

## Chapter 1 : Spain and the Jews - 19th Century On

*19th century Historical Context. The 19th century is a century of change in Spain. The liberal movements and ideals that came from the French Revolution at the end of the 18th century prompted the Spanish to fight for their rights.*

Enjoy the Famous Daily Bourbon dynasty: The resulting European war takes place largely in the Netherlands, Germany and northern Italy. Within Spain itself, where the year-old king arrives in as Philip V, there is at first relative calm. Philip wins immediate support in the central regions of the kingdom. But from the allies those fighting for the Habsburgs against the Bourbons in this dynastic war begin to make inroads on the peripheral areas of Spain. Gibraltar is captured in . In the following year the regions of the north and east Aragon, Catalonia, Valencia declare themselves for the Habsburg cause and are occupied by imperial troops - who even advance far enough to seize Madrid for two months during the summer of . Thereafter the Bourbon forces steadily regain control, starting with a major victory at Almansa in . A successful campaign in leaves Philip V in control of the whole of the Spanish kingdom except Catalonia - a region long inclined to independence and doing its best to seize this opportunity. In many ways this represents an improvement, since French bureaucracy is superior to that of Spain. Moreover the support of outlying regions for the Habsburg cause provides a welcome pretext for centralization, removing the traditional liberties still enjoyed by these medieval Spanish kingdoms. In other respects the arrival of Philip makes relatively little difference to Spain. In imperial and commercial concerns Philip also follows the policy of his predecessors. France persuades Spain to join her in a succession of wars during the century, signing agreements which become known as Family Compacts. However Spain uses these conflicts, and the resulting treaties, mainly to secure her possessions in Italy. Its main result, for Spain, is the loss of Florida. These events suggest that the Spanish kingdom, dominant in Europe during the 16th and much of the 17th century, is by now playing a minor role. However the Spanish empire in Latin America remains important and intact. Charles III, ruling from to with the reforming principles of an enlightened despot , lifts trade restrictions in Latin American ports and achieves spectacular results. European trade with Spanish America grows during the s by several hundred percent. In the same period Spain is once more engaged in war against Britain again as an ally of France, this time in support of the American colonies. On this occasion there are certain clear benefits. Minorca is won back from the British in , and Florida in . Later Florida is sold to the USA in . From the s and into the next century the Bourbon alliance involves Spain in yet more wars. But these now prove considerably more dangerous and costly, during the French Revolution and the Napoleonic era. Charles IV and Godoy: In , the year before the revolution, Charles IV succeeds to the throne. He does so only because his elder brother is considered unfit to rule, but he is himself somewhat feeble - and singularly unable to stand up to his strong-willed wife, Maria Luisa of Parma. Theirs is the royal family which stares out, gawky and rosy-cheeked, from the canvases of Goya. By the time Charles inherits the throne, his wife has already taken as her lover an impoverished aristocrat, Manuel de Godoy, who is a member of the royal bodyguard. Ambitious and ruthlessly self-serving, Godoy is by a field marshal, a duke, the first secretary of state and the real power in the land. A French army advances into Spain, and in Godoy makes peace in the treaty of Basel. For this his grateful king creates him Principe de la Paz Prince of the Peace. In reality it has been a costly climb down. Santo Domingo is ceded to France, though never in fact handed over. A year later, with the treaty of San Ildefonso, Spain meekly changes sides and becomes an ally of France. This brings the enmity of Britain and a succession of disasters - the loss of Trinidad and of Minorca , and defeat for the Spanish navy off Cape St Vincent and at Trafalgar . But he is back in power by . Six years later, in a deal with Napoleon by which he hopes to secure for himself a large slice of Portugal, the much hated Godoy surpasses himself and brings catastrophe to his country. He despatches an army for the purpose and summons Spanish envoys to Fontainebleau. In a treaty signed at Fontainebleau, on October 27, the partition of Portugal is agreed. France is to have the central section, including Lisbon and Oporto. The north will be granted to the young duke of Parma in return for his valuable kingdom of Etruria or in plain terms Tuscany , which will be ceded to France. Even before the treaty is signed a French army has entered Spain on its way to Portugal - where its imminent arrival near Lisbon causes panic.

A Portuguese fleet, accompanied by a British squadron, sails from the mouth of the Tagus on 29 November. The vanguard of the French army enters the capital city the next day. It will be fourteen years before the return to Lisbon of a Portuguese monarch. But the French are to have only a very short tenure. Their intrusion launches the Peninsular War. Before a year is out, the British are in the city. Meanwhile the French are stirring up further trouble for themselves elsewhere in the Iberian peninsula. Troops move from France into northern Spain, ostensibly to support their colleagues in Portugal but looking alarmingly like an army of occupation. In February they seize Barcelona. In mid-March a force under Murat moves south towards Madrid. But on the way south an outraged patriotic mob corners the royal party at Aranjuez. They escape with their lives only when it is agreed that Charles will abdicate in favour of his son Ferdinand, and that the hated Godoy will be imprisoned and brought to trial. The new king immediately spoils his own chances by returning to Madrid, reaching it on March 24 - just one day after Murat has arrived and captured the city. There follows a typical piece of power play by Napoleon. He has already selected his brother Joseph, who at present is king of Naples a dignity now to be transferred to Murat. This is politics at its most cynical. But just a few days earlier a much more significant event has occurred in Madrid. A furious mob attacks them. The soldiers disperse the crowd with some rounds of shot, whereupon the whole of Madrid erupts in an explosion of popular rage. More than thirty French officers and hundreds of soldiers and civilians are killed or wounded before order is restored. This spirit spreads rapidly through Spain. Instead of the docile monarchy of recent years, Napoleon is now confronted on his southern border by a popular uprising. His brother Joseph arrives in Madrid on July 20 to enjoy his new dignity. Cadiz and the Liberal constitution: The leaders of the nationalist opposition withdraw to relative safety in the south, in Cadiz, where they set up a newly elected Cortes. It is a radical body in that it accommodates for the first time delegates representing the Spanish provinces in Latin America. And it provides the first clash between the two great rival political allegiances of the 19th century, Liberals and conservatives - though in Spain at this time they are identified as Liberales and Serviles. The Liberales easily prevail in Cadiz, and in the Cortes passes a thoroughly liberal constitution. Suppressing the remnants of feudalism in Spain and abolishing the Inquisition may be popular measures, but steps beyond this - particularly any designed to reduce the role of the church in Spanish life - are less likely to please the people. The Cadiz constitution is considerably more radical than most in Spain would wish. When the events permit the return of the king, Ferdinand VII, the condition imposed by the Cortes is his acceptance of the constitution of . He restores absolute rule and savagely persecutes his liberal opponents. But in doing so he provokes a chain reaction. His behaviour alienates many royalists in Latin America and thus hastens the liberation movements which are already under way. But when Ferdinand then proposes to send an army across the Atlantic to suppress the rebellious colonists, with enthusiastic support promised by fellow rulers in the Holy Alliance , the indignation in Spain is enough to prompt another successful liberal revolution in January . Ferdinand now finds himself the prisoner of a liberal faction which forces him once again to accept the constitution of . This time his appeal for help to the Holy Alliance is on his own behalf. Help duly arrives in , in the form of an army from France. Within weeks Ferdinand is freed he has been taken to Cadiz as a prisoner of the Cortes. It continues until his death in . It is a time of ceaseless struggle between rival royal lines, the regions and the centre, liberals and conservatives. For most of his reign it has been assumed that he will be succeeded by his brother, Don Carlos. Carlos is even more reactionary in his views than Ferdinand, so the conflict between the two branches of the family becomes associated also with a political division within Spain. The ancient tradition of Castile is that women can inherit the first Isabella being a notable example , but the Salic law is adopted in an act of and is then discarded again in a less authoritative pragmatic sanction of Charles IV in . Each side can therefore claim some legal justification in the first Carlist war, which breaks out in and lasts for six years. Descendants of Don Carlos each called Carlos in succeeding generations keep their dynastic claim alive through a succession of abortive uprisings in the mid-century and another full-scale civil war in . This second Carlist war takes place after the end of the reign of Isabella II, whose inheritance of the crown at the age of three has sparked the Carlist reaction. In a mounting atmosphere of discontent, a naval mutiny in Cadiz in finally sparks a nation-wide revolution. Isabella II abdicates and withdraws to France with her year-old son Alfonso. The Cortes, assembling in , votes for a continuation of the monarchy under a different monarch. The Carlists

naturally have their own candidate, but the wish of the majority is for a king outside the Bourbon dynasty. The crown is offered first to a Hohenzollern an action which sparks the Franco-Prussian war of and is eventually accepted by an Italian prince - Amadeo, younger son of Victor Emmanuel II. But the Cortes, disgusted for the moment with all royal pretensions, now declares a republic. The result is civil war.

## Chapter 2 : History of Spain during the Nineteenth Century

*Spain in the 19th century was a country in turmoil. Occupied by Napoleon from 1808 to 1814, a massively destructive "war of independence" ensued, driven by an emergent Spanish nationalism.*

They founded a chain of trading settlements along the coast on islands and peninsulas. The Iberians gave the Phoenicians silver in return for wine and olive oil as well as jewelry. The people of Spain were heavily influenced by Phoenician culture. The Greeks also traded with Spain the Iberians were also influenced by Greek culture. A Phoenician colony in North Africa called Carthage rose to be powerful and important. However the Carthaginians made a treaty with Spain. They agreed not to expand north of the River Ebro. Yet in 219 BC the Carthaginians took the town of Saguntum. It was south of the Ebro but the Romans claimed Saguntum was their ally and they ordered the Carthaginian general, Hannibal to withdraw. He refused and war ensued. By 201 BC the Carthaginians were gone from Spain. However the Iberians wanted independence and they rebelled against the Romans. Rome sent a man named Cato who regained control of most of Spain. Nevertheless the Iberians continued to resist and fighting continued for nearly years. Resistance finally ended when the Cantabrians were defeated in 19 BC. Afterwards Spain was gradually integrated into the Roman Empire. The Romans built a network of roads and founded towns and Spain became highly civilized. Under Roman rule Spain became prosperous. Mining was an important industry. Gold and silver were exported. So were olives, grapes and grain. Roman Spain also exported a fish sauce called garum. However in 409 AD raiders from North Africa swept into Spain. There were further attacks at the beginning of the 3rd century. In any case from the mid-3rd century the Roman Empire gradually declined. Meanwhile the people of Roman Spain were gradually converted to Christianity. Visigoth Spain By the beginning of the 5th century the Roman Empire was crumbling and Germanic peoples invaded. However another Germanic people, the Visigoths became allies of the Romans. In 409 they invaded Spain. They defeated the Alans but then withdrew into France. Most of Spain came under the rule of the Visigoths. After one small part of Northeast Spain was left under Roman control. However in 509 the Visigoths took it over. In 529 King Reccared became a Catholic and in 589 King Recceswinth made a single code of law for his kingdom. In Spain learning was preserved in the monasteries. In the 6th century Saint Isidore of Seville lived in Spain. He was a brilliant scholar. He wrote many books including works on history, theology, grammar, geography and astronomy. However the Visigoth kings were never very strong. The Visigoth kingdom in Spain suffered from internal divisions and in the end it was easy prey for the Moors. The Muslim army quickly advanced and by 711 most of Spain was under their control. The Muslims called the country al-Andalus, which became Andalusia. Between the 9th and 11th centuries Christian kingdoms emerged in northern Spain. Aragon, Castile and Navarre. The kingdoms of Aragon and Castile gradually expanded south. They were greatly helped by disunity among the Muslims. The Castilians captured Toledo in 1085 and in the 12th century they continued to advance. By 1492 only Granada, the southernmost part of Spain remained in Muslim hands. Medieval Spain was a cosmopolitan society with a mixed population of Christians, Muslims and Jews. Furthermore the 13th century was a prosperous time for Spain. Trade and commerce flourished. However in the 14th century there were wars between Christians and Muslims. The Christians won a decisive victory at the Battle of Salado in 1212. The Aragonese captured the Balearic Islands in 1249. Then in the Black Death reached Spain and it decimated the population. In the late 14th century Jews in Spain faced a wave of persecution. In 1391 a pogrom began in Seville and it spread to other cities. Persecution forced many Jews to convert to Christianity. Meanwhile in 1469 Ferdinand, heir of Aragon married Isabel, heir of Castile. Isabel became Queen of Castile in 1474 and Ferdinand became king of Aragon in 1479. In 1492 they began a war against Granada, the last Muslim stronghold in Spain. Granada surrendered in 1492. Then in 1512 Navarre was absorbed and Spain became a united country. In 1500 the king and queen ordered all Jews to convert to Christianity or leave Spain. Many chose to leave. The Spanish Inquisition was formed in 1498. In Spain at that time there were Jews who had converted to Christianity and Moriscos Muslims who had converted to Christianity. Both groups were suspected of practicing their old religion in secret. Torture was sometimes used to obtain confessions. The Spanish Inquisition also persecuted Protestants. He believed he could reach Asia by sailing across the Atlantic.

However Columbus underestimated the size of the earth and landed in the West Indies. Columbus made 4 voyages across the Atlantic and Spain began to build an empire in North and South America. Trade and commerce flourished and agriculture expanded. However all did not go smoothly. When Ferdinand died in his grandson became Charles I He was already ruler of Belgium and the Netherlands and he was heir to realms in Austria and Southern Germany. At that time there was no single German state. So the king of Spain was very powerful. However in there was a rebellion in Castile. However the rebels were defeated at Vaillalar in April Yet abroad Spain went from strength to strength. In Hernando Cortes conquered the Aztecs of Mexico. The same year, , Magellan discovered the Philippines. Then in Francisco Pizarro conquered the Incas of Peru. Furthermore in Spain annexed Portugal. The New World provided Spain with huge amounts of treasure. In the 16th century , kilograms of gold and 7. However the sheer size of the Spanish Empire and the very long lines of communication made it difficult to control. Yet even though gold and silver were flowing into Spain the Spanish kings faced financial problems largely because of the cost of fighting wars. During the 16th century the Spaniards fought the Turks and the French. From The Netherlands, which were ruled by Spain, rebelled and began a long war of independence. Furthermore from to Spain also fought the English. The 16th century was a great age for literature in Spain. The greatest writers were Miguel Cervantes who wrote Don Quixote published in and Lope de Vega The 16th century was also a great age for architecture in Spain. Therefore in he expelled the Moriscos from Spain. During the 17th century the power of Spain declined sharply and parts of its great empire broke away. The Dutch won a great naval victory at the Battle of the Downs in

### Chapter 3 : A Brief History of Spain

*18th century Historical Context. The 18th century and Enlightenment in Spain starts with the Succession War (). Charles II was the last of the Habsburgs, and he was childless.*

Home Spanish Food History 19th Century 19th Century Those who study Spanish in Spain, might well have their interest peaked by the lovely beaches and enviable weather to be found in Spain, or even by the famous Spanish food. Spain received many visitors in the 19th century who traveled through the country and then described the Spanish gastronomic customs and dishes their travel books. However not everyone was a fan of Spanish cooking, and some chronicles have a rather negative tone, especially when referring to an excess of garlic and far too much oil. The 19th century was one of great French influence in the Spanish cooking, due to many factors, including the Bourbon ruling dynasty who decided what was cooked in the courts kitchens. In many cases French recipe books were translated to Spanish while in France a renovation of the culinary arts called *cuisine classique*. In all honesty, it hardly affected the cuisine that was being served in the Spanish courts, who preferred to stick to the old cooking methods of the previous centuries. Sadly the cookbooks used at the time were nothing more than mere translations from French to Spanish, and they did not contribute information about the Spanish gastronomic customs. There is a notorious difference, however, between the high class French style court gastronomy and the popular Spanish cooking served inns, eateries, lodges, taverns, public houses, etc. The lower classes gastronomy was grounded in centuries old traditions and received little or no influence from French cuisine. This kind of food was not the taste of the travelers palates. But there were places where the wealthier classes could eat too. It was their need for cold drinks, specially in Madrid, that contributed to the elaboration of crushed ice drinks, such as sherbets, ice-creams and horchatas from Valencia. Cold drinks became all the rage in Spain, even though doctors could not decide on whether they should recommend or discourage their consumption. In a new classy restaurant opened in the centre of the city of Madrid. It was called *Lhardy*, and it was among the first restaurants to offer a priced set menu, something that would eventually become a Spanish gastronomic custom. It became the place where the wealthy people of the court met at the end of the 19th century and you can still go there today if you ever decide to visit Madrid. Other establishments of a similar nature would soon follow and not only in Madrid, but in Barcelona too. Madrid cuisine began to be appreciated within the Spanish cooking, the cafes filled and soon they offered their own adaptations of French food. The railways began to carry a larger number of passengers to the large urban centers and regional capitals, and specially to Madrid and those passengers needed to eat. Seeing the opportunity and the importance of these potential clients, new restaurants sprouted like mushrooms as they became profitable thanks to this itinerant mass of people that traveled to the city. But the 19th century brought even more changes. The automobile was invented and more people flowed in. For the first time nutritional concepts surged and became widespread. For the first time words such as calories, carbo-hydrates, hydrates and vitamins entered the popular lexicon, which also meant change in diets as people start worrying about healthier food. The end of the 19th century and the beginning of the next century saw the rise of a Spanish cookbooks. However not everything was going so rosy for Spain, as it was during this time that the Spanish began losing their colonies. This had a notable effect on the gastronomy of the country too. And yet, more was to come soon. If you want to know about how Spanish cuisine developed in the next century and beyond, why not check out our page on 20th Century Spanish Gastronomy.

## Chapter 4 : Spanish Architecture: Overview

*19th Century - Invasions, Independence and Civil Wars. The 19th Century went down in history as one marked by turmoil, revolution, independence and many changes. It was no different for Spain.*

It was no different for Spain. At the beginning of the century, Napoleon continued expanding his empire. Though he played at being friends with the Spanish monarchy, going as far as signing treaties to ensure the alliance between the two countries, he proved to be a rather treacherous one. The French and the Spanish initiated a campaign against the Iberian country, the so called War of the Oranges , which luckily was short lived and left hardly any casualties. Soon other civil wars followed. Inspired by the French revolution a large liberal movement in Spain wanted to get rid of the Monarchy. In a huge military uprising took place and declared the Cadiz constitution from valid. It was one of the most liberal constitutions the world seen. After this the monarchy was restored. But Spain had not seen the end of it. On the third decade of the century a new problem in relation to the succession arose. Ferdinand VII changed this however, rendering the so called Salic law null and void - thus ensuring that his daughter became Queen in her own right. Many countries in South America became independent in the first half of the 19th century, such as Chile, Argentina , Bolivia and Mexico, and the ones that remained wanted to become nations in their own right too. However there would be one more Spanish war episode in the century, the Spanish South American war. Dominican Republic had already broken off from Spain, but in the newly elected President sent a long and tearful letter to the Queen begin her to take them back and probably became the only country to be re-annexed into an empire voluntarily. Several attacks on the Spanish cities Ceuta and Melilla lead into the military conflict known as the Spanish-Moroccan war, which ended in victory for the Spaniards. But the Cubans were fed up and in began a long battle to get rid of them, the 10 Year War which Cuba lost. But that was not the end of it. A few years later the Cubans asked the US to intervene. In consequence of the war against America, Spain lost almost all of its colonies including the Philippines, effectively ending a long period of grandeur, influence and wealth of the European kingdom.

Chapter 5 : Category:Spain in the 19th century - Wikimedia Commons

*Spain has held territory on the north Moroccan coast around Ceuta since the 16th century, but in the late 19th century there is increasing pressure on this enclave from Berber tribes. A Berber defeat of the resident Spanish forces in causes a crisis which is only averted by a treaty with the sultan of Morocco.*

This hostility and the fear of wolves were mainly caused by their attacks on domestic livestock, which were harmful to many sectors of the economy, even beyond agriculture, up until the 19th century. However, we should not forget that wolf attacks against people themselves were not purely a matter of legend: The frequency, and the geographical and temporal distribution of these dramatic incidents varied. Research so far indicates that the French territory saw numerous tragic incidents of this kind. Although statistically, there were relatively few attacks, their psychological impact was particularly powerful. Thus, our cultural perception of wolves is based on a long and complex history, which has recently become subject to external influences, since wolves were eradicated. The website *Man and Wolf*: Firstly, we attempted to measure the real extent of the wolf threat from the Middle Ages to the 20th century, by collecting information on human victims in the territory that is currently France. By using a scientific process to produce university research, and transmitting calls for research from region to region particularly among historians and genealogists, information on several thousand attacks was recovered. For over half of these, it was also possible to identify the victims and place them in their social and spatial context. If all types of wolf attack data in the sources used here are combined, the provisional total as at 15 March stands at victims. This gives us a historical database which is unrivalled worldwide. This statistical corpus includes two key types of victims, which are carefully differentiated: Initially, two distinct sets of data were put together, and these can now be compared. Here, we provide a large part of the corpus established on 15 October, which may change or grow with future findings. For each victim identified, we offer the public several complementary types of information: Studied on various temporal and geographical scales, these serial tragedies elucidate the relationship between man in his attempts at territorial management and his environment. A preliminary assessment was offered to the public in It includes analyses and specific explorations that are beyond the focus of this website: A second assessment was given in a collective work, which reframes the issue within the general context of man-wolf relationships: J-M Moriceau and Ph. Madeline, particularly p. The third stage was an overview of a long period, particularly examining the evolution of the pressure that man has inflicted on this animal since antiquity, through numerous regulatory means traps, poisons, rewards, hunts, etc. A final assessment was provided by the creation of a historical atlas looking at all the French regions and providing an index of the family names and the towns appearing in research as of 15 June Moriceau, *Sur les pas du loup*. For each stage, the scientific perspective of the investigation in relation to social issues was specified. In addition to making the data available to the public for the first time, this site offers considerable information on the sources and methods used to collect and analyse the documentation. Aside from studying attacks on humans, the research team carried out other projects, which will appear in coming months and particularly include data on hunting in France and Europe. These two young historians specialising in wolves, from Caen University, have both helped me with this project. This website is a participative venture, and is therefore open to all. We have taken great care, but certain factual errors if only transcription errors may have slipped past us. Please do not hesitate to bring these to our attention, so that we can improve the quality of our service. Similarly, as findings are made, readers may discover new information: In the future, when we update this site, this will allow us to offer the public an even larger and richer database. Should you have any remarks, comments, corrections, or additional information, please contact:

## Chapter 6 : HISTORY OF SPAIN

*The true ruler of Spain was Godoy, a vain adventurer who was loved by the Queen, shielded by the king and envied by Prince Ferdinand. From to , Spain was a vassal of France.*

The liberal movements and ideals that came from the French Revolution at the end of the 18th century prompted the Spanish to fight for their rights. There were many political movements from to the beginning of the s, alternating between liberal governments and absolutists one. The 19th century set the foundation for further democratic and liberal movement that would take place in Spain during the 20th century. The French had invaded the country and the Court was moved to Aranjuez in case the royal family had to flee to America. At that moment, the king was Charles IV. Ferdinand VII, his son, had been conspiring against him and Godoy to get to the throne. Ferdinand went back to court, without knowing that the French troops had occupied Madrid the day before. However, Napoleon tricked him and sent him to exile. This began the War of Spanish Independence of the 2nd of May of . During the War of Spanish Independence, the Spanish liberal movements get together in the Cortes in to draw up a new Constitution. The new text will cause some difference between the liberals, because some of them want to implement the new Constitution but the rest want to keep the Enlightened Despotism that had been implanted during the reign of Ferdinand VII. The War of Spanish Independence finished on , with the victory of the Spanish troops. Joseph Bonaparte gave the throne back to Ferdinand VII, who had suffered from humiliation during his exile with Napoleon. His hatred towards the French made him dissolve the Cortes and abolish the new Constitution. He also censored the press, banned the theatre and decreed that the liberals should be persecuted and put in jail, so many of them went on exile. The repression of Ferdinand after the small taste of liberalism the Spanish had had was too much. Military uprisings were very common, and finally, General Riego managed to overcome the monarchists and bring back the Constitution, forcing Ferdinand to accept it as an official document of the Reign of Spain. The Hundred Thousand Sons of Saint Louis were the French troops that were sent to Spain in , with the aim of bringing down Riego and returning Spain to its absolutist government. This period of Spanish history is called the Ominous Decade, and it lasted from to . During this time, liberals were persecuted and sentenced to death. As Ferdinand became weaker and weaker, the people around him pressured him to abolish the Salic Law so that his daughter Isabella could inherit the throne. The court was divided into two groups: Ferdinand died in and Isabella was proclaimed Queen of Spain while she was only 3 years old. Her mother acted as a regent from to , and General Espartero from to , when Isabella II ascended to the throne at the age of . During this time, the liberal movements were in power, and they modernized Spain to put the country up to par with the rest of Europe. The Carlist Wars left Spain in a state of stagnation, and the constant fights between the liberals and the conservatives put Spain in a very difficult and unstable political situation. Another Constitution is approved in and Amadeo de Saboya takes the throne in Madrid as a democratic monarch, but he stepped down for lack of support, and a republic is established. It was the First Republic in Spain and it lasted a very short period of time, from to . A new Constitution is approved in to give power to the people, dividing it equally between them and the monarch. After the end of the war, Spain lost all its other territories in South America. Most important Spanish books.

**Chapter 7 : History of Spain - Wikipedia**

*among the lowest in Europe during the late 19th century (1). In spite of Spain's isolation from other markets in the late 19th and early 20th centuries, its chemical industry.*

Home Spanish Architecture Overview Spanish Architecture Overview Spain is renowned worldwide for both its architecture and its architects. Prehistoric Spanish Architecture Some of the first people to settle on the land where Spain stands today, back in BC, built burial chambers out of stone. Celts began to build walled villages, called Castros, on mountains in the region of Galicia. Roman Spanish Architecture The Romans conquered the Spanish peninsular and with them they brought their fantastic expertise in civil engineering. The most well known of which in Spain is Asturian art. This period was a time of innovation in structural and design elements. Arches and lattices became much more common in buildings in Spain. Later, there was a heavy Mozarabic influence in architecture in Asturias, in which the horseshoe shaped arch increased in usage. Mudejar Style Mudejar architecture is a style of architecture developed by the Moors left in Christian Spain , yet who did not convert to the Christian religion. Mudejar is best known for its extensive use of brick as the principal building material. Romanesque Spanish Architecture The 10th and 11th Centuries were the time when Romanesque Spanish architecture began to develop in Spain. However at this time, the architecture was quite basic; the walls were thick and the use of sculptures was limited. Gothic Spanish Architecture The 12th Century saw the arrival of Gothic architecture from Europe in the Spanish peninsular, yet it was still alternating with the earlier Romanesque period. The true, High Gothic style came in the 13th Century. Renaissance Spanish Architecture In Spain, at the beginnings of the Renaissance architecture period the end of the 15th Century , many former Gothic buildings were adapted to meet the new Renaissance style. It incorporated many elements of Mannerism before the movement had developed properly, and was completed way before the likes of the Italian painter Michelangelo. Baroque Spanish Architecture Baroque is a style of architecture that came to Spain from nearby Italy in the 16th Century. A vernacular form of the style was then developed and is the style of architecture that one can see at the Plaza Mayor in Madrid. Colonial Spanish Architecture The former Spanish colonies in the Americas contain some of the finest examples of Hispanic architecture. The mix of Moorish, Native American and Spanish elements meant buildings were fantastically blended together. The Americas also developed their own Baroque style, which came into its own in Peru exhibited the most extravagant of the American Baroque styles. The monastery of San Francisco in the capital of Peru, Lima, is particularly eccentric with two yellow stone towers with a dark, detailed facade in the middle. Neoclassicalist architecture was very technical and intellectual. His most famous building in Spain is the Museo del Prado , the art gallery in central Madrid, where you can study Spanish art at its finest. Spanish architects would pick and choose their style depending on its purpose. This led to a new movement called Eclecticism. The 19th Century was also the period of the Industrial Revolution. Buildings began to incorporate some of the new materials that this Revolution brought, including glass and ironwork. He adorned the city of Barcelona with many fantastic buildings, including his most famous work, La Sagrada Familia. Today, there are many budding Spanish architects who have passed more into the realms of Modern architecture.

**Chapter 8 : 19th century Spanish Historical Context**

*It is customary to regard gender roles and representation in 19th-century Spain as polarised and predictable. But in this volume, scholars from the United Kingdom and.*

Andalucia suffered the ravages of the War of Succession , when the Bourbons were fighting with Archduke Charles of Austria allied with the British over the Spanish throne. In the course of this war, Gibraltar was lost to the British. In the early 18th century, the commercial landscape of Andalucia was reshaped, as trade moved from inland Seville to coastal Cadiz when the Guadalquivir river silted up. This plan, which donated land and livestock to foreign colonists from Northern Europe to start their new life, was not entirely successful. Philip V - and - Philip V Spanish: His father, Louis, the Grand Dauphin, had the strongest genealogical claim to the throne of Spain when it became vacant in It was well known that the union of France and Spain under one monarch would upset the balance of power in Europe, such that other European powers would take steps to prevent it. Philip was the first member of the French House of Bourbon to rule as king of Spain. The sum of his two reigns, 45 years and 21 days, is the longest in modern Spanish history. His reign is one of the shortest in history, lasting for just over seven months. A proponent of enlightened absolutism, he succeeded to the Spanish throne on 10 August , upon the death of his half-brother King Ferdinand VI of Spain, who left no heirs. In he married Princess Maria Amalia of Saxony, daughter of Polish king Augustus III and an educated, cultured woman who gave birth to 13 children, eight of whom reached adulthood. Charles and Maria Amalia resided in Naples for 19 years. As King of Spain Charles III made far-reaching reforms such as promoting science and university research, facilitating trade and commerce, and modernising agriculture. He also tried to reduce the influence of the Church and avoided costly wars. Carlos; 11 November 1788” 20 January was King of Spain from 14 December , until his abdication on 19 March Charles IV intended to maintain the policies of his father, and retained his prime minister, the Count of Floridablanca, in office. Charles never took more than a passive part in his own government. The affairs of government were left to his wife, Maria Luisa, and his prime minister, while he occupied himself with hunting. In , political and personal enemies ousted Floridablanca from office, replacing him with Pedro Pablo Abarca de Bolea, Count of Aranda who was himself replaced by Manuel de Godoy, a favourite of the Queen and widely believed to be her lover, who enjoyed the lasting favor of the King. In France forced Godoy to enter into an alliance, and declare war on the Kingdom of Great Britain. Spain became one of the maritime empires to have been allied with Republican France in the French Revolutionary War. Spain supported the Continental Blockade until the British naval victory at Trafalgar, when Spain became allied with Britain. Crown Prince Ferdinand attempted to overthrow the King in an aborted coup in Riots, and a popular revolt in forced the king to abdicate on 19 March, in favor of his son. Ferdinand took the throne as Ferdinand VII, but was mistrusted by Napoleon, who had , soldiers stationed in Spain by that time. The ousted King, having appealed to Napoleon for help in regaining his throne, was summoned before Napoleon in Bayonne, along with his son, in April Napoleon forced both Charles and his son to abdicate, declared the Bourbon dynasty of Spain deposed, and installed his brother, Joseph Bonaparte, as King Joseph I of Spain. Courses start any Monday of the year.

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*Top. 19th century. The map below shows Europe with the German Confederation (1815), which included the main part of the Austrian Empire, and the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland (1801).*

H. Eliot writes, "the Spaniards were conscious of achieving something that surpassed even the feats of the Romans. As the century progressed, the construction of a more modern Spanish identity and culture continued, but it still relied on the marriage of religious fervour and heroism. Therefore, certain national traditions—bravery protecting an identity, religious faith—were being firmly established. While, however, the 19th century glorification of Fernando and Isabel also, naturally, played a large part in nation-building, an alternative, more negative strand was also present, both before and after the Glorious Revolution of 1808, which deviated from these more traditional motifs. The promotion of bravery, warfare and political freedom are themes which would, ironically, appear again in paintings showing the colonial struggle for independence from Spanish dominion in the 19th century. It hardly needs saying, of course, that all these paintings focus on the heroic actions of men. The pairing of Isabel and Fernando denotes the political unity of Spain, and also, I would suggest, the extension of a Christian empire to Latin America. Eduardo Galeano has written that "Spain achieved unity and reality as a nation wielding swords with the Sign of the Cross on their hilts. The feat of discovering America can only be understood in the context of the tradition of crusading wars that prevailed in medieval Castile". In contrast to the aforementioned representations of Lucrecia and Cleopatra, Isabel here is at least, alive, and is passing on her final wishes, her political legacy. Her death is a natural one, not the result of madness, intrigue or suicide, and her youthful appearance takes us back to the key period around 1808. The painting also acts, I would say, as a meditation on the dying of a period of national unity and glory, and of religious faith as political guide, additionally serving as a reflection of the fragility of the political state and disintegration of the empire that Isabel had initiated. The painting manages to suggest, at the same time, the fragility and temporary nature of religious and political power and values, but also the opposite, the importance of a legacy and the need for its preservation. In my judgement, it accurately reflects the split in society inherent in Spain revealed in and after the Carlist Wars, one which would come to decimate Spain in the 20th century. The painting could even be seen as immediately foreseeing the floundering project of the union of religion and politics, as the uneasy reconciliation between religious beliefs and the liberal state, after such intense conflict in the first half of the 19th century, would only be held together temporarily. It is crucial to note the presence of Cisneros, who organised several Franciscan missions to the new colonies and therefore represents both religious and geo-political concerns. While some historians described Isabel as a home-making female paragon, artists, in an age where their work had far more access to the public, offered a more complex vision, chiefly for political reasons but valid nonetheless. Isabel, in her 19th century reinvention, shows, as Linda Nochlin says, that not all women could be reduced "to some simple essence. Yet the choosing of Isabel as an icon also damaged the Liberal cause, since her association with the Catholic faith and Church contradicted the pleas for progressive ideas. John Berger suggests that, "fear of the present leads to a mystification of the past". By the mid-century, Spain was, to quote Anderson, "a second-rate European power. The fact that Spain required such a glorification of the Isabel period is evidence of the decline of the prestige of the monarchy and the nation in the 19th century. Canovas offered a perspective on the past very much at odds with the prevailing artistic portrayals and historical consensus. In contrast to portrayals of her mother, Juana was employed to drive home the idea of female fragility and inability to show strong leadership, and used as an attack on Isabel II. Pradilla, in *Juana La Loca*, depicts a forlorn woman in mourning for her husband. This time the Christian symbol, the chapel, is distant and tiny in the background. As the century progressed, we can see a clear shift in attitude towards the remaining colonies. There is an unmissable irony in history and art being used to form an identity in Spain while the nation was losing prestige and territory, and "the close of the era of successful national liberation movements in the Americas coincided rather closely with the onset of the age of nationalism in Europe. The movement would inspire comparable Comunero risings in Paraguay in 1811 and in the early 18th century, and in Nueva Granada in 1813. Indigenous symbols predominate in the

painting, a testament to the end of imperial authority. Anderson argues that, in the colonies, "the growth of creole communities. There are no men in the composition, and this time female hysteria is not the result of doomed or inappropriate love, but a metaphor, the consequence of a wider political scenario being delineated. The growing rebellion leading to the final loss of Philippines is evidenced in another Juan Luna painting. The title alone of Spolarium is redolent of ruination, and the slain bodies and horrified expressions in the painting belie the brutality of the Roman Empire. The Phillipine journalist Graciano Lopez Jaena described as the work as "the living image of the Filipino people sighing its misfortune. Because the Philippines is nothing more than a real Spoliarium with all its horrors. Simultaneously, back in Spain the fight for the liberal cause through recourse to depiction of individual male heroism through art persisted, as evidenced in the celebration of a Liberal General Fusilamiento de Torrijos, following the return of the absolutist monarchy after the First Republic. Norman Bryson has written that "art is the place in which historical developments culminate and are given their highest cultural form. Within the parameters of art produced in the 19th century we can trace a clear line of historical and gender decline, taking on board several disparities and important contradictions in liberal ideology, in a time when Isabel was needed as an avatar for the Spanish state.