rebels won after three years of embittered struggles and a period of thirty-six years of dictatorship ensued.



Emilio Mola Vidal
1887-1937

On the evening of the 16th of July 1936, the leader of the rebels, General Emilio Mola, launched the military revolt. The rebels seized Morocco, whereas in the Peninsula a wide area from the centre and the north of the country fell in their hands. In some towns and enclaves that were situated in republican territory, like Oviedo in the north and Seville and Cádiz in the south, the rebels managed to achieve a victory, which created an important

bridgehead in the south. In the main cities, such as Barcelona and Madrid, the insurgency failed. Two days later, the government decided to hand out weapons to the people and the Civil War broke out. Franco arrived in Morocco on the 19th of July where he, supported by Italy and Germany, realized the first airlift in the military history. The Nationalist troops rapidly advanced towards the north, conquering Badajoz and approaching the capital.

To everyone's surprise, Franco, who was meanwhile appointed as Supreme Commander (Generalísimo) of the nationalists, stopped the advance and decided to relieve first the Alcázar of Toledo where the Military Academy was located. That may have cost him a rapid conquest of the capital, but Franco was not a man who wanted to take excessive risks.

In September President Manuel Azaña appointed the Socialist Francisco Largo Caballero as prime minister of a leftist government who started with the reorganization of the army to Russian model, buying on a large-scale weapons from the Soviets, for which he deployed the Spanish gold reserve. These weapons arrived at the same time as the first International Brigades did. After the attack on Madrid had started in October, the government fled early in November to Valencia, leaving the city in the care of a *Junta de Defensa*. Soon afterwards, a massacre was perpetrated under nationalist prisoners who were regarded as the fifth column of Franco. Madrid held its ground thanks to the efforts of scores of volunteers. A second attempt by Franco to conquer the city from the southeast failed. His troops were defeated in Guadalajara in March 1937. Franco then turned his gaze to the north and began an attack on the very important mining and industrial areas. In this battle the Carlist requêtes fought on the side of the nationalists against their Basque fellow believers.

The decisive factor was the dominance the nationalists had in the air, owing to the deployment of the German Condor Legion. In April, the town of Guernica was bombed, with hundreds of casualties and the road to the north seemed to be open to Franco. When the leftist opposition defeated the nationalist rebels in Barcelona in July 1936, the anarchists, led by Buenaventura Durruti, had the actual control of the city. Almost a year later, the government decided to take over the power it had lost, which led to internal fighting within the leftist block. Communists' pressure caused Largo Caballero to resign office and Juan Negrín, a socialist who was friendly with the Communists, took his place.



In order to distract Franco's attention from the North, the Republicans, on advice of the increasing influence of the prevailing communists, unleashed mid-1937 two offensives, in San Ildefonso and in Huesca, which in both instances ended in a failure. In July, Bilbao fell, after which the Republicans attacked Brunete in order to prevent a quick charge on Madrid by the nationalists. Against the advice of his military leaders Franco took up the fight. The northern provinces, for that matter, were strategically of a greater importance than the little village of Brunete, however, this was Franco's distinctive manner to wage war.

Every inch of ground that the enemy had captured he wanted to retrieve and wherever he occupied the land he cleansed the population from revolutionary elements. Having defeated the republicans, Franco resumed his offensive in the north and in September Santander surrendered, which gave him access to important war industries.

In 1937, the republicans attacked two more times and each time they lost the battle mainly because of the superiority of Franco's air force. The first defeat was in September on the eastern Aragon front in Belchite and the second at the turn of the year in the battle of Teruel, which battle was fought at a temperature of minus 20° C. In March 1938, the nationalists broke through to the Mediterranean coast, thereby splitting the republican zone, to advance towards Valencia (the Levant Offensive). It was there that they met fierce resistance. In fact, with this purely defensive operation the Republicans were far better off than with the only hitherto won offensive performance: the Battle of Guadalajara in 1937, a victory at the cost of huge losses.

It is striking that after the debacles of the attacks in Brunete, Belchite and Teruel, the republicans still had not learned from these events and did not change to a much more effective defence strategy as deployed in the Levant Offensive. Instead, they again chose for the attack: the Ebro Offensive in the summer of 1938, where the Republican army was virtually destroyed. Around Christmas of that year, the nationalists conquered Barcelona, at which President Azaña fled to France, and in his wake half a million refugees.



At the beginning of 1939 again an armed conflict arose within the leftist camp when General Sigismundo Casado and the Socialist Julián Besteiro seized power and communist supporters of Prime Minister Negrín and those of Casado clashed in Madrid. Casado tried to come to negotiations with Franco, but Franco responded with the demand for an unconditional surrender. On March the 28th, Franco's troops marched into Madrid at which the formal surrender of the republicans followed. The congratulatory telegram from the Vatican to the Generalísimo testified profound gratitude to the man who had said many times that the Civil War was not a war, but a crusade.

Colophon

© Casa Cultural (www.casacultural.nl)

Amsterdam, March 2017

Original title: Historie van Spanje in Vogelvlucht

Translation by Bas Hendrix

© Casa Cultural