



HISTORY

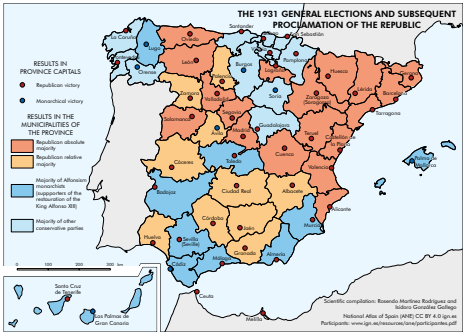
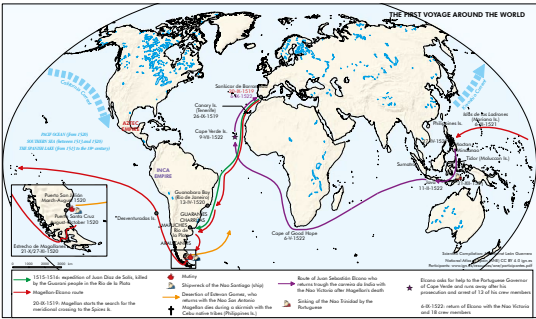


Dynastic union of Aragon and Castile

1137-1410 The Berenguer Dynasty in Aragon
Last king: Martín I, died childless.

1412 The Compromise of Caspe
Don Fernando I de Aragón, regent of Castile, grandson of Pedro IV of Aragón and nephew of Martín I, was elected king by the assembly of three commissioners per territory (Aragon, Catalonia and Valencia).

1412-1516 The Trastámara dynasty in Aragon
Ferdinand I (1412-1416). Born in Medina del Campo.
Alfonso V (1416-1458). Born in Medina del Campo.
Juan II (1458-1479). Born in Medina del Campo.
Isabella I (1479-1516). Born in Sos.



Prehistory • Ancient Age • Middle Ages • Modern Age • Contemporary Age

2024 Edition

HISTORY

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See the list of members engaged on page 45

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SPAIN ON MAPS. A geographic synthesis

HISTORY



GOBIERNO
DE ESPAÑA

MINISTERIO
DE TRANSPORTES
Y MOVILIDAD SOSTENIBLE

INSTITUTO
GEOGRÁFICO
NACIONAL



SPAIN ON MAPS. A geographic synthesis

This publication develops the “History” part of the general index of the 21st century National Atlas of Spain (ANEXXI) and is part of the compendium Spain on Maps. A geographic synthesis. All versions of this part and its related contents are available in the ANE Geoportal (<https://atlasnacional.ign.es>) and as a digital book (<https://www.ign.es/web/ign/portal/libros-digitales/libros-atlas-nacional-espana>)

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Prehistory

Understanding the Iberian Peninsula in the Paleolithic

The Lower Paleolithic covers a vast period in the history of the Iberian Peninsula. As illustrated in the figure, it spanned from 1,350,000 years ago to roughly 130,000 years BC, the period which is generally considered to mark the beginning of the Middle Paleolithic. The Lower Paleolithic coincides with the geological age of both the Lower (or possibly older) and Middle Pleistocene Epochs. The Lower Pleistocene had a warm climate similar to today’s Mediterranean environment in which the regular flow of water from rivers (greater in the Atlantic watershed than in the Mediterranean watershed) deposited sediment and produced fluvial terraces. The fauna typical of this time period was similar to that of the present-day African Savannah: large mammals such as elephants, panthers, saber-tooth tigers, hippopotamus, zebras, and hyenas. The Middle Pleistocene was marked by glaciations which transformed ecosystems and gave rise to mammals such as cave bears, rhinoceros, and mammoths.

The oldest human fossil remains found on the Iberian Peninsula were discovered in sima del Elefante (in the archaeological site of [Atapuerca](#), Burgos), in the form of a jawbone from an undetermined hominid dating from 1,200,000 years ago. If the fossil were of *Homo habilis* origin, it might have arrived on the Iberian Peninsula by way of the Strait of Gibraltar. Another hypothesis is that the fossil could belong to a new species called *Homo antecessor*, which may have possibly evolved from individuals of *Homo erectus* and settled on the Iberian Peninsula (at Gran Dolina, TD6, Atapuerca) around 800,000 years ago, after having migrated from Asia. However, it is important to note that fossilised human remains of, as yet, undetermined origin have also been unearthed at Venta Micena in Orce (Granada) and in cueva Victoria, in Cartagena (Murcia).

Two subsequent species emerged and lived together in the Iberian Peninsula: *Homo neanderthalensis*, which marked the beginning of the Middle Paleolithic, and *Homo heidelbergensis*. Neanderthal remains found in El Sidrón, in Piloña (Asturias) witness their presence and are of particular significance. It should be mentioned that prior to this finding, around 28 individuals (a relatively large number) were discovered in sima de los Huesos at Atapuerca, making up more than 85% of the world’s recorded fossils of the primitive *neanderthalensis* species. These remains were initially thought to be *Devisovan*, a species that predated *neanderthalensis*. Since the massive presence of individuals at Atapuerca does not appear to be a coincidence, but rather a burial site, it is believed that there existed some degree of religious practice. Neanderthals formed

small nomadic tribes and harnessed the use of fire, perhaps without mastery. They lived out in the open air, sometimes at the mouths of caves, and when not scavenging, led a hunter-gatherer lifestyle; and appear to have even engaged in cannibalism.

The defining characteristic of these hominids placing them in the genus *Homo* is their ability to make tools. Initially, they made stone tools, typically of flint and quartzite, shaped and sharpened on only one surface (using stone tool technology). And later, tools were made by shaping both sides of the stone, forming bifacial preforms typical of Acheulean technology. The early tools, which were bulky and heavy and made in situ, were abandoned as soon as hunted animals were cut and skinned, whereas bifacial tools were typically kept for future use, as they were more versatile and difficult to produce.

The Middle Paleolithic, which began approximately 130,000 years BC, coincided with the widespread presence of *Homo neanderthalensis*.

Homo neanderthalensis had a cranium size of 1,450 cm³, slightly larger than modern man. Their bodies had a similar average stature of 1,70 cm, although stockier and perhaps with shorter limbs. Their presence coincided with the cold climate of the Würm glaciation, which precipitated the taking of refuge in caves. The most significant enclaves were found in cueva de las Grajas, in Archidona (Málaga), dating from roughly 200,000 years ago and cueva de Nerja, where the Neanderthals subsequently created the earliest known cave paintings about 40,000 years ago as well as at the sima de las Palomas de Cabezo Gordo (Murcia) site.

The two most prominent settlements established on the Iberian Peninsula were at the already mentioned cueva del Sidrón in Piloña (Asturias) and at Calvero de la Higuera in Pinilla del Valle (Madrid). At the former site, remnants were unearthed of about 13 individuals (the best collection in Spain) who lived 43,000 years ago. At the latter site, in addition to an extensive assemblage of fauna fossils, which even included unknown species such as the so-called “whistling hare”, Neanderthal remains were uncovered in what is believed to be the oldest known burial site. The remains were of a young girl with red hair, which appears to be consistent with most of her congeners. There is also clear evidence of burial sites in cueva Morín in Villaescusa (Cantabria).

Despite the controversy surrounding the coexistence and interbreeding of Neanderthals and *Homo sapiens*, recent studies of cueva de la Güelga in Cangas de Onís (Asturias) reveal clear evidence of such activity from roughly 40,000 years ago. There is no debate about whether the Neanderthals engaged in cannibalism as remnants at both Sidrón archeological site and cueva del Boquete de Zafarralla (Málaga) indicate. With regard to interbreeding, an exhaustive study of DNA from the remains recovered at cueva del

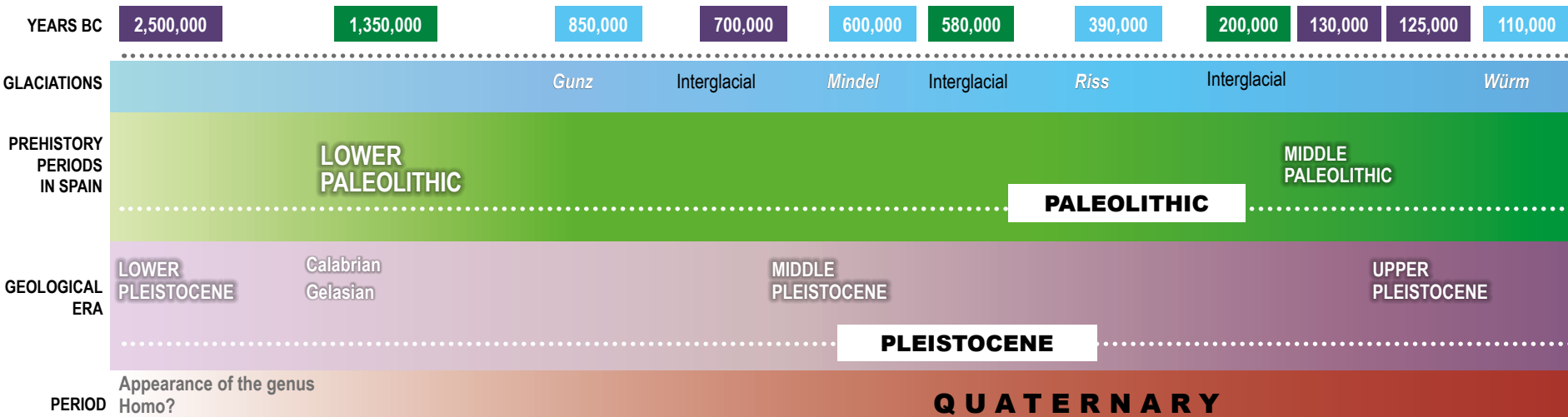


Gran Dolina, archaeological site of Atapuerca (Burgos)

Sidrón, suggests that their blood was compatible with that of *Homo sapiens*.

The Neanderthals manufactured tools using an innovative technology known as the Levallois technique. Since it came from the Mousterian tool culture, this period is referred to as the Mousterian era. At this time, Neanderthals were no longer just using stone cores, but were intentionally engineering them with retouches and grooves to obtain flakes of different shapes for scrapers, cleavers, denticulate saws and spear points, which they attached to a shaft to be used for specific tasks. This expertise in tool making was an adaptation to the necessities of survival. Neanderthals continued to lead a predatory way of life as hunter-gatherers, but the harsh climatic conditions of the glacial environment compelled them to craft better clothing and look for more effective ways to stockpile food. It is generally agreed that the Neanderthals’ two greatest achievements were mastery of the art of fire making and the use of spoken language, albeit a less complex form than that of modern humans.

In the majority of settlements, where human remains have been observed, lithic remnants have also been uncovered; however, the reverse case is not necessarily true. For example, the multiple artefacts discovered at Atapuerca can be only attributed to the Neanderthals; however, actual (skeletal) fossil remains of this hominid group have not been found at this site. Such findings hinder the study of evolutionary changes.



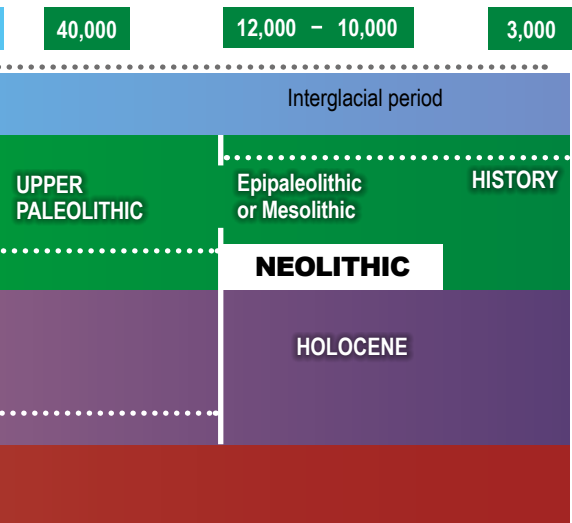
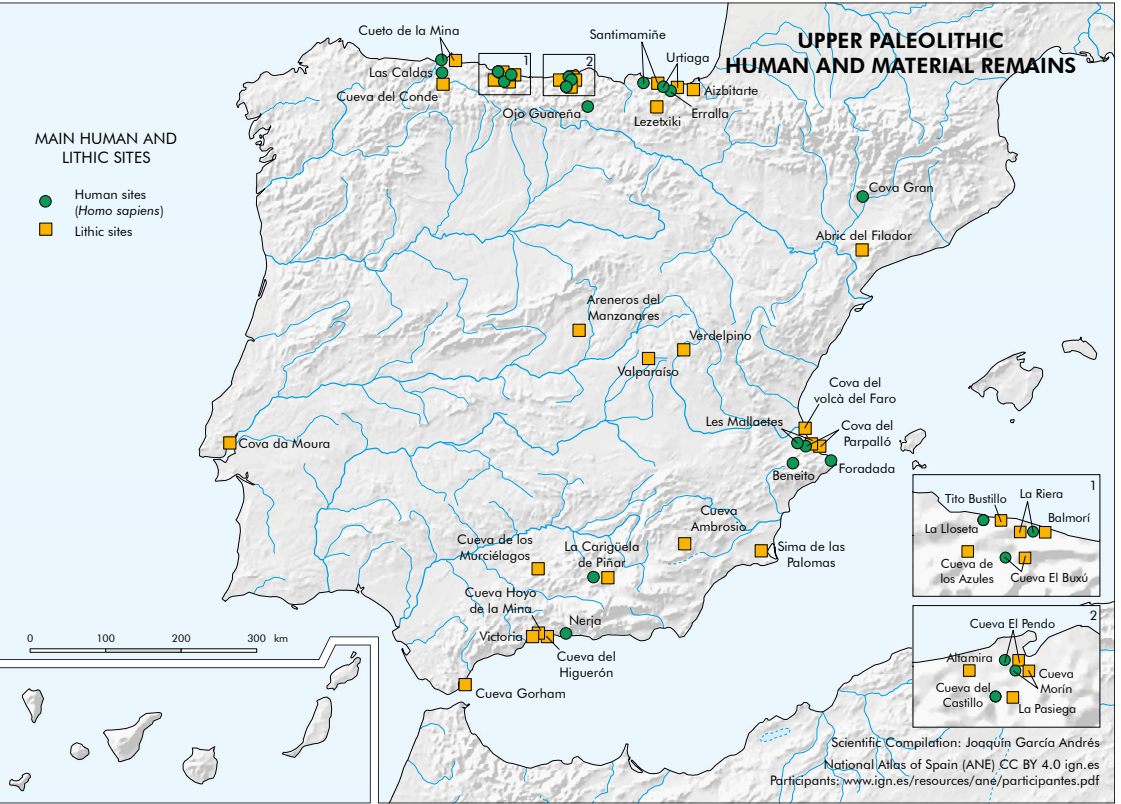
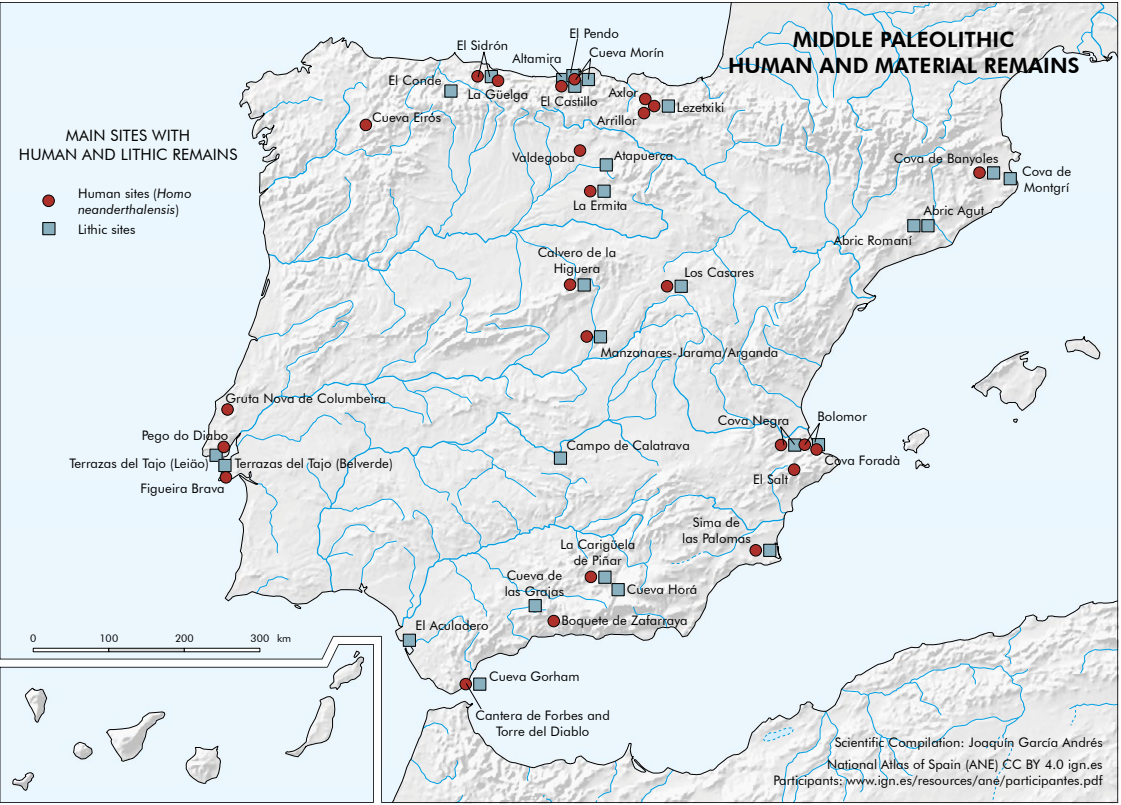
The Upper Paleolithic, which coincided with the end of the Upper Pleistocene, saw the evolutionary rise of a new species called *Homo sapiens* starting in approximately 40,000 BC. The end of the Upper Pleistocene on the Iberian Peninsula took place around 12,000 to 10,000 BC, which was followed by a new epoch called the Neolithic, also known as the Holocene on the geological time scale.

Homo sapiens are a species that originated in Africa. The earliest human fossils found on the Iberian Peninsula date from roughly 35,000 years ago (Cova Gran, Lleida) and were unearthed from settlements sited along rivers. For some time, *Homo sapiens* coexisted with Neanderthals, eventually replacing them as their populations declined. The fact that this occurred despite the Neanderthal's larger brain capacity has elicited explanations that are the subject of much speculation. It is known that *Homo sapiens* were able to survive the glacial periods that led many species on the European continent to extinction. A diverse diet consisting of game, collected fruit, small fish such as salmon and trout, and molluscs may have contributed to their survival.

Homo sapiens are a modern and very refined hominid whose tools reveal a new stage in evolution. Referred to as microliths and multilayered tools, they were smaller in size and similar to knives. They also made use of new materials such as wood, bone, antler, ivory and shells. In addition to cave paintings, decorative objects such as necklaces also appeared.

The early *sapiens* were clearly creative beings. They made music: flutes were found at La Güelga in Cangas del Onís (Asturias) and El Castillo in Puente Viesgo (Cantabria), and built very advanced contraptions like grinders to pulverize vegetables and obtain grains. They created organised social hierarchies, as suggested by the use of power connoting accessories like staffs. And they were fond of art as shown by such unique sculptures as the Venus figurines. They engineered new tools such as harpoons and short spears, which indicate a gradual diversification of hunting and fishing methods and expanded the array of animals they hunted for food. Such tools may also have been developed in response to violent encounters among competing factions.

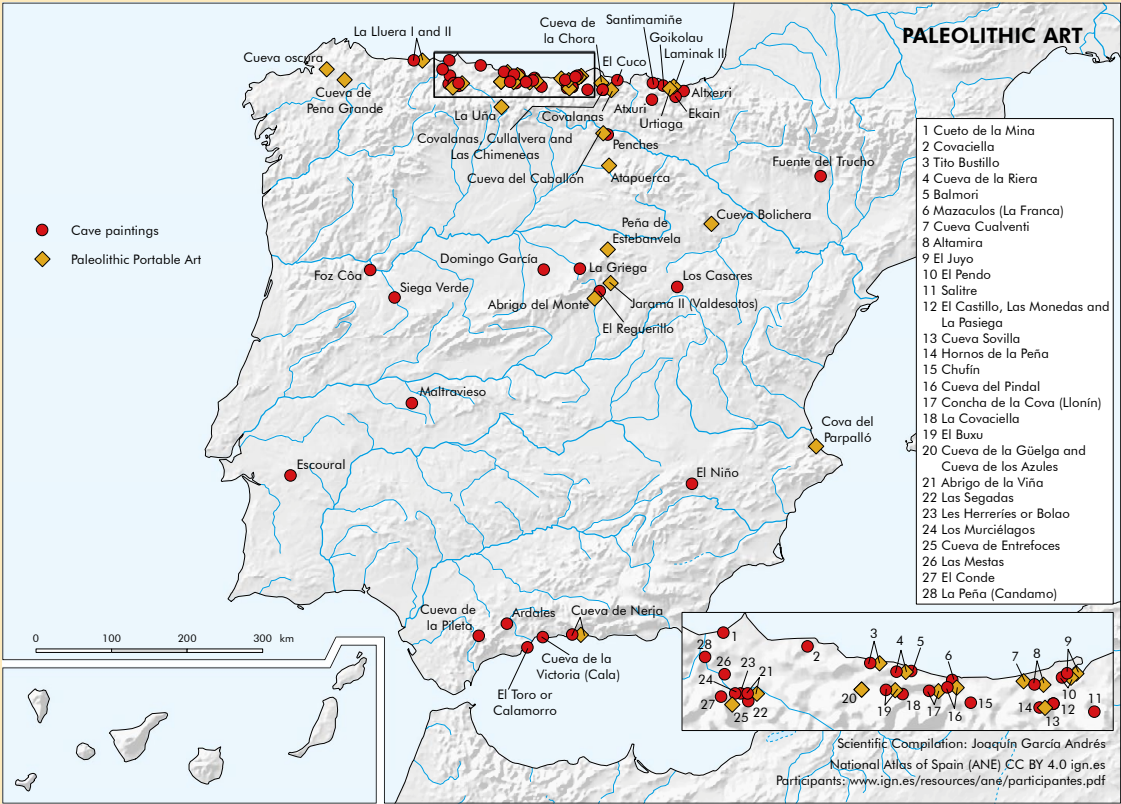
Though more organised and numerous than their ancestors at this point, they were still nomads, who periodically lived in caves. Vestiges of huts were found near the coasts and at the mouths of rivers where they dwelt. Burial sites bearing funerary objects were now ubiquitous, suggesting possession of the capacity to think symbolically and a belief in an afterlife. Corpses sprinkled with ochre powder have been found, and sometimes accompanied by traces of flower pollen, a combination which may have been a sign of family or emotional bonds. The existence of sea shells in excavation sites in the Manzanares river basin suggests they travelled long distances and traded objects.



Artistic expression in the Upper Paleolithic

There is much debate about whether to attribute the earliest development of artistic expression solely to *Homo sapiens* based on the fact that its emergence coincided with their existence, and there is also similar debate with respect to the Paleolithic. Since Neanderthals were also present at this time, they may have been responsible for some of these works, and previous works; possible examples include: El Castillo (a red disc and hand figures), Tito Bustillo (some remains), [Altamira](#) (a claviform symbol), and [Cueva de Nerja](#) with seal paintings (from possibly 42,000 years ago).

Nevertheless, the earliest substantiated evidence of *sapiens* artistic expression, known as the Franco-Cantabrian style, is from the great Nordpeninsular and Nordpyrenean complexes. Works were also found in other areas such as Pileta, Maltravieso and Siega Verde. Animal figures such as bison, horses and fallow deer, and rarely humans, were the protagonists of these paintings. The images, made with continuous lines and usually pigmented with ochre or black from iron oxide or manganese, were created in the backs of caves, perhaps to create a magical effect. They used the irregularities in the stone to give volume to and enhance the naturalism of the images. Very few portable art exist from this prehistoric time such as pendants (made from stone, bone, shells, or teeth), weapons (such as harpoons and spears), or objects connoting power (canes from Caballón and Castillo), although the 6,000 engravings on the limestone caves of Cova del Parpalló make up the largest collection of art in Europe from this era.



The Neolithic slowly unfolds

Scientists do not agree as to whether this was the beginning or the end of an epoch. As the Holocene began, the interglacial period that is believed to be taking place today was already under way. The *Sapiens* were adapting quickly to a more temperate climate and vegetative landscape as well as to the availability of more desirable animals for hunting. Communities were becoming more specialised in exploiting a variety of available resources, leading to improvements in hunting, gathering, fishing and shellfishing. Some historians believe that the Paleolithic Period was coming to a close and refer to this time period as the Epi-Paleolithic. However,

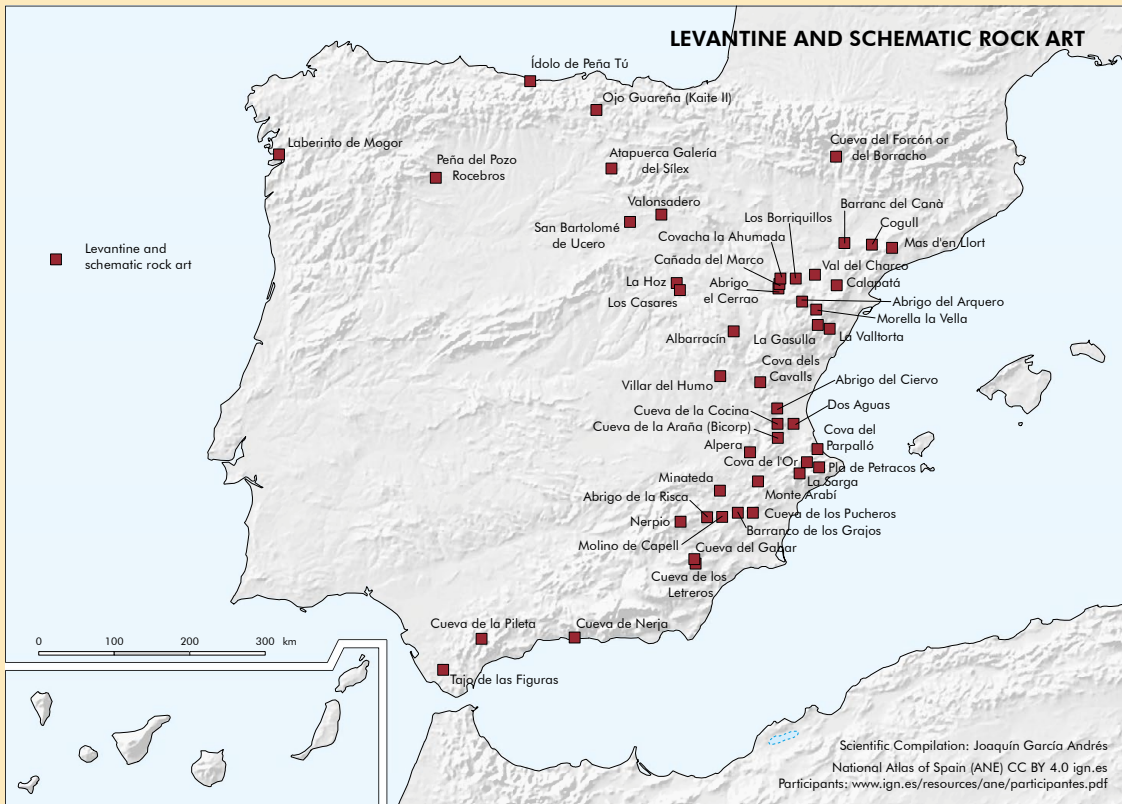
other historians consider this to be the beginning of a new era starting roughly 12,000 BC, describing it as the Mesolithic Period, which was then proceeded imperceptibly by the Neolithic.

A plethora of technologically advanced tools and contraptions such as harpoons, spears, sickles, saws, arrows, knives, and darts have been found, which they crafted in response to forces necessitating new ways of subsistence. Stones were finely burnished to be fashioned as useful tools and microliths embedded in polished wooden handles were made with an angular shape suitable for cutting, scraping, and penetrating their prey; samples of small painted

rocks depicting this phenomenon have been discovered in some sites.

Evidence in three different regions has led to the identification of what has come to define the Neolithic period: a sedentary lifestyle, albeit initially tentative and seasonally dependant. From the Pyrenees (Mas d'Azil site in France) and extending to the entire septentrion, the Azilian cultures predominated, particularly the Asturian culture. This civilisation can be characterised by their tools, such as the "Asturian pick", and shell fishing lifestyle, as evidenced by an accumulation of seashells, named "concheros". On the East coast and stretching inland to the Ebro Valley, farming communities appeared

Artistic expression from the Mesolithic to the Neolithic



It was not until 12,000-10,000 BC, that *Homo sapiens* realised their full artistic potential. Evidence of this resides on the East coast of the Iberian Peninsula where more modest, schematic and stylised paintings than those from the Palaeolithic were developed. As contours of discontinuous lines, the figures lack interior polychromy and are smaller in size. Human beings and animals on which they preyed were the centre piece of the art, often depicted in motion and in scenes that tell a story. These paintings were now displayed in rock shelter rather than caves, undoubtedly reflecting the change to a sedentary lifestyle. Well-preserved examples of such art can be found at the Cogull, Valltorta, and [Alpera](#) sites as well as in [Cueva de la Araña](#).

Like the art in the Franco-Cantabrian region, these images were found on parietal walls throughout the Peninsula, frequently comingled with paintings and engravings from later periods. They were concentrated in three large areas: the Galician-Portuguese region, the south, and most commonly, along the East coast, so prevalent in this area that it is often referred to as "Levantine Art".

Characterised by their labyrinth-shaped designs, the petroglyphs in the north and northwest are also worth

mentioning, particularly those at Mogor in Marín and the anthropomorphic Ídolo de Peña Tú in Asturias. Engravings and paintings of these types represent a way of communicating that was perhaps a precursor to the first pictograms.

along with microlayered and geometric tools. And on the Atlantic coast and reaching to the Algarve, there is evidence of wetland mollusc collecting and man-made huts, suggesting a flourishing coastal maritime lifestyle.

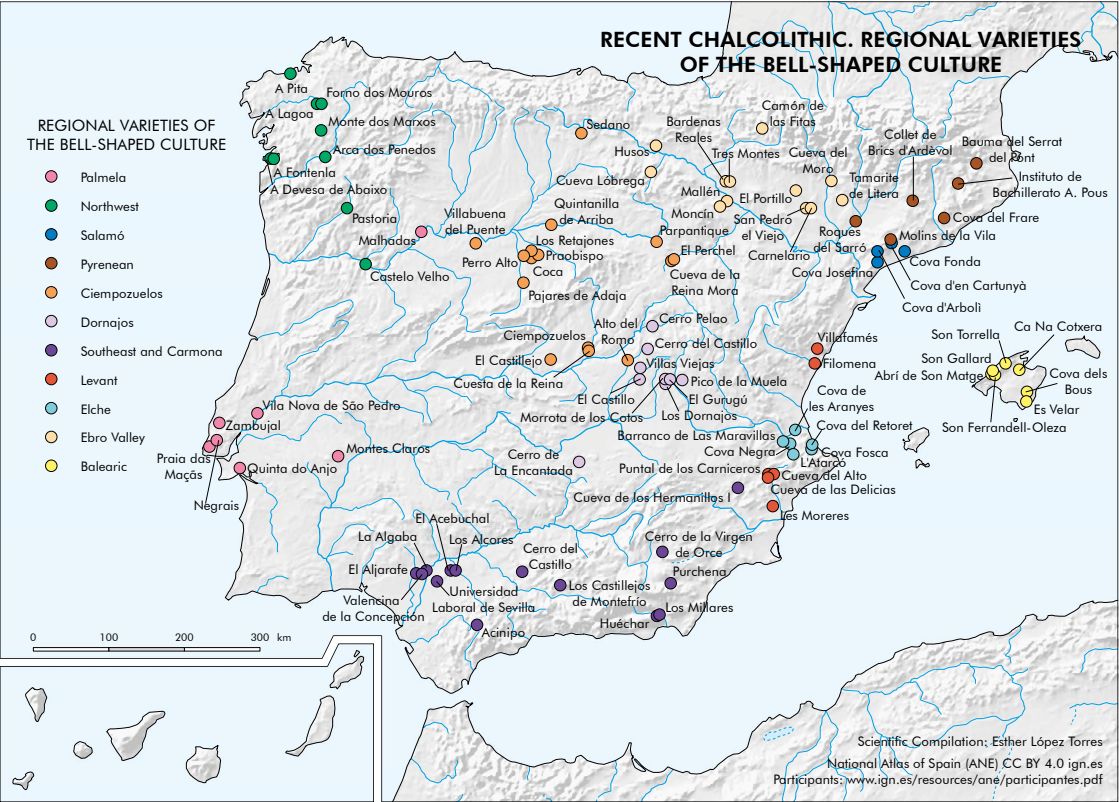
The arrival of the Neolithic, a time period measured in millennia, signalled the transition from a hunter-gatherer to a progressively agrarian and ranching lifestyle with permanent dwellings. This monumental, evolutionary change began with formation of the largest rivers in Asia and the

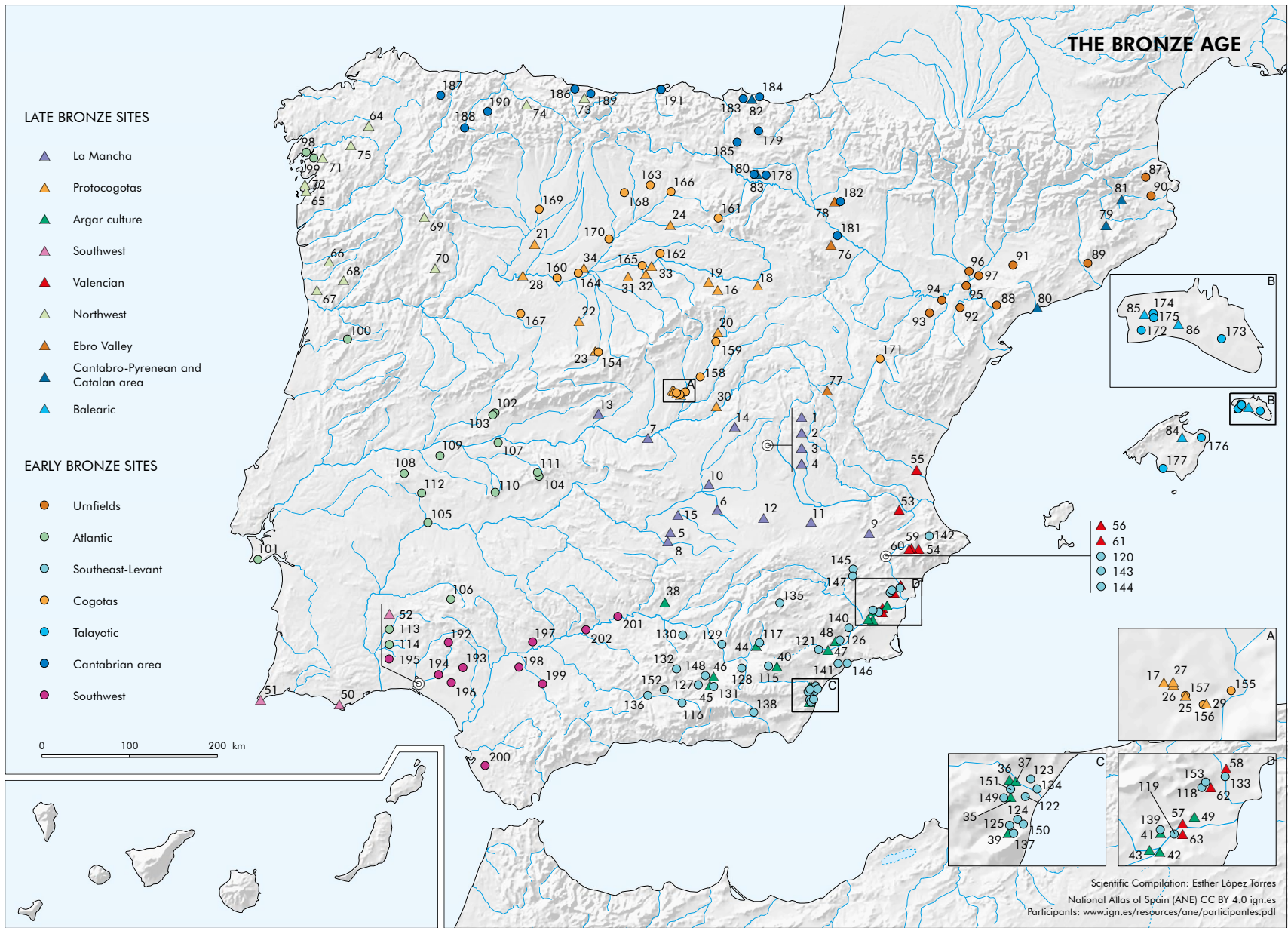
The beginning of the use of copper

In the beginning of the Third Millennium BC, the use of copper, a new raw material, was becoming widespread throughout Europe. It was relatively abundant on the Peninsula and could be extracted from the ground. This sparked the beginning of the Chalcolithic or Copper Age, the first of the traditionally recognised Metal Ages. Awls, hooks, flat axes, knives, daggers, halberds, personalised adornments made from copper appeared. Bone and stone were gradually replaced by copper, which led to new manufacturing techniques as well as new ways of living.

Fortified settlements were now being constructed high up on plateaus. The most notable examples of this were [the culture of Los Millares](#) and subsequently, the Argar (Almeria) and Zambujal in Torres Vedras (Portugal), which were the most magnificent architectural settlements on the Chalcolithic Iberian Peninsula. However, most communities were still typically found in the flatlands (particularly on river terraces and in valleys), which were more suitable for farming or raising livestock. Excavations at these sites have unearthed grain stores, landfills, store rooms, ditches and pits at these sites dating from this same time period. These societies also left behind an extensive fields of ring-diches which served as storage pits, particularly at les Jovades en Concentaina site, in Alicante and at the Ventorro site in Madrid. Notable exceptions to the settlements on the plains were those in caves or rock shelter such as the cova des Moro in Manacor (Mallorca) or cova des Fum in Formentera or Estremera in Madrid. Collective burying of their dead and the [construction of megalithic burial chambers](#) typical of the Late Neolithic continued to be common in the southeast, southwest, Northern Plateau and northwest of the Peninsula. These customs endured until the introduction of [bell-shaped ceramic pots](#), which then allowed them to bury just a single individual.

Despite regional variations in dating and definitively describing the period known as the Copper Age, it can be roughly classified into two periods: the Early Chalcolithic, dating from the first half of the Third Millennium (starting in 2250 BC) and the Late Chalcolithic, occurring from 2250 BC to 1900 BC. In the latter period, new ceramic pots began to appear in communities throughout Europe, allowing for more efficient preservation, storage, and transportation of goods. They were made by hand, generally with red clay, in an inverted bell shape, and then elaborately decorated with horizontal bands containing geometric or shell-shaped patterns, impressed or cut with combs or cords, and sometimes glazed. On the Peninsula, this pottery was initially decorated with international designs, referred to as Maritime, Corded or Mixed (2200-2150 BC), but later, a diverse array of regional designs appeared.





Scientific Compilation: Esther López Torres
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Participants: www.ign.es/recursos/ane/participantes.pdf

EARLY BRONZE AGE SITES

BRONZE AGE OF LA MANCHA

- 1 La Peñuela
- 2 La Morrota de los Cotos
- 3 Recueno
- 4 Cabeza de Santa María
- 5 Los Palacios
- 6 Santa María del Retamar
- 7 Cerro del Bu
- 8 Cerro de La Encantada
- 9 Cerro del Cuchillo
- 10 Las Saladillas
- 11 El Acequión
- 12 El Quintanar
- 13 Cerro del Obispo
- 14 Cueva del Fraile
- 15 El Azuer

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- 18 Parpantique
- 19 Los Torojones
- 20 Loma del Lomo
- 21 Santioste
- 22 El Tomillar
- 23 Castillo de Cardeñosa
- 24 Necrópolis de Villalmanzo
- 25 Caserío de Perales
- 26 El Ventorro
- 27 El Tejar del Sastre
- 28 Las Pozas
- 29 Fábrica de Ladrillos
- 30 Cueva de Pedro Fernández
- 31 Castro de La Plaza
- 32 El Castillo
- 33 El Gurugú
- 34 Pico Aguilera

ARGAR CULTURE

- 35 El Argar
- 36 Fuente Álamo
- 37 El Oficio
- 38 Peñalosa
- 39 Gatas
- 40 El Picacho
- 41 Las Peñicas de Santomera
- 42 El Puntarrón Chico
- 43 Las Anchuras
- 44 Castellón Alto
- 45 Cuesta del Negro
- 46 Domingo I
- 47 Murviedro
- 48 La Bastida
- 49 Laderas del Castillo

SOUTHWEST BRONZE

- 50 Ferradeira
- 51 Punta Atalaia
- 52 Huelva

VALENCIAN BRONZE

- 53 Ereta del Pedregal
- 54 La Mola de Agrés
- 55 La Loma de Betxi
- 56 Terlinques
- 57 San Antón de Orihuela
- 58 Tabayá
- 59 Mas de Menente
- 60 Mas del Corral
- 61 Cabezo Redondo
- 62 Peña Negra
- 63 Los Saladares

NORTHWEST BRONZE

- 64 Agro de Nogueira
- 65 Fíxon-Costa da Seixeira
- 66 Sola
- 67 Bouça da Cova da Moura
- 68 Cimalha
- 69 Erosa
- 70 Fraga dos Corvos
- 71 Caldas de Reis
- 72 Gandón
- 73 Mina del Milagro
- 74 Mina del Aramo
- 75 A Devesa de Abaixo

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- 95 Los Castelletes II
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- 97 Genó

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- 107 Torrejón el Rubio
- 108 Valencia de Alcántara
- 109 Brozas
- 110 Zarza de Montánchez
- 111 Solana de Cabañas
- 112 Alburquerque
- 113 Ría de Huelva
- 114 Cueva de la Canela

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- 161 Huerta de Arriba
- 162 El Cerro

- 163 Tres Chupos-Abarre
- 164 Carricastro
- 165 El Gurugú
- 166 Los Rompizales
- 167 Teso del Cuerno
- 168 Carrelasvegas
- 169 El Pelambre
- 170 La Huelga
- 171 La Muela de Galve

TALAYOTIC

- 172 Son Catlar
- 173 Torralba d'en Salort
- 174 Torrellafuda
- 175 Torretrencada
- 176 Ses Païsses
- 177 Capocorb Vell

CANTABRIAN AREA

- 178 Los Husos
- 179 Axtroki
- 180 La Hoya
- 181 Alto de la Cruz
- 182 Puy Aguila
- 183 Santimamiñe
- 184 Lumentxa
- 185 Los Goros
- 186 Mina Castillejos
- 187 Los Ocos
- 188 Larón
- 189 Caldueño
- 190 Santullano
- 191 El Juyo

SOUTHWEST BRONZE

- 192 Cerro Salomón
- 193 Tejada la Vieja
- 194 Niebla
- 195 Huelva
- 196 San Bartolomé
- 197 Setefilla
- 198 Carmona
- 199 Montemolín
- 200 El Berrueco
- 201 Llanete de los Moros
- 202 Colina de los Quemados



Ancient Iberian Bronze coin

Nile in Africa caused by climate change during the Holocene. This extensive period marked such a significant transformation in human history that in order to characterise it appropriately, it is referred to as the "Neolithic Revolution". With this change, came a sedentary lifestyle, architecture, social hierarchies, religions, and technological innovations.

According to diffusion theories, these lifestyle changes were brought to the Iberian Peninsula from the Eastern Mediterranean. However, to adherents of autochthonous theories, the changes occurred naturally in response to the evolution of the Mesolithic on the Iberian Peninsula. One theory asserts that there were four regions along the Peninsula: Northeast Area, Levantine Area, Southern Area and South Atlantic Area, as can be seen on *The Neolithic* map. Another theory suggests it had logically spread throughout the entire Iberian Peninsula. History tells us that even when a theory becomes difficult to dispute, other theories cannot be ruled out.

Experimentation with metallurgy: the Bronze Age

In the Second Millennium BC, population growth created a greater demand for raw materials and subsistence products, causing agricultural and livestock farming (and its by-products) to become more widespread. This still Neolithic society had already mastered metallurgical techniques and had discovered bronze, a strong alloy of copper and tin. Bronze arrived on the Peninsula through the Pyrenees in the Third Millennium BC and was used along with copper to make tools and objects, according to stratigraphic studies of the Bauma del Serrat del Pont site (Girona).

Trade increased during the Early Bronze Age and there are strong indications that society was becoming increasingly socially stratified. This was evidenced by the discovery of burial sites for single individuals (mainly in burial pits and megalithic cists) as well as by differences in the quality and quantity of funerary objects placed in these sites. The Argar culture, which succeeded the bell-shaped ceramic, and produced a wide range of ceramic objects, was no longer the only flourishing culture on the Peninsula, according to research carried out in the last 50 years. *The Bronze Age* map shows the emergence of a diversity of cultures chronologically beginning with the Protocogota settlements on the Northern Plateau around 2000 BC.

The late Bronze Age began around the 11th century BC with three different cultural currents predominating: Central European, Atlantic, and Eastern Mediterranean. With an increase in cultural exchanges, these civilisations mixed with native cultures, eventually evolving into what are known as Pre-Roman cultures. Major changes took place and new traditions arose. In the Northwest, they began to cremate their dead and leave their ashes in urnfields, while in the middle of the Peninsula and in the northern and western regions, highly sophisticated bronze weapons and objects were commercially traded. And lastly, merchants and new cultural groups arose in the Mediterranean and southern regions of the Peninsula, foreshadowing the future colonisation of these areas. Meanwhile, advances in metallurgy led to the development



The Bull from Costitx

of goldsmithing, as evidenced by the Treasure of Villena (Alicante). Livestock routes stretching inland were also built, as revealed at some excavation sites such as Peña Negra in Crevillent (Alicante). These external influences did not, however, impede indigenous development. Examples of this can be seen from the Cogotas culture, which extended to the Douro and Tagus river basins starting in the 11th century BC, as well as from the Talayotic culture on the Balearic Islands at the end of the Naviform period.

During this period emerge control walkway in livestock routes, water points, mountain passes or river fords as the Tagus River Trail. Metallurgical production sites were built to the north of the Tagus River in Portugal and along the Tinto-Odiel estuary, home to the Tartessian Civilisation during the 10th and 11th centuries BC. By the 8th century BC the Atlantic metallurgy was predominant on the entire Iberian Peninsula, especially at settlements in fertile and grassy areas along the river plains. Such settlements were frequently left open and unprotected, but at other times, built inside walled enclosures. Phoenician merchants began to appear on the coasts around this precolonial period, and later, towards the end of the 7th century BC, the Greeks.

A prelude to societal and territorial reorganisation: the Iron Age

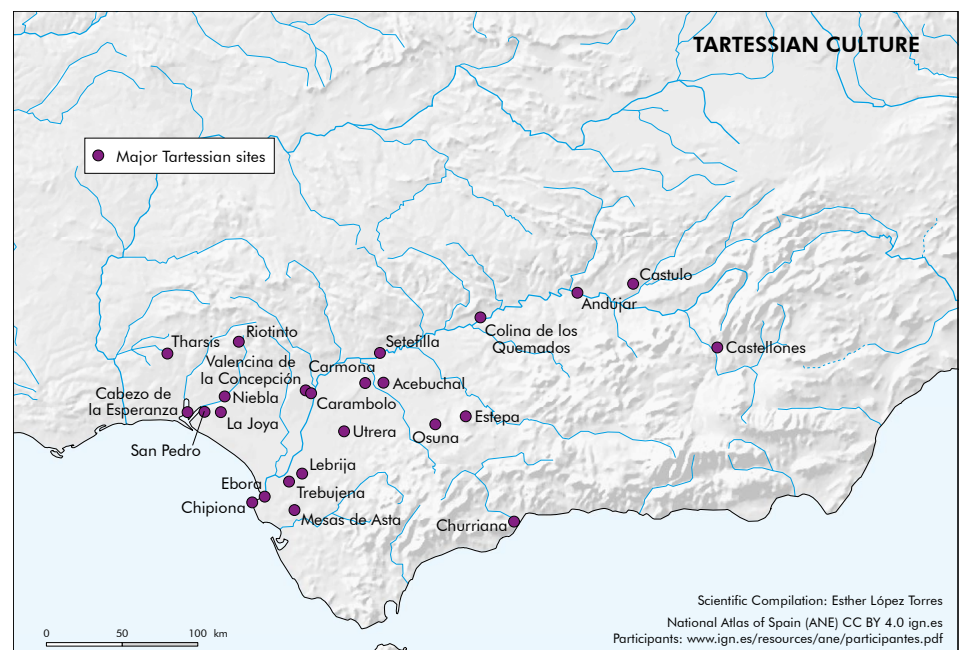
The dawning of the Iron Age on the Peninsula meant a new era in the Neolithic, but it did not lead to significant cultural changes for the people who settled on the Iberian Peninsula at that time.

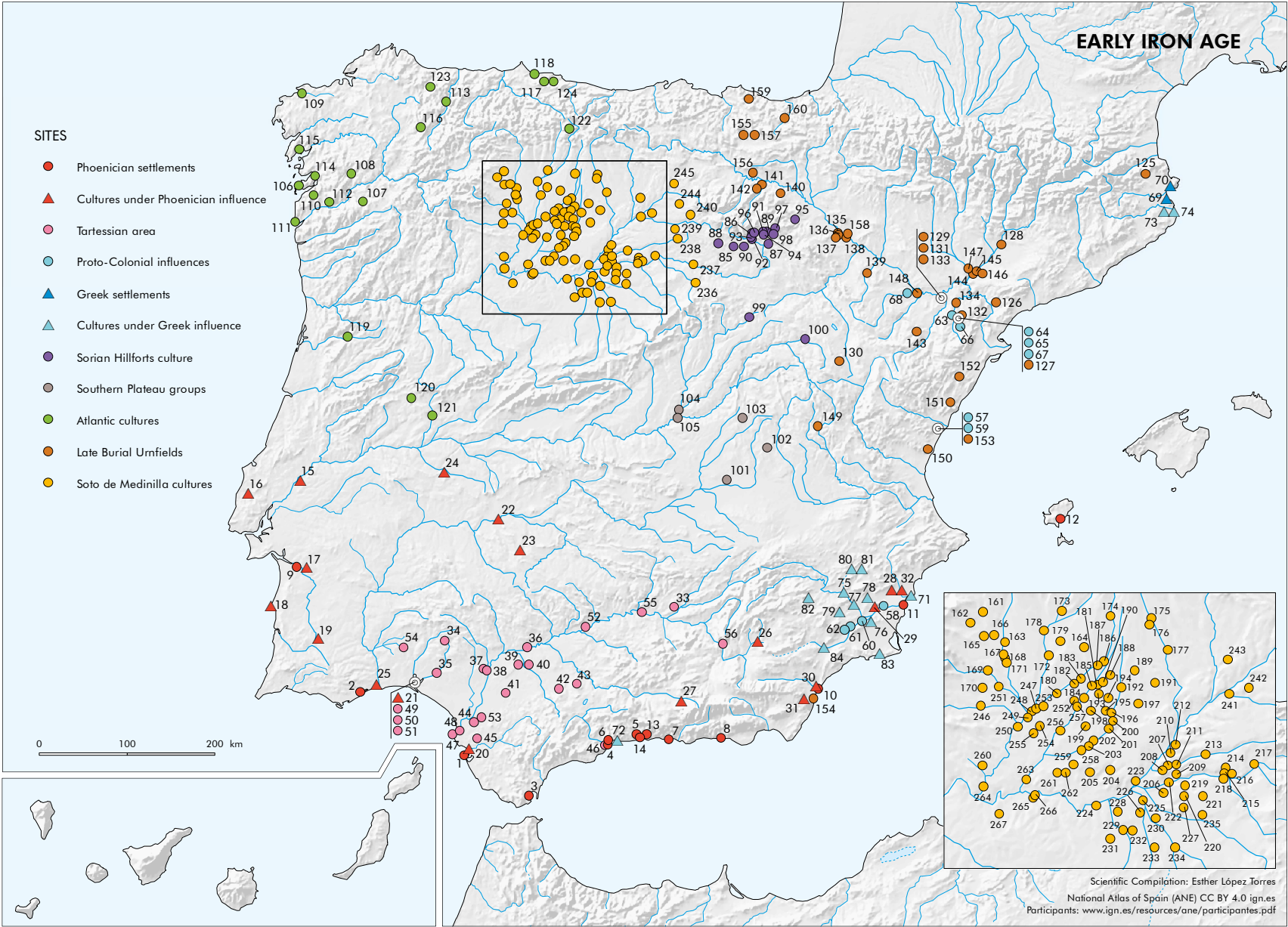
The use of this new metal technology, which required furnaces capable of reaching extremely high temperatures, did not spread homogeneously throughout the Peninsula. Iron-making first began on the coastline in the middle of the 8th century BC by such predominant protohistoric cultures as the Tartessos while inland civilisations continued to work with bronze and were slower to adopt this new technology. These diverse regional differences (evident at some archaeological sites) led to transformations in how these societies were organised throughout the territory, signalling that the Iberian people were entering into a new era (known as ancient history) and leaving Prehistory behind.

This long epoch known as the Iron Age is conventionally divided into two stages: the Early Iron Age (750 BC - 500 BC) and the Late Iron Age (500 BC - 200 BC, as illustrated in the maps of the same title).



Belt from Aliseda Hoard





EARLY IRON AGE SITES

● PHOENICIAN SETTLEMENTS

- 1 Gadir
- 2 Tavira
- 3 Cerro del Prado
- 4 Cerro del Villar
- 5 Toscanos
- 6 Malaka
- 7 Sexi
- 8 Abdera
- 9 Abul
- 10 Baria
- 11 La Fontela
- 12 Eivissa
- 13 Las Chorreras
- 14 Morro de Mezquitilla

▲ CULTURES UNDER PHOENICIAN INFLUENCE

- 15 Aliparca
- 16 Torres Vedras
- 17 Alcácer do Sal
- 18 Sines
- 19 Ourique
- 20 Torre de Doña Blanca
- 21 Huelva
- 22 Medellín
- 23 Cancho Roano
- 24 La Aliseda
- 25 Castro Marim
- 26 Galera
- 27 Monachil
- 28 Peña Negra
- 29 Los Saladares
- 30 Loma del Boliche
- 31 Cañada del Palmar
- 32 Les Moreres

● TARTESSIAN AREA

- 33 Cástulo
- 34 Riotinto
- 35 Niebla
- 36 Setefilla
- 37 Valencina de la Concepción
- 38 Carambolo
- 39 Carmona
- 40 Acebuchal
- 41 Utrera
- 42 Osuna
- 43 Estepa
- 44 Trebujena
- 45 Mesas de Asta

- 46 Churriana
- 47 Chipiona
- 48 Ébora
- 49 Cabezo de la Esperanza
- 50 San Pedro
- 51 La Joya
- 52 Colina de los Quemados
- 53 Lebrija
- 54 Tharsis
- 55 Andújar
- 56 Castellones

● PROTO-COLONIAL INFLUENCES

- 57 Vinaragell II
- 58 Los Saladares
- 59 Burriana
- 60 Santa Catalina del Monte
- 61 El Castellar
- 62 El Murtal
- 63 San Cristóbal
- 64 Tossal-Redó
- 65 Mas de Flandi
- 66 Els Castellans
- 67 Les Ombries
- 68 Azaila

▲ GREEK SETTLEMENTS

- 69 Emporion
- 70 Rhode

▲ CULTURES UNDER GREEK INFLUENCE

- 71 Alonis
- 72 Mainake
- 73 Ullastret
- 74 Puig de Sant Andreu
- 75 Bolbax
- 76 Verdolay
- 77 Cabezo del Tío Pio
- 78 Castillico de las Peñas
- 79 El Cigarralejo
- 80 Cobatillas
- 81 Coimbra de Barranco Ancho
- 82 Los Molinicos
- 83 Los Nietos
- 84 Coy

● SORIAN HILLFORTS CULTURE

- 85 El Pico
- 86 El Puntal
- 87 Cerro de la Calderuela
- 88 Alto del Arenal
- 89 Arévalo de la Sierra
- 90 Cabrejas
- 91 Los Castillejos
- 92 El Castillo
- 93 El Castillejo
- 94 Zarranzano
- 95 Castillejo
- 96 Valdeavellano de Tera
- 97 El Collado
- 98 Castilfrío de la Sierra
- 99 Castilviejo de Guijosa
- 100 La Coronilla

● SOUTHERN PLATEAU GROUPS

- 101 Cerro de las Nieves
- 102 El Navazo
- 103 Madrigueras
- 104 Soto del Hinojar
- 105 Puente Largo de Jarama

● ATLANTIC CULTURES

- 106 Monte O Facho
- 107 Castromao
- 108 Cameixa
- 109 Borneiro
- 110 Torroso
- 111 A Forca
- 112 Taboexa
- 113 Chao Samartín
- 114 As Croas
- 115 Neixón Pequeno
- 116 Penarrubia
- 117 Camoca
- 118 Campa Torres
- 119 Nossa Senhora de Guia
- 120 Monte do Frade
- 121 Moreirinha
- 122 Lois
- 123 Os Castros
- 124 Picu Castiellu de Moriyón

● LATE BURIAL URNFIELDS

- 125 Agullana
- 126 El Molà
- 127 San Antonio
- 128 La Pedrera
- 129 Cabezo de Monleón
- 130 Almohaja de Bezas
- 131 Palermo
- 132 San Cristóbal
- 133 Loma de los Brunos
- 134 Roquizal del Rullo
- 135 Alto de la Cruz
- 136 El Convento
- 137 Morredón
- 138 La Cruz
- 139 Zaforas
- 140 Partelapeña
- 141 La Coronilla
- 142 Santa Ana
- 143 Fila de la Muela
- 144 Besodia
- 145 Montefiu
- 146 Roques de Sant Formatge
- 147 Puntual
- 148 Azaila
- 149 Pajaroncillo
- 150 Pic dels Corbs
- 151 Cavanès
- 152 Salzadella
- 153 Vinaragell
- 154 Gatas
- 155 Henayo
- 156 La Hoya
- 157 Castillo de Henayo
- 158 Alto de la Cruz
- 159 Gasiburu
- 160 Intxur

● SOTO DE MEDINILLA CULTURES

- 161 Quintana de Fon
- 162 Castriello de Polvazares
- 163 Villazala del Páramo
- 164 Castrotierra
- 165 Barrientos
- 166 Castro del Morión
- 167 Regueras de Arriba
- 168 San Martín de Torres
- 169 Castrocalbón
- 170 San Pedro de la Viña
- 171 San Juan de Torres
- 172 Valencia de Don Juan

- 173 Villafañe
- 174 Santa María del Río
- 175 Saldaña
- 176 Pedrosa de la Vega
- 177 Carrión de los Condes
- 178 Ardón
- 179 Gusendos de los Oteros
- 180 Valderas
- 181 Gordaliza de la Loma
- 182 Mayorga de Campos
- 183 Castrobol
- 184 Villavicencio de los Caballeros
- 185 Castroponce
- 186 Melgar de Arriba
- 187 Melgar de Abajo
- 188 Villacarralón
- 189 Cisneros
- 190 Villanueva de la Condesa
- 191 Paredes de Nava
- 192 Herrín de Campos
- 193 Villacid de Campos
- 194 Cuenca de Campos
- 195 Moral de la Reina
- 196 Tamariz de Campos
- 197 Castromocho
- 198 Aguilar de Campos
- 199 Villafrechós
- 200 Villanueva de San Mancio
- 201 Medina de Rioseco
- 202 Tordehumos
- 203 Villagarcía de Campos
- 204 Torrelobatón
- 205 Mota del Marqués
- 206 El Soto de Medinilla
- 207 Castronuevo de Esgueva
- 208 Renedo
- 209 Villabáñez
- 210 San Martín de Valvení
- 211 Olmos de Esgueva
- 212 Valoria la Buena
- 213 Amusquillo
- 214 Piñel de Abajo
- 215 Pesquera de Duero
- 216 Curiel
- 217 Roa
- 218 Padilla de Duero

- 219 Santibáñez de Valcorba
- 220 Montemayor de Pililla
- 221 Cogeces del Monte
- 222 Tudela de Duero
- 223 Simancas
- 224 Pollos
- 225 Valdestillas
- 226 Matapozuelos
- 227 Santiago del Arroyo
- 228 Foncastín
- 229 Medina del Campo
- 230 Alcazarén
- 231 El Campillo
- 232 Gomeznarro
- 233 Almenara de Adaja
- 234 Coca
- 235 Cuéllar
- 236 Ayllón
- 237 Langa de Duero
- 238 Pinilla Trasmonte
- 239 Solarana
- 240 Lara de los Infantes
- 241 Palenzuela
- 242 Santa María del Campo
- 243 Castrojeriz
- 244 Los Ausines
- 245 Ubierna
- 246 Camarzana de Tera
- 247 Castrogonzalo
- 248 Castropepe
- 249 Barcial del Barco
- 250 Bretó
- 251 Arrabalde
- 252 Valdunquillo
- 253 Fuentes de Ropel
- 254 Revellinos
- 255 Villafáfila
- 256 Villalpando
- 257 Bolaños de Campos
- 258 Villanueva de los Caballeros
- 259 Castromembibre
- 260 Carbajales de Alba
- 261 Abezames
- 262 Pinilla de Toro
- 263 Molacillos
- 264 Ricobayo
- 265 Madridanos
- 266 Villalazán
- 267 La Tuda

The Early Iron Age is characterised by two large civilisations occupying two distinct Iberian geographical regions: one in the south and the other, in the east of the Peninsula. The accepted notion that these civilisations were influenced by Mediterranean cultures is supported by the discovery of Protocolonial remnants on the east coast. There is also evidence of Phoenician colonisations in the Southern Mediterranean and Atlantic (Gadir) regions and of the first Greek colonies, including those established by groups under Greek influence. Moreover, there were the great Tartessian settlements in Andalusia, particularly along the Tinto, Odiel and Lower Guadalquivir rivers.

In the north and middle of the Peninsula, the communities remained isolated from Mediterranean influences and retained their indigenous identity and traditions (including, in some cases, the use of bronze). Such behaviour was exhibited by the Late Burial Urnfields Culture (Catalonia and the Ebro Valley), Sorian hillforts culture, the Atlantic Cultures (Portugal, Galicia, and the Cantabrian Cornice), in addition to the Soto de Medinilla culture in the Douro river basin.

Cultural areas and Pre-Roman civilisation

During the Early Iron Age (or Iron Age I), despite the peculiarities of the individual communities located on the Peninsula, these groups shared a common culture with its own customs and traditions, which they managed to sustain even in the face of constant influences from the outside world. Asian influences were felt on the Andalusian, southeastern and eastern coasts, slowly spreading to the farthest stretches of the Peninsula, even to areas difficult to access from the coastlines.

Archaeological evidence regarding early Phoenician presence on the Peninsula reveals they had already started establishing commercial contacts in the area before the 8th century BC or precolonial era. As the Phoenicians began to permanently settle in the southwestern reaches of the territory and gain control of this area sometime after the 7th century BC, close trading relations were gradually developed with the Punic cities of the Near East and Northern Africa. A network of commercial trading routes was established. Their products were exported from their Metropoli to the Iberian Peninsula through developing markets on the Iberian coasts, expanding into the interior.

The colonisations of the areas around Huelva and the Lower Guadalquivir facilitated the growth of the Tartessian culture (it has been spoken about the kingdom of the Tartessos and even about some of its kings) in the Early Iron Age or Iron Age I. This historical and cultural development featured profound changes in the region's indigenous societies. In the Late Bronze Age and the Iron Age I, they transitioned to mining and exploiting the land in the Guadalquivir valley for agricultural purposes, making necessary frequent exchanges and other forms of social interactions. Growing cultural, social and economic influences from the Eastern Mediterranean were becoming evident in these communities. This phenomenon is both evidenced by and attributable to the importation of ceramics, objects made of precious metals, fabrics, oil, and wine.

The Tartessian civilisation, initially limited to the areas along the Tinto, Odiel and lower

Guadalquivir rivers, as can be seen on the map *Early Iron Age*, expanded throughout the southern reaches of the Peninsula to the mouths of the Guadiana and Segura Rivers. The influence of the Tartessian culture had also spanned the southeastern part of the Peninsula, the southern eastern region, the southern coast of Portugal and the interior of Andalusia. Remnants of a Tartessian capital, or of a cultural epicentre have yet to be found despite a tireless search by archaeologists.

Meanwhile, the centre of the Peninsula was much slower to adapt to the technological changes taking place, and as a consequence, its populations did not experience the same level of growth and prosperity as their counterparts in the south. The central territory eventually began to be populated by small fortified villages. An example of this is the Soto de Medinilla culture (which is named after the most thoroughly studied settlement in Valladolid) in the Douro Valley.

By the Iron Age II (500 BC, many years before Romanisation), the use of iron was widespread throughout the Peninsula, greatly increasing the number and variety of available tools. At the same time, new social and economic structures arose on the Peninsula, built on foundations laid from the peoples of the previous era. These



The Lady of Baza (Dama de Baza)

Museo Arqueológico Nacional

cultural and territorial changes were described by Greco-Latin writers, particularly by Pliny and Strabo. The process of acculturation initiated subsequently by Rome was influenced by these Iberian developments.

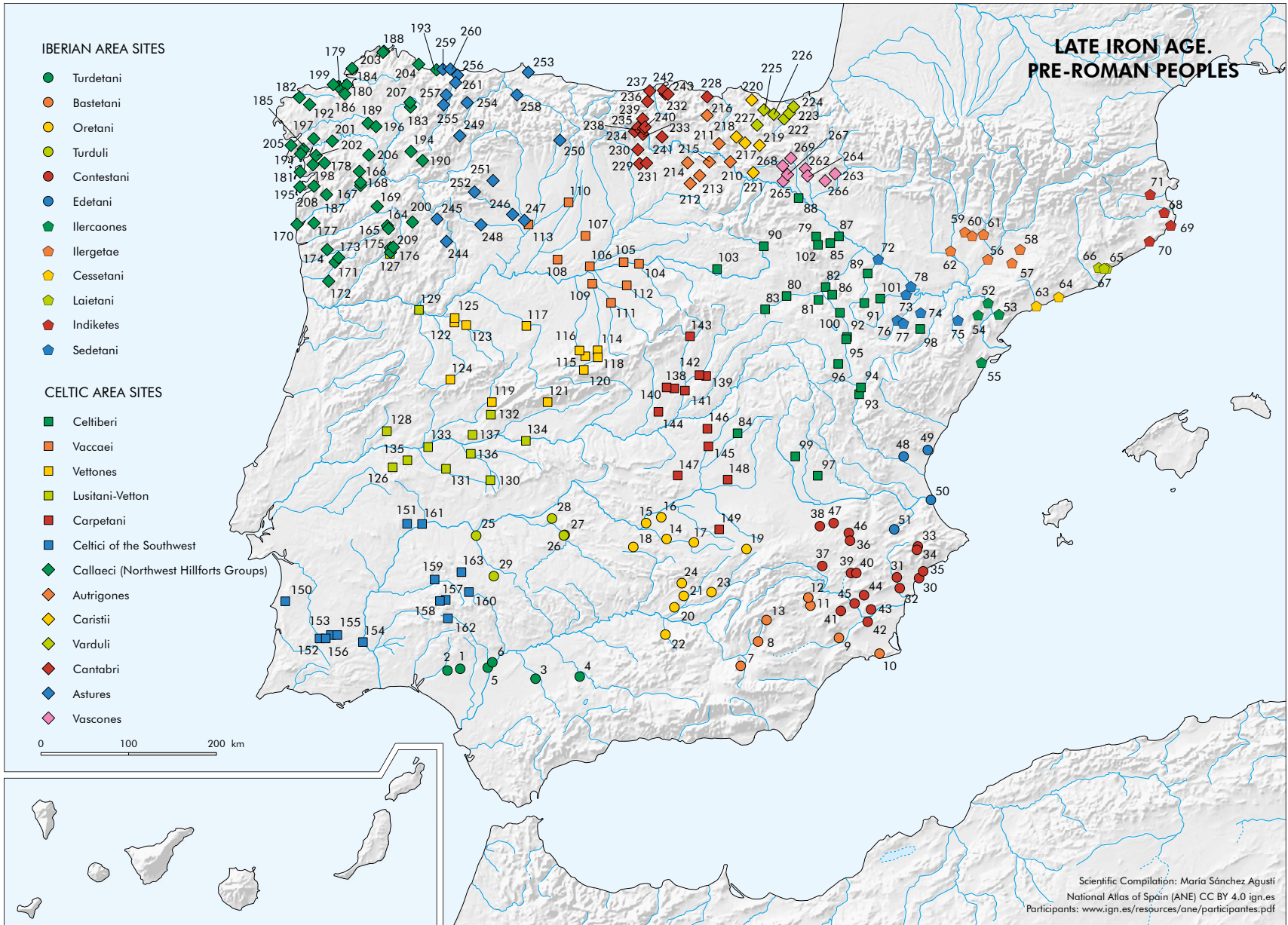
Historians and archaeologists have pointed out the difficulty of linking the data from material remains to information provided by historiographic or literary sources because the information is often confusing and contradictory. Nevertheless, the field of archaeology is making a concerted effort to identify the geographic distribution of Pre-Roman communities based on data obtained from research, as illustrated on the map *Late Iron Age. Pre-Roman peoples*.

The map shows the location of the major archaeological settlement sites identified on the Iberian Peninsula compared to the areas traditionally ascribed to the principle ethnic groups in archaeological literature. This map and its associated information, should be read and interpreted recognising that the borders of the areas occupied by these population groups are generally loosely defined since there were constant social and economic interactions between their respective populations. As a consequence of such interaction over the centuries, these areas were constantly expanding and contracting over the centuries, inevitably producing border uncertainty. The Lusitanian and Vetton population groups are examples of this.

In the south and east, the influence of Colonial Greek acculturation on pre-existing populations varying in social status, led to the eventual establishment of a unified Iberian culture, made up of different groups such as the Turdetani, Bastetani, Oretani, Turduli, Contestani, Edetani, Ilerrcaones, Ilerrgetae, Cessetani, Laietani, Indiketes and Sedetani. Its preponderance in the Peninsula (not in vain named Iberian), is explained by its intense commercial activity, the refinement of agricultural techniques, and its specialization in typically Mediterranean crops (cereals, vines, olive trees), as well as by the development of specialized iron metallurgy and the growth of its population, which gives the entire Mediterranean coastline a higher population density. Their acts of worship and funerary rituals (cremation) reveal a well-structured social hierarchy and a more advanced society. With the introduction of palatial system, the peoples of this Iberian culture began the process of urbanisation. They produced important works of art like *The Ladies (damas)* of Elche (Alicante), Baza (Granada), Guardamar (Cabezo Lucero, Alicante) and Cerro de los Santos (a lost sanctuary near Yecla). They also created high quality metal works of gold and silver, as can be seen by treasures found at Jávea (Alicante) and at Cástulo and Linares (Jaén). Moreover, they had an alphabet, albeit not fully unravelled which spread to the south of France and was used until it was replaced, during the period of Romanisation, by the Latin language and alphabet.

The rest of the Peninsula reflected a conglomeration of indo-European-rooted peoples some more influenced by the Celts than others. There were those on the Plateau: Celtiberi, Vaccae and Vettones; on the Atlantic coast: Celtici of the southwest, Lusitani and Callaeci (Northwest hillforts groups); and in the north, Astures, Cantabri, Autrigones, Varduli, Caristii and Berones. The Vascones located in the Navarran Pyrenees, were also in the north.

The most recent research on the geographical distribution of the population on the Iberian Peninsula during the Iron Age II shows an overall gradual population increase throughout the territory attributable to the expansion of walled settlements (where population tended to concentrate), although the growth varied from region to region. Many of these communities arose starting in the 2nd century BC with the creation of *Oppida*, authentic urban centres with administrative functions and territorial power. These *Oppida* eventually became *civitates* with the Roman occupation of the Peninsula. Life was pastoral and reliant on subsistence farming, primarily involving dried grains, particularly in the Douro and Ebro river basins. There were notable developments in ceramics and metallurgy (particularly for weapons, fibulas, and bracelets) and in the growth and expansion of commercial trade. Noteworthy examples evidencing significant artistic advancement include rock sculptures of boars made (*verracos*) by the Vetton culture and the monolithic stone discs of the Cantabrian stela.



IBERIAN AREA SITES

TURDETANI	43 Cobatillas la Vieja
1 Tejada la Nueva	44 Castillico de las Peñas
2 La Atalayuela	45 Cabezo del Tío Pío
3 Vico	46 Llano de la Consolación
4 Alhonor	47 Los Villares
5 Pajar de Artillo	
6 Cerro Macareno	EDETANI
	48 Sant Miquel
BASTETANI	49 Arse
7 Basti	50 Sucro
8 Tutugi	51 Corral de Saus
9 Las Cabezuclas	
10 Los Nietos	ILSERCAONES
11 Los Villaricos	52 Sant Miquel
12 Los Molinicos	53 Castellet de Banyoles
13 Molata de Casa Vieja	54 Coll del Moro
	55 La Moleta del Remei
ORETANI	ILSERGETAE
14 Oretu-Zuqueca	56 Iltiirta
15 Alarcos	57 Els Villars
16 Calatrava la Vieja	58 Moli d'Espigol
17 Cerro de las Cabezas	59 Olriols
18 Sisapo	60 La Vispesa
19 Mantesa Oretana	61 Tozal de Monderes
20 Cástulo	62 La Codera
21 Giribaile	
22 Puente Tablas	CESSETANI
23 Cueva de la Lobera	63 Kesse
24 Collado de los Jardines	64 Calafell
TURDULI	
25 La Mesilla	LAIETANI
26 Tabla de las Cañas	65 Turó d'en Boschà
27 Peñón del Pez	66 Ca n'Oliver
28 Cerro Cogolludo	67 Puig Castellar
29 Dehesillas	
CONTESTANI	INDIKETES
30 Tossal de Manises	68 Ullastret
31 Monforte del Cid	69 Castell
32 La Alcudia	70 Puig Castellet
33 La Serreta	71 Mas Castellar
34 El Puig	
35 Illa dels Bayets	SEDETANI
36 El Amarejo	72 Salduie
37 El Tolmo de Minateda	73 Cabezo de Alcalá
38 Pozo Moro	74 El Taratrato
39 Coimbra del Barranco Ancho	75 San Antonio
40 La Senda	76 Cabezo de San Pedro
41 El Cigarralejo	77 El Castellido
42 Cerro de la Luz	78 Kelse

CELTIC AREA SITES

CELTIBERI	129 Foz da Côa	177 Cossourado	223 Basagain
79 Turiasu	130 Villasviejas del Tamuja	178 Castro de Orto	224 Buruntza
80 Arcobriga	131 El Castillejo	179 Elviña	225 Muru
81 Mundobriga	132 El Berrocalillo	180 Meirás	226 Munoaundi
82 Bilibis	133 Castillejo de la Orden	181 Lanzada	227 Murugain
83 Ocilis	134 Castillejo de Valdecañas	182 Borneiro	
84 Segóbriga	135 El Cofre	183 Viladonga	CANTABRI
85 Bursada	136 El Castillejo	184 Vilela	228 Peña Sámano
86 Contrebia	137 Sierra de Santa Marina	185 Neixón Grande	229 Peña Amaya
87 El Convento		186 Vigo (Cambre)	230 Monte Bernorio
88 Calagurris	CARPETANI	187 Troña	231 Peña Ulaña
89 Botorrita	138 Cerro de la Gavia	188 Punta dos Prados	232 Castilnegró
90 Numancia	139 Llano de la Horca	189 A Graña Barán	233 Celada Marlantes
91 Herrera de los Navarros	140 Fuente de la Mora	190 Castro da Torre	234 El Castro
92 Fuentes Claras	141 Miralrío	191 O Achadizo	235 La Trijineja
93 Peñalba de Villastar	142 Cerro del Ecce Homo	192 Castro do Vilar	236 Pico del Oro
94 Alto Chacón	143 Castro de la Dehesa de la Oliva	193 As Grovas	237 La Masera
95 La Caridad	144 El Cerrón	194 Formigueiros	238 Las Eras
96 Puntal del Tío Garrillas	145 Cerro del Gollino	195 O Facho	239 Los Agudos
97 Iniesta	146 Plaza de Moros	196 A Ourela	240 La Lomba
98 La Guardia	147 Cerro del Tío Calderico	197 Socastro	241 Pico del Castro
99 Barchín del Hoyo	148 Cerro de las Nieves	198 San Tomé de Nogueira	242 El Gurugú
100 Segeda	149 Laminium	199 Punta Cociñadoiro	243 Peñarubia
101 Piquete de la Atalaya		200 Valdarnio	
102 La Oruña	CELTICI OF THE SOUTHWEST	201 O Peto	ASTURES
103 Uxama	150 Castelo Velho	202 Follente	244 Castro de Avelaós
	151 Segovia	203 Croa do Ladrado	245 As Muradellas
VACCAEI	152 Garvão	204 Fazouro	246 Las Labradas
104 Pintia	153 Corvo-Neves I	205 Punta do Castro	247 La Corona
105 Olivares de Duero	154 Castelo de Mértola	206 A Devesa	248 El Buracote
106 Simancas	155 Castelo da Amendoeira	207 Castro de Rei	249 El Chano
107 Montealegre de Campos	156 Atafona	208 Montealegre	250 Las Rozas
108 Cerro de la Ermita	157 Sierra del Coto	209 Curalha	251 El Castro
109 Matapozuelos	158 Castrejón de Capote		252 La Corona
110 Melgar de Abajo	159 Castillo de Jerez	AUTRIGONES	253 Campa Torres
111 Los Azafranales	160 Castillejos	210 Arce-Mirapérez	254 San Chuis
112 Plaza del Castillo	161 La Alcazaba de Badajoz	211 Castros de Lastra	255 Chao Samartín
113 Cuetos de la Estación	162 El Castañuelo	212 Alto de Rodilla (Tritium)	256 El Castellón
	163 Castro de la Ermita de Belén	213 Monte San Juan (Virovesca)	257 San Isidro
VETTONES		214 Cerro del Milagro (Salionca)	258 El Castiellu
114 Las Cogotas	CALLAECI (NORTHWEST HILLFORTS GROUPS)	215 Necrópolis de Miraveche	259 El Esteiro
115 Los Castillejos	164 Saceda	216 Monte Socueto	260 Cabo Blanco
116 La Mesa de Miranda	165 San Millán		261 Pendía
117 Cerro de San Vicente	166 Mosteiro	CARISTII	
118 Obila	167 Laias	217 Atxa	VASCONES
119 Cáparra	168 San Cibrán	218 Peñas de Oro	262 Andelo
120 Ulaca	169 Novás	219 Henaio	263 Santa Criz
121 El Raso	170 Santa Trega	220 Maruleza	264 Las Eretas
122 Las Merchanas	171 Briteiros	221 La Hoya	265 El Castillar
123 Yecla	172 Sanfins		266 Turbil
124 Iruña	173 Lanhoso	VARDULI	267 Arrosia
125 El Castillo	174 Sao Julião	222 Intxur	268 Pozo de la Mora
	175 Muro da Pastoria		269 Altikogaña
LUSITANI-VETTON AREA	176 Vilarinho das Paranheiras		

Ancient Age

Until relatively recently, the Ancient Age was widely considered to have begun in the Orient with the advent of writing, roughly 5,000 years ago. Today, other factors are also taken into account when situating this period in the timeline of history, such as the way societies were organised, diversification with respect to production and consumption, transport systems, and lastly, the appearance of more advanced civilisations that have gone down in history or, in other words, have persisted in our collective memory.

From this new perspective, the Ancient Age on the Iberian Peninsula is thought to have begun during the Iron Age II, although the last two millennia BC appear to be more typical of the Neolithic period, which was characterised by the use of metallurgy, and therefore cannot be dated to Prehistory with total certainty. Nevertheless, it is much more complicated to define the ending of the Ancient Age. According to some scholars, it concluded with the rise of the Visigoths in the 6th century, while others contend that it was the Moorish invasion (in the Battle of Guadalete) in the year 711 (three

centuries later) that marked its ending. Additionally, these theories raise the question of whether the reign of the Visigoths can be referred to as the first Spanish nation-state. If so concluded, the Middles Ages would only have been a period of re-conquest (*la Reconquista*). Or perhaps, this three-century-long period was merely a continuation of Roman rule (Antiquity). There is a longstanding historiographical debate about whether the origin and essence of Spain begin with *Hispania*, or if Spain is something much more recent, as far as the 19th century. In any case, as previously mentioned, belief in one historical theory does not preclude consideration of other differing theories.

One thing we know for certain is that at the end of the Iron Age, the Iberian Peninsula was in the throes of war for the first time. This violent reality marked the dawning of the Ancient Age on the Peninsula and the transition to the historical era. The ending of the Ancient Age is widely taken to have occurred sometime between the 5th and 8th centuries AD. These three centuries, spanning from the end of Antiquity to the beginning of the Middle Ages, have been termed *The Transition to the Middle Ages*. By this time, a definition of the Iberian Peninsula was taken into account as a unified territory, already medieval in nature, with its own borders and institutions. Its

development paralleled the rise of the Republic of Venice, the expansion of the Franks with its epicentre in Paris, the shift from Latin to Greek in the Eastern Roman Empire, and the appearance and spread of Islam from Anatolia to Gibraltar, ending at the “mare nostrum”.

In the initial years of the Ancient Age on the Peninsula, Carthage, an ancient Phoenician colony of Tyre, near modern day Tunis, had become a great maritime island empire in the Western Mediterranean. After Tyre had been conquered by the Neo-Babylonian Empire in the 6th century BC, Carthage’s influence began to grow, eventually dominating the region. Over time, on the Peninsular coasts and Balearic Islands, the Carthaginians replaced the [Phoenicians](#) who had periodically disembarked on the Iberian Peninsula to work in factories and storehouses since the 9th and 8th centuries BC. Greek explorers from Phocaea and the enclave of Massilia (Marseille) also arrived, and according to older historical sources, established a number of colonies; however, further studies of some of the remains in these areas suggest they belonged to Greeks who were only there engaging in trade with the earlier Phoenician enclaves.

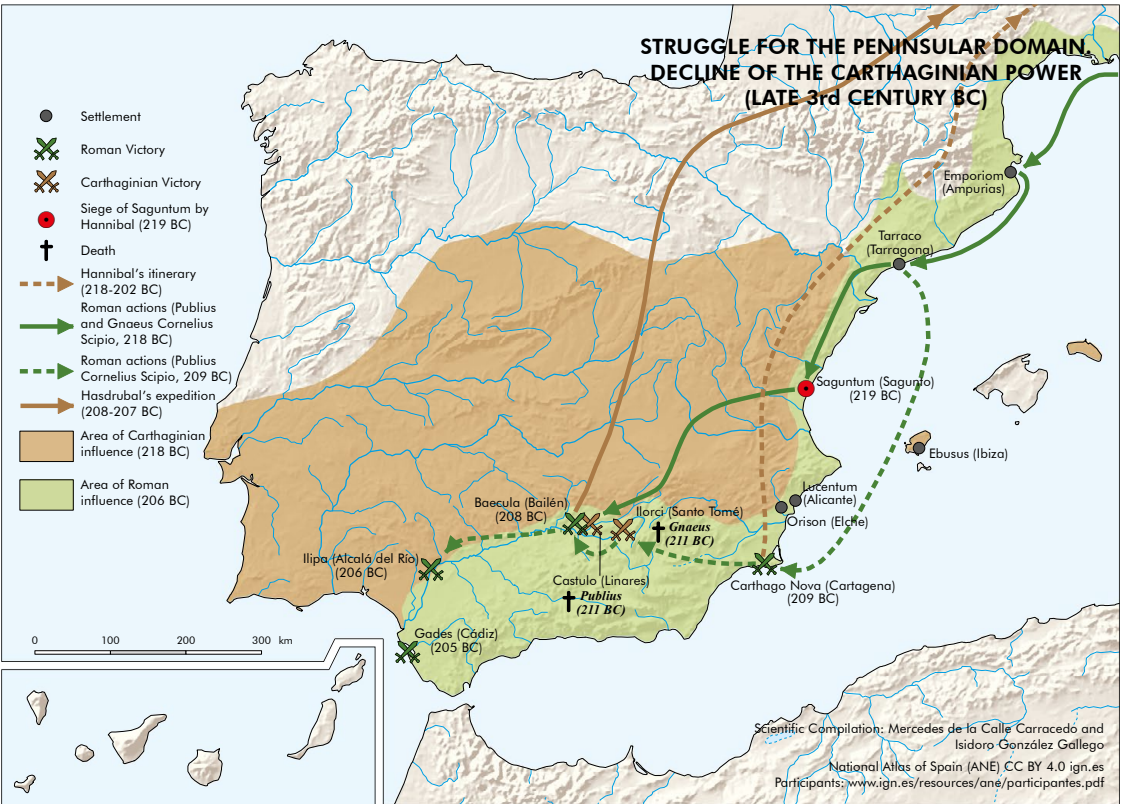
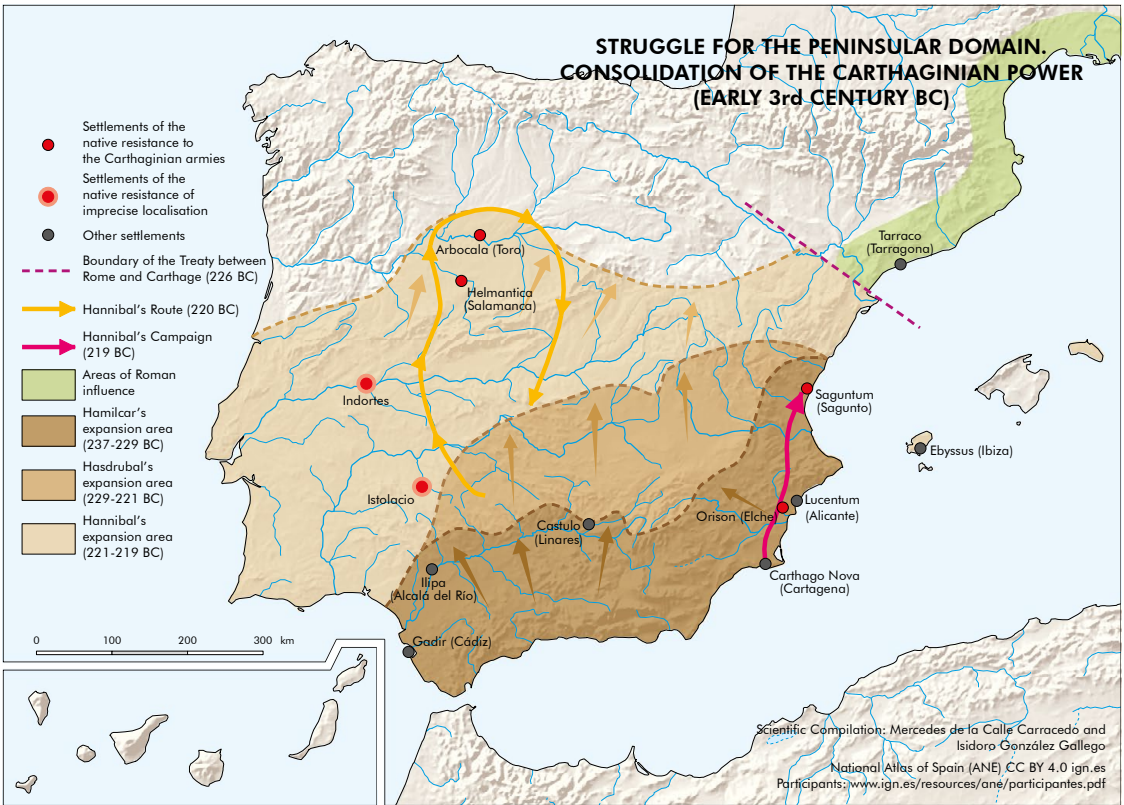
Between the 5th and 3rd centuries BC, the Carthaginian Empire had already consolidated its power. By the 3rd century, it was embroiled in a series of conflicts with the emerging, powerful Roman Empire over the control of Sicily. In the first Punic War, the Carthaginian settlements of Sicily, Corsica and Sardinia were lost to the Romans. The Carthaginians, led by the Barca clan, were in search of a strategic base with logistical advantages on the Iberian Peninsula. In 227 BC, Carthago Nova (Cartagena) was founded.

Subsequently, Carthaginian General Hamilcar Barca took the indigenous peninsular tribes and mining sites under his control, either by force or by means of agreements. His successors, Hasdrubal (his son-in-law) and later, his sons, Hannibal and Hasdrubal Barca, strengthened their control over the territory, which by then stretched from Gibraltar to the Sistema Central mountain range, trying to increase their power over the region to prepare for an inevitable second confrontation with Rome. According to legend, Hamilcar made his son, just a boy at the time, profess eternal hatred towards Romans.

The geographical extent of Carthaginian power was restricted by a border treaty with Rome established in 226 BC, which set the Ebro River as the upper limit of their expansion to the north. It was the seventh such agreement. In 219-218 BC, Hannibal laid siege to the city of Saguntum, an ally of Rome despite its location to the south of the Ebro River. Rather than accept imminent defeat, the Saguntians preferred to commit suicide and burn the city to the ground. The news outraged the Roman Senate; the conquest of Sagunto was considered a *casus belli*.

Hannibal advanced further, commanding his forces across the Ebro River towards Italy on a famed expedition through the Pyrenees and Alps with his forty legendary war elephants. The reaction of the Romans after losing four memorable battles was to undertake an organised military strategy. Meanwhile, Hannibal had reached Capua but had decided against storming the city of Rome. At one point, the supplies he had sent to his brother, Hasdrubal, in Emporium (Empúries, Girona) were ultimately cut off by Roman forces led by Gnaeus and Publius Cornelius Scipio, who had disembarked there in 218 BC. After engaging in several successive battles (Carthago Nova in 209 BC, Baecula in 208 BC, Ilipa in 206 BC, and Gades (Cádiz) in 205 BC) these Roman expeditionary forces eventually succeeded in destroying and replacing the Carthaginian Empire on the Iberian Peninsula.

The Ancient Age was a period characterised by conquest and Romanisation of the Iberian Peninsula. This Roman control over the Peninsula led to the widespread use of the Roman term

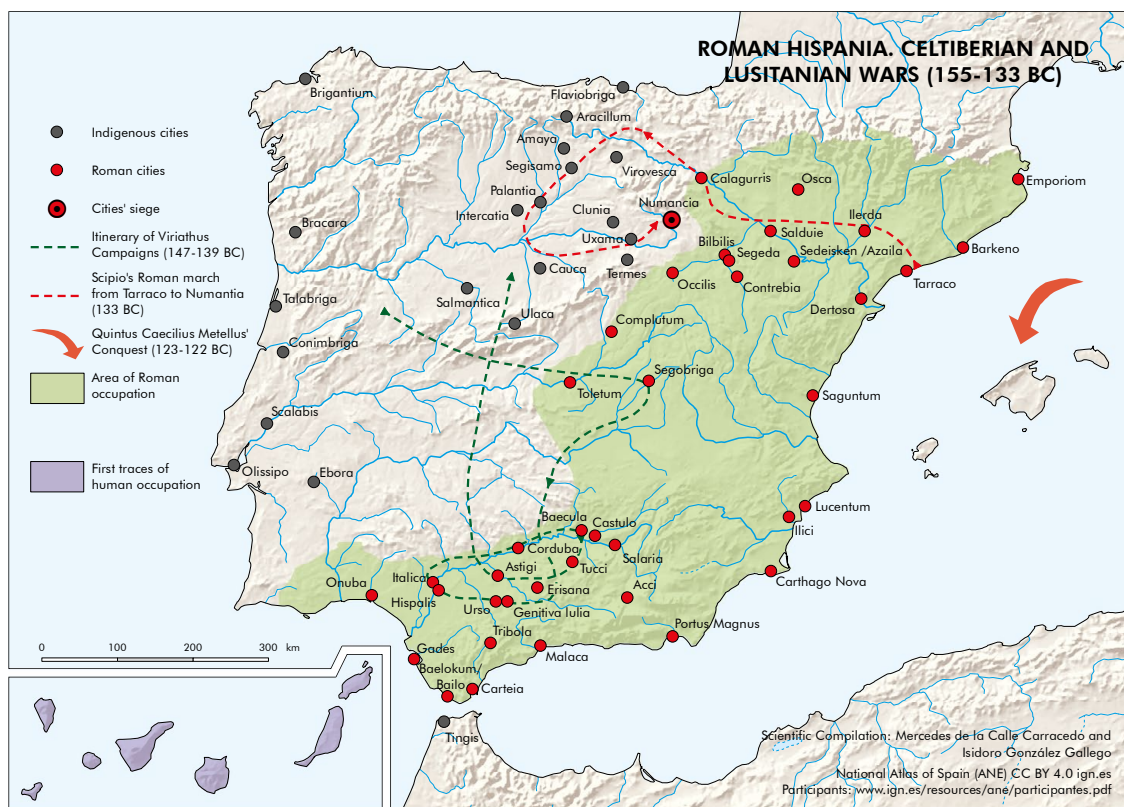




The formation of Roman Hispania

Romanisation on the Iberian Peninsula was a slow, gradual process by which Rome progressively brought the territories of Hispania under its rule. This movement had taken hold starting in the year 218 BC and endured until the end of the 1st century BC, when the diverse peninsular communities had been fully integrated into a single unified territory with a common economy, language and culture.

The first Roman occupation took place along the Mediterranean coast and in the Guadalquivir River Basin, with the Romans ultimately replacing the Carthaginians. The Romans restructured the territory known to the Punic as *I-span-ya* (roughly meaning “the land of metals”), dividing it into two provinces: the *Hispania Citerior* and *Hispania Ulterior* (197 BC).



Expansion into the interior of the Peninsula incited resistance from the various communities, two of which were significant: the wars with the Lusitanians and the Celtiberians. In the former, Lusitanian General Viriathus was triumphant in several battles until he was betrayed and assassinated in 139 BC. In the latter, the Celtiberian city of Numantia was at the centre of several battles, the last one being a long, hard-fought conflict with the forces of Publius Cornelius Scipio Aemilianus. The Numantinos ended up burning the city before ultimately surrendering in 133 BC.

Over time, Hispania gradually assimilated the culture of the Roman Republic. In this territory, civil wars were waged between Mario and Sila. A Sila's enemy named Sertorius (whom the romantic historiography of Spain called the first king of Spain), defied the Romans and became a semi-independent ruler of Hispania until he was assassinated in 72 BC. Sertorius created the Senate of Evora, a school in Osca (Huesca) for the children of native nobility, and his own army. Also, in Hispania, the civil wars between Julius Caesar and Pompey (48 and 49 BC) were raging. Pompey was eventually defeated in the battles of Ilerda (Lleida) as well as his sons in the battles of Munda.

Thirty years later, the Cantabrian Wars broke out (26-19 BC), initiated by Augustus, the first Roman emperor, with the objective of defeating the Galicians, Asturians and Cantabrians. A year before, he had reorganised the Peninsula into three provinces: *Tarraconensis*, *Lusitania* and *Baetica*. Hispania was then completely under the new Roman rule, officially converting into an empire. By this time, its inhabitants had forgotten their old, native traditions and customs and had developed a well-formulated idea of their identity as Hispano-Romans.



Hispania when referring to the collective peninsular territories. Gradually, the inhabitants of Hispania adopted the politics, language, culture, way of thinking and lifestyles of the Roman empire.

The construction of [Roman roads](#) uniting the now very Romanised 150 [cities](#) in Hispania facilitated a rapid distribution of raw materials and merchandise. The development of highly-advanced technology enabled them to go through mountains and [rivers](#) as well as the construction of [aqueducts](#), civic centres, sports complexes, institutional buildings and recreational spaces. The road system ran north-south with two major thoroughfares: *Via de la Plata*, from sea to sea, and *Via Augusta*, extending all the way to the city of Rome. These two roads were linked in turn from east to west by two parallel roads originating in Asturica Augusta and Italica. And lastly, there was a diagonal causeway joining Emerita Augusta with Cesaraugusta.

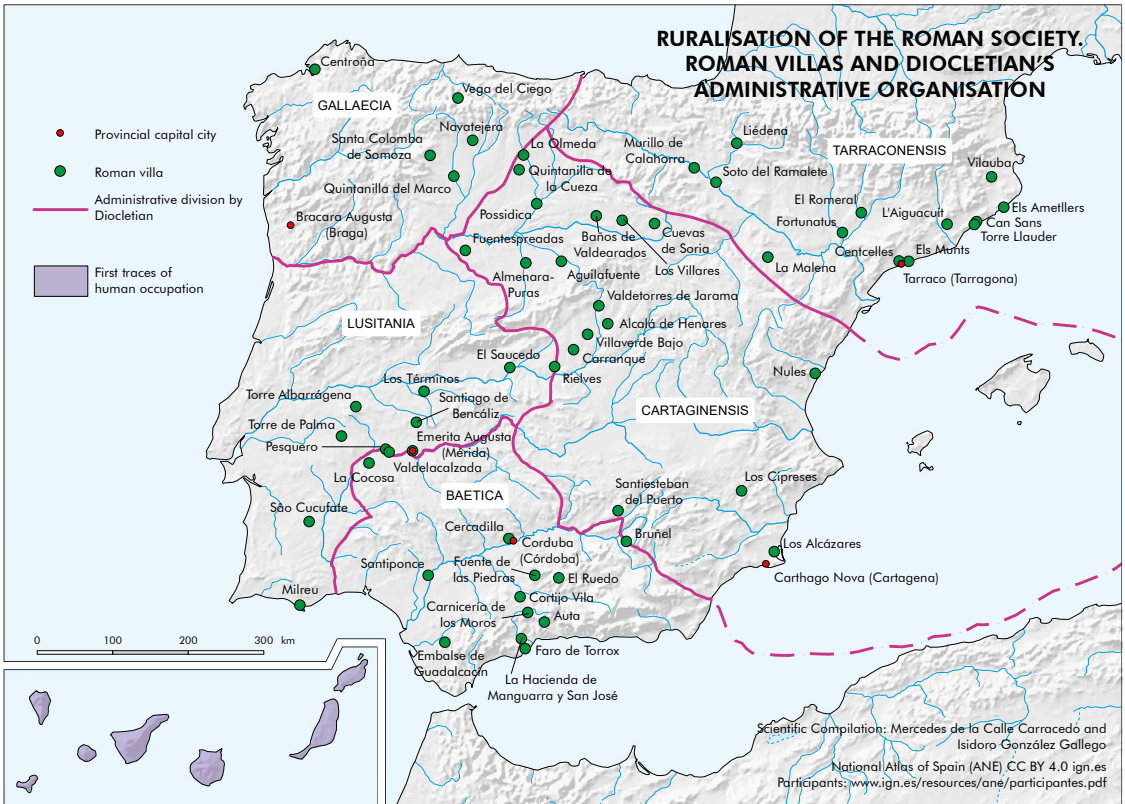
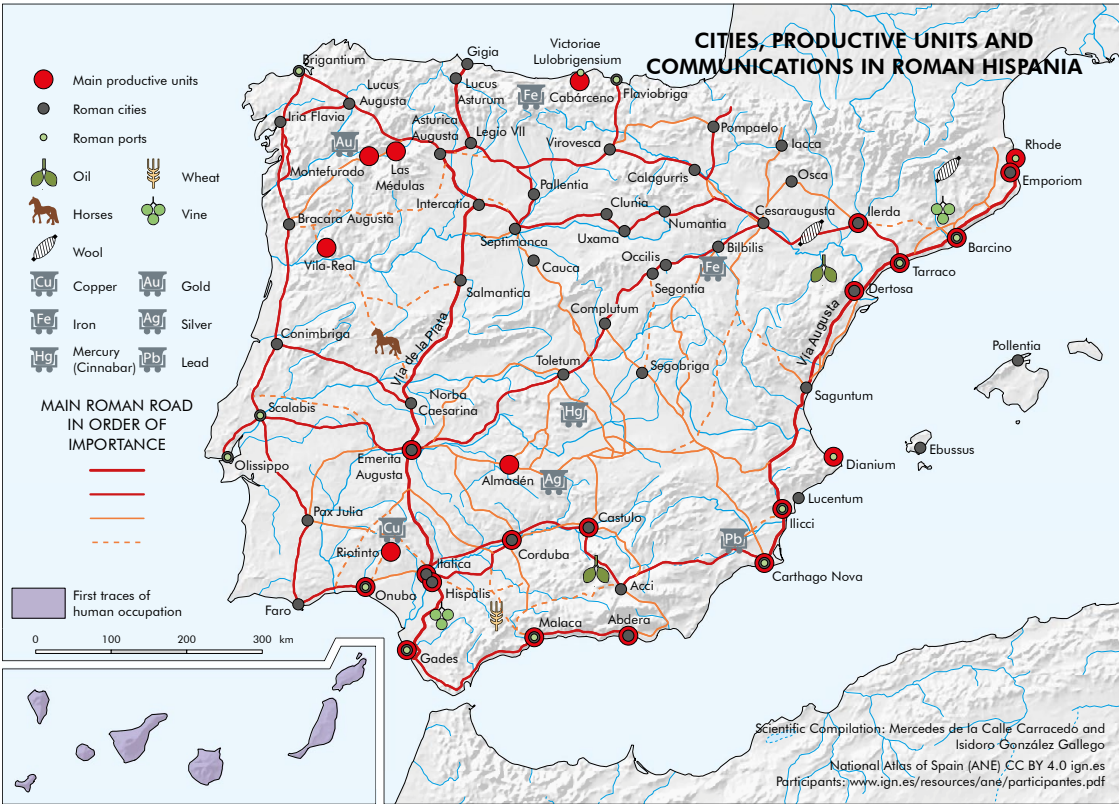
Navigating the coastline along the extension of the *Mare Nostrum* and up to Rome was faster and cheaper than travelling by land. Transport ships enabled the crossing of rivers such as the Guadalquivir to reach Corduba, the Guadiana to reach Emerita Augusta, and the Ebro to arrive in the cities of Cesaraugusta (where the port is visible) and Calagurris.

Production on the Peninsula at this time was primarily based on agriculture, livestock and mining. Cultivation of the Mediterranean dietary trilogy of wheat, olives and wine as well as the herds of horses and flocks of sheep were the basis of wealth in Hispania. While the successful exportation of wine, oil, wool and *garum* (a unique seasoned sauce produced in the southwest) brought prosperity to prominent Hispano-Roman families, the mining of metals was an even more lucrative enterprise. There were numerous mining settlements and drilling was commonplace. Sophisticated extraction techniques such as the *ruina montium* were used. This technique involved the digging of cavities in mountains, which when filled with water, fragmented the rock walls. Though inadvertent, this technique produced spectacular landscapes like [Las Médulas](#). Mining also greatly increased the wealth of the Roman State, both from its own mining operations or by collecting money from private mining companies financed by aristocratic capital.

The strong economic growth of Hispania and its integration into the Roman Empire afforded the wealthy Hispano-Roman clans the privilege of obtaining Roman citizenship. Three centuries later, in 212, the Edict of Caracalla granted citizenship to all inhabitants of the Iberian Peninsula.

In the rural areas, a rich, ancestral palace of a noble man was called a [villa](#); the same name was indistinctively given to a nobleman's agricultural exploitation of his land and his peasants' small villages, which included their bakeries, blacksmith's, carpenter's, mills and ponds. The aristocratic land owners retreated to these villas during the crises of the 2nd and 3rd centuries, periods which brought economic insecurity and in effect, misery. Rural life guaranteed a level of subsistence that the cities could no longer provide.

Facing the crisis of the 3rd century, Diocletian (284-305) carried out an administrative, military and economic restructuring of the Roman Empire. The three provinces of Hispania were divided into five regions: *Tarraconensis*, *Cartaginensis*, *Baetica*, *Lusitania* and *Gallaecia*. However, economic reform brought poverty. Slaves, who were very costly, were emancipated and inevitably became peasants, servants, manual labourers, and even, personal bodyguards for the lords and their possessions. The development of this system of multiple autonomous regions with a central governing power (which also protected life against hunger or thieves), forebode the manorial system of feudalism.



The transition to the Middle Ages

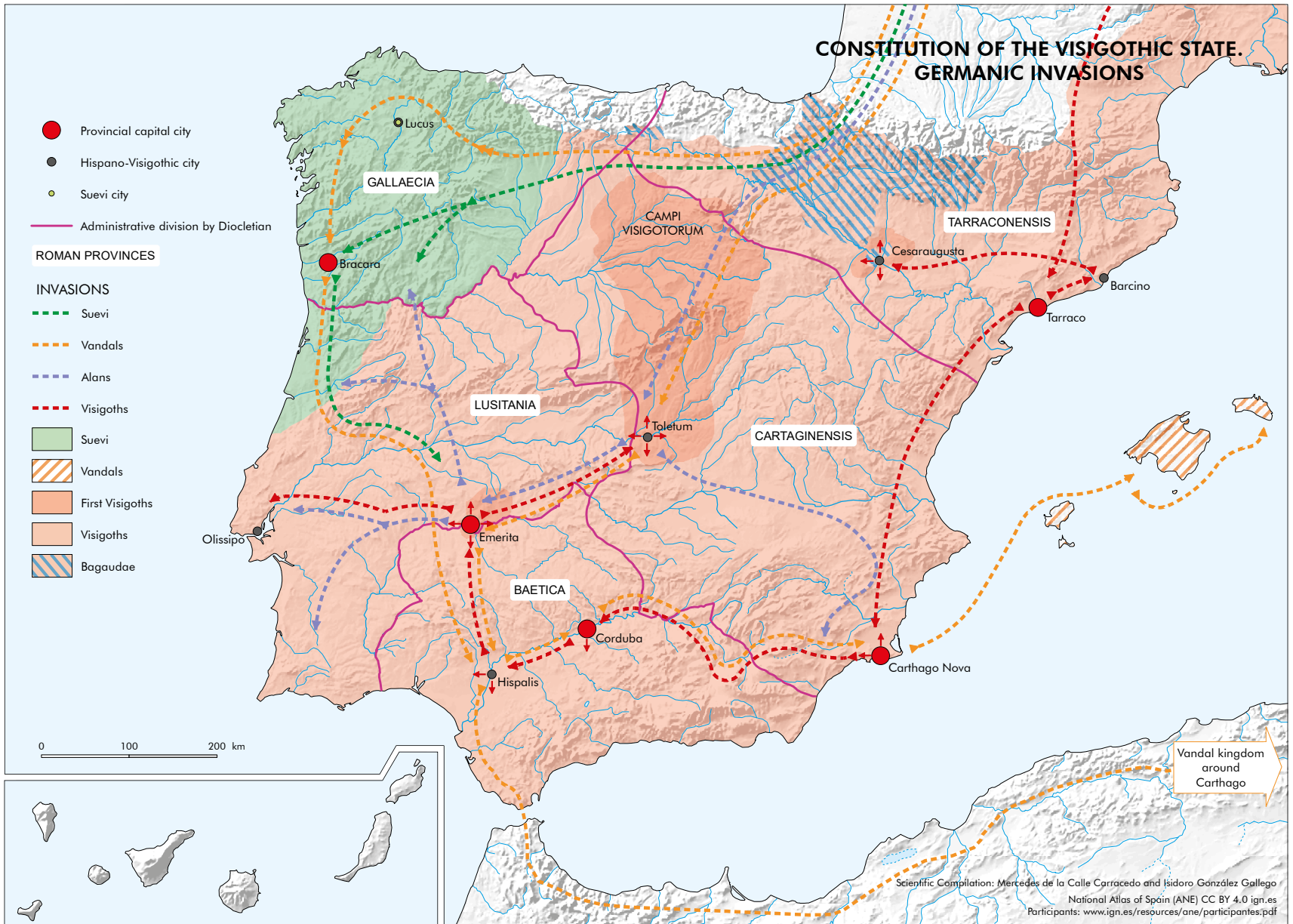
Rural Hispania aided the successive arrival of Barbarian tribes to the Iberian Peninsula throughout the 5th century. They came by virtue of agreements or *foedus* (the root of the word feudal) negotiated with the remote imperial power of Rome, in turn, felt obligated to show them some level of *hospitalitas*. They had not come to wage war, so upon their arrival, only some cities, run by their bishops, closed its doors to them. Moreover, they were rarely met with hostility, except on the occasions when some group joined together with gangs of *Bagaudae* (organised thieves). In any case,

this Barbarian presence on the Iberian Peninsula went virtually unnoticed in a population of perhaps four million people.

The Suevi arrived around 409, the Vandals, around 411 and the Alans about 418. After intermingling with the Hispano-Romans, the Suevi were the only group of people during the 5th and 6th centuries able to establish their own state. The first Visigoths arrived on the Iberian Peninsula between the years 414 and 417. As allies of the Roman Empire and in exchange for this loyalty, they were awarded a giant swath of land spanning from the Loire to the Ebro rivers. In this region, they went on to establish their

capital city, Toulouse. The Visigoths contributed to the victory of the Orleans Battle against the Huns in 451 and founded the first court of law in Barcelona. They expelled the Alans and Hasdingi Vandals from the Iberian Peninsula. A second wave of immigrants arrived in Hispania between 466 and 484. When the Franks defeated the Visigoths in the Battle of Vouille in 507, they settled south of the Pyrenees and Toledo became their new royal seat, circa 540.

Over the course of the 6th century, Hispania gradually ceased to be Hispano-Roman and by the 7th century, started to become Hispano-Germanic. With King [Leovigild](#) at the helm (568-586)



the Visigoths united the territory and attacked the villages in the north (573-581) as well as the Suevi (585) and the Byzantines, who had arrived on the Peninsula during the territorial expansion led by Emperor Justinian. Recared (586-601), Leovigild's successor, renounced Arianism, the official Visigoth religion and accepted the Nicene Creed, as did the Hispano-Romans. King Suintila (621-631) expelled the last of the Byzantines and it is posited that King Recceswinth may have been the leader who in 654 unified the Germanic and Latin laws to create the Visigothic law code *Liber Iudiciorum*. This legal system was in effect in the Hispanic kingdoms throughout the High Middle Ages. The institutional structure of the Visigothic Kingdom included legislative assemblies (the *concilios*) where nobles and clergymen took decisions, great halls in an imperial or royal palace (*aula regia* or *cincilium regis*), a Royal household imitating the Roman Imperial Model (*officium palatinum*), borders, an army, and a currency. [Saint Isidore](#) recognised in his *Laus Hispaniae* that: "You are, oh Hispania, sacred mother... the most beautiful of all lands... from the West to India... You are the honour and ornament of the world, the most illustrious... And therefore... golden Rome loves you and... the nation of the Goths... it now rejoices in you... with security and happiness".

Middle Ages

The Middle Ages in the Peninsula is the historical period that goes from the battle of Guadalete (711) –other records situate its beginning in 540 when the new seat of the Visigothic kingdom is established in Toledo– up to 1492, the year of the conquest of Granada, the discovery of America, the first grammar of the language by Nebrija, and the expulsion of the Jews. It is debated however, whether the period led by the Catholic Monarchs Isabella and Ferdinand (1469-1517) can no longer be considered medieval but typical of the Modern Age, the next period. On the other hand, traditional historiography calls *Reconquista* to these eight hundred years, understood as a permanent struggle for the “recovery of Spain”. This idea was coined by the Mozarabs, who fled from the Islamised south of the Peninsula to the Christian lands of the north.

The battle of Guadalete, in which the last Visigothic king, Don Rodrigo, is defeated in an expedition of the Muslim leader Tariq, begins the fulminant campaign that reaches the capital city of Toledo that same year. In successive journeys, along the Hispano-Roman road network, the different territories of the Hispano-Visigothic aristocracy or the episcopate were subjugated. Some great lords were maintained through pacts of submission, such as Count Teodomiro (Tudmir, in Murcia), or that of the family of Count Cassius who, Islamised as Banu Quasi, remained in the middle valley of the Ebro.

The speed of the conquest prevented an effective occupation of many territories. Pelayo, the Visigothic noble welcomed by the Cantabrian tribe



Patio de Doncellas, Real Alcázar de Sevilla. Palace built by Pedro I (14th century)

of the Vadinienses, led a legendary resistance in the Picos de Europa, where the [Battle of Covadonga](#) (722) took place. The kingdom of Asturias will be the territorial reference for unsubjugated Christians, with successive capital cities in Cangas de Onís (eighth century) and Oviedo (ninth century). Covadonga is magnified by the early medieval Christian chronicles (and minimised by the Muslims) as the initial milestone of the *Reconquista*.

The Peninsula became an emirate (military and administrative territory) of the Umayyad Caliphate in Damascus, which renounced further expansion to the west (Al-Andalus) after being defeated by the Franks of Charles Martel in Poitiers (732).

The triumph of the rebellion of the Abbasids against the Umayyads (750) caused the flight of a young

prince through North Africa to Córdoba, where he was proclaimed emir, but independent of Baghdad, the new capital city of the Abbasid Caliphate. It was Abd-al Rahman I, who inaugurated the dynasty of the Spanish-Muslim Umayyads in 756.

Meanwhile, between the eighth and ninth centuries, the Asturian kingdom extended east and west. New pockets of resistance emerged (the kingdom of Pamplona, counties of [Aragon](#), Sobrabe, Ribagorza...). Charlemagne, King of the Franks and Emperor since 800, interposed a *Marca Hispánica* (an area of feudatory regions) in front of the Muslims territory, in the southeast of the Pyrenees. At the end of the ninth century, these Catalan counties were freed from Frankish dependence: Pallars, Urgell, Ampurias, Gerona and Barcelona.



Islamic Spain

Islamic Spain, which emerged when Abd-al Rahman III was proclaimed caliph, remained stable throughout the three centuries of the independent emirate of Baghdad (756-929) and the [Caliphate of Cordoba](#) (929-1031), both represented on the maps of the same name. The caliphate brought peninsular Islam to its zenith and slowed down the northern kingdoms. Its swan song was the rule of Almanzor (929-1002), the favourite of the caliph Hisham II, the terror of the Christians. Both maps show the *kuras*, or provinces, which in the border areas had a military character.

In Christian Spain, when Ordoño II (914) transferred the court to León, the Asturian-Leonese kingdom was formed, soon to be only Leon. The county of Pamplona also became a kingdom. In the Pyrenees, the counties of Aragon, Sobrarbe and Ribagorza followed, and between these and the sea, the Catalan counties were consolidated, particularly Urgel and Barcelona (the Berenguer dynasty).

The death of Almanzor (1002) precipitated the implosion of the caliphate which, in contrast to the unifying Christian project of Sancho III el Mayor de Navarra, fragmented into independent kingdoms: the taifas. The most extensive were the ones on the border: Badajoz, Toledo and [Zaragoza](#). The others were small but soon the ones of Sevilla and Valencia stood out and, along with them, those of Málaga, Granada and Almería, the future kingdom of Granada. Forced to pay high *paria* (annual payment) to the Christian Monarchs, and after the loss of Toledo (1085), they called on the help of North African empires.

When Sancho III el Mayor de Navarra (1035) died, he had left his two sons the counties of Castile and Aragon, transformed into kingdoms. In the west, Fernando I of Castile united his kingdom with the kingdom of Leon. His son Alfonso VI was the conqueror of Toledo (1085). In the east, Alfonso I of Aragon conquered Saragossa in 1118; and the marriage pact of Count Ramón Berenguer IV of Barcelona with the child Queen Petronila (1137), joined the Catalan counties with the emerging kingdom of Aragon.

Conquered by the Christian Monarchs (12th and 13th centuries), the taifas were incorporated with their own characteristics, and their names resounded in the titles of the Christian Monarchs, which were also monarchs of the Algarve, Toledo, Badajoz, Murcia, Jaén, Valencia, Majorca and so on.

The Muslim presence in Spain (711-1492)

Spanish Islam

711-756

Al-Andalus, a territory (emirate) of the caliphate of Damascus

756-929

The emirate declared independence from the caliphate

929-1031

The eighth emir, Abd-al-Rahman III (912-961), was proclaimed caliph

1031-1086

The caliphate was dismembered into 24 independent kingdoms or taifas

Spanish African Islam

1086-1144

The Islamic kingdoms were conquered by the Almoravid empire

1144-1147

Taifa kingdoms briefly regained their independence

1147-1232

The new African empire, the Almohads, incorporated the taifas

1232-1248

The Almohad empire collapses alongside the confused resurgence of the taifas

Nasrid kingdom of Granada

1238-1492

The kingdom of Granada survived, protected behind the Baetic mountains

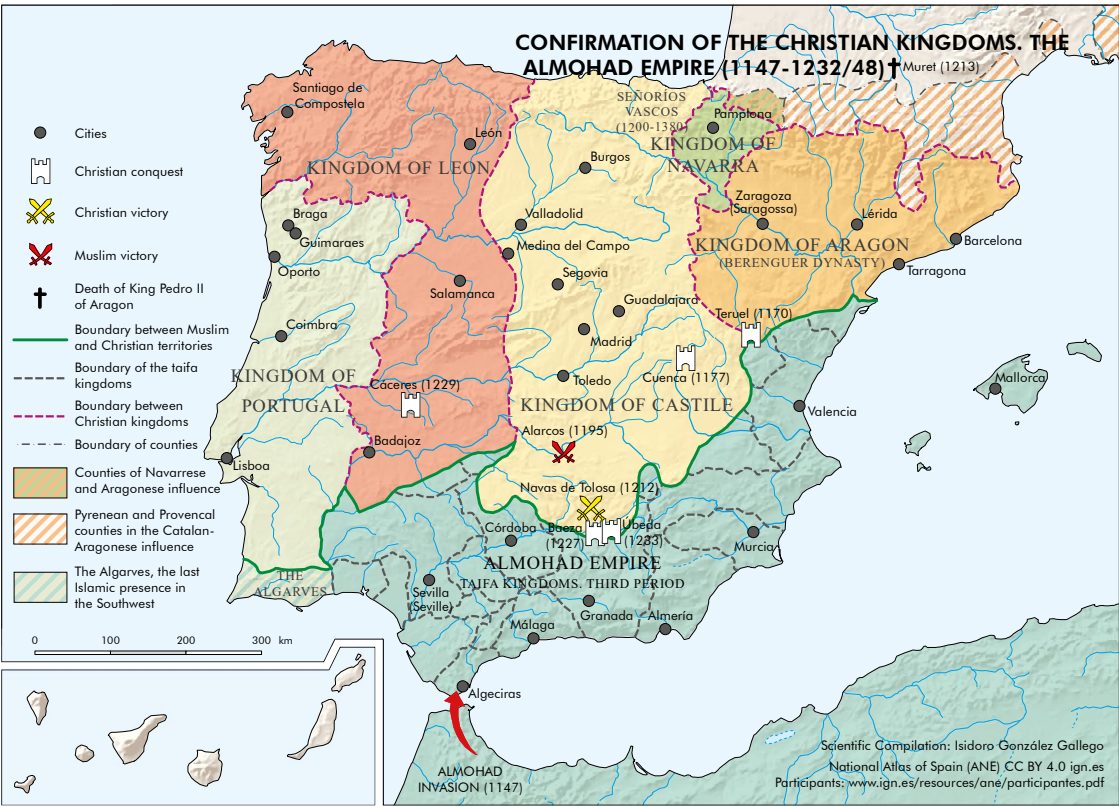


Christian Spain

The trail of a Hispanic Islam, once the caliphate had disappeared, and although generating a rich and flourishing cultural and economic period, was impossible because of the irrepressible pressure of the Christian kingdoms. The taifa kings successively called on the help of two warlike fundamentalist movements that emerged in North Africa: the Almoravids (11th-12th centuries) and the Almohads (12th-13th centuries). Nevertheless, for almost three centuries, the two North African empires were a suprastructure, more military and less political, with which the Spanish-Muslim aristocracies coexisted. Great victories of the Almoravids (Sagrajas and Uclés) and Almohads (Alarcos) did not reverse the situation in the Peninsula.

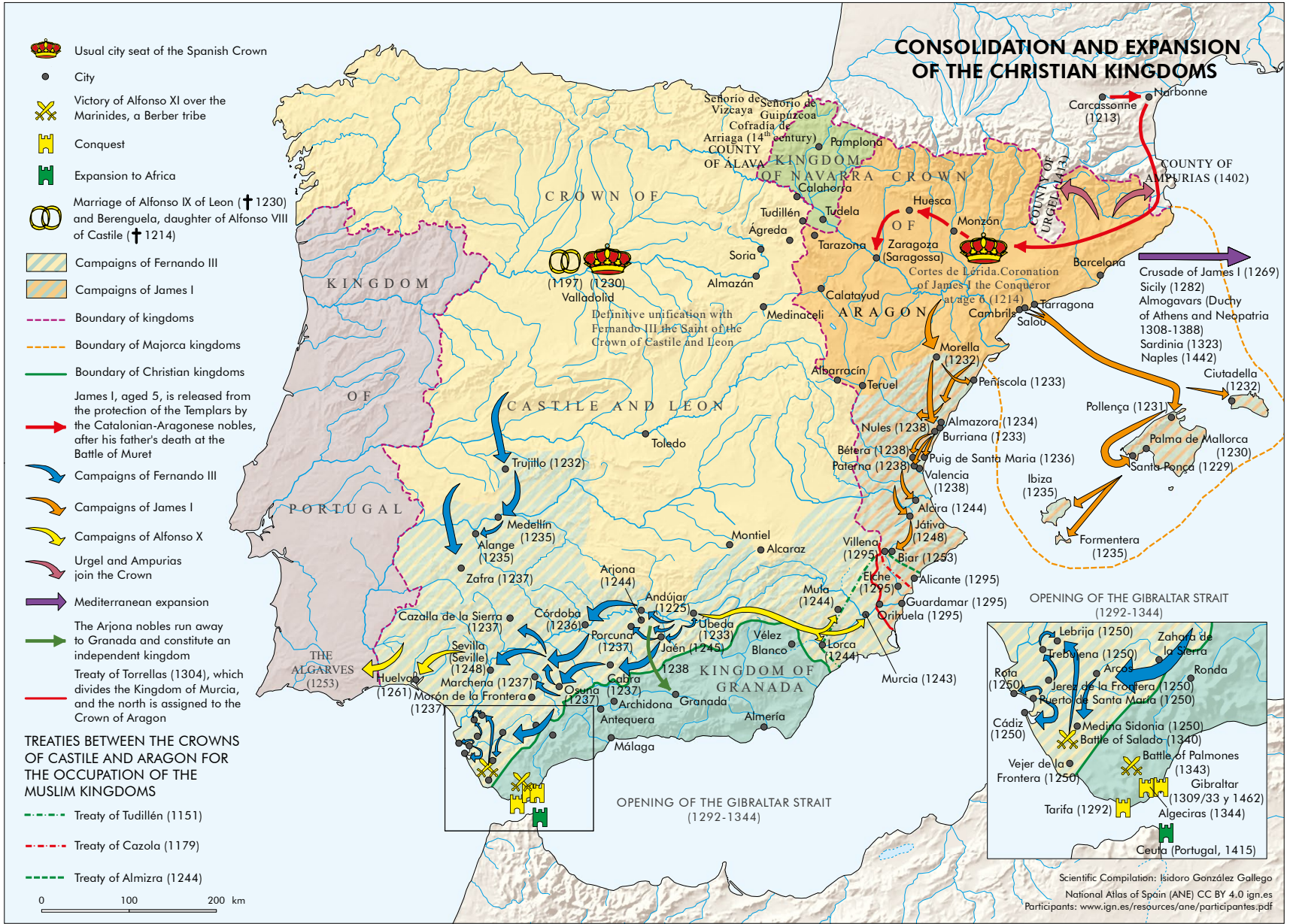
When Alfonso I of Aragon, after conquering Saragossa, defeated the Almoravids in Cutanda Battle and when Alfonso VI of Castile withstood the onslaught against Toledo, it was predicted that the Christian configuration was going to be consolidated. The crucial test would come with the Almohad invasion. The Castilian King Alfonso VIII, with the help of the Portuguese, Navarrese and Aragonese, military orders and knights from all over Europe, was already capable of inflicting on Islam its most spectacular defeat, [Las Navas de Tolosa](#) (1212). In turn, Alfonso IX of Leon his son-in-law, and the only one who had not responded to the call for a crusade to Las Navas, seizes all of Extremadura. Hispanic Islam is definitively sentenced, except for a beleaguered Kingdom of Granada. The [Kingdom of Leon](#), except for two brief periods (1035-1037 and 1065-1072) had constituted a single monarchy. Between the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, the division into two kingdoms would last from 1157 to 1230, when Fernando III (son of Alfonso IX and Berenguela of Castile) definitively united the two crowns of Castile and Leon, which resulted in an immediate [expansion](#) through the Guadalquivir valley to the Atlantic coasts and east to the Mediterranean coasts. In this territory it was going to collide with Aragon, where James I had been advancing south of the Ebro river along the coast, parallel to Fernando III, a territory under discussion due to the constant treaties of future limits, evidence of the secular planning of the *Reconquista*.

In addition to the Navas de Tolosa, another battle had marked an important turn in the Peninsular Middle Ages: that of [Muret](#), after which the



Pacts of territorial occupation and distribution of power (12th - 15th centuries)

12 th century	13 th century	14 th century	15 th century
1140 Treaty of Carrión The Crown of Aragón (Ramón Berenguer IV, <i>princeps</i> of Aragón and Count of Barcelona) and the Crown Castile and Leon (Alfonso VII) agree to divide up Navarre	1243 Treaty of Alcaraz Alfonso X signs agreements with Muslims for the occupation of the Kingdom of Murcia	1304 Arbital sentence of Torrellas Signed between the kingdoms of Castile (Ferdinand IV) and Aragon (James II) with the agreement of Portugal (Dionis I) and Granada (Muhammad III) fixed definitively the territories of Castile and Aragon	1412 The Compromise of Caspe The Castilian dynasty of Trastámara goes on to rule in the Crown of Aragón by election of delegates from Aragón, Catalonia and Valencia
1143 Treaty of Zamora The Castilean-Leonese Crown recognises the independence of the kingdom of Portugal	1244 Treaty of Almizra The Crown of Aragón (James I) recognises for Castile (Alfonso X, crown prince) the possession of all the territories south of the Biar port (Kingdom of Murcia) in view of the breach of the treaties of Cuenca (1177) and Cazola (1179)		1475 The Concord of Segovia Isabella of Castile and Ferdinand of Aragon recognise each other as king and queen, and the common powers in the territories of their spouse
1151 Treaty of Tudillén Ramón Berenguer IV and Alfonso VII ratify the treaty of Carrión and agree to divide the islamic territory: the south of the River Júcar and Murcia for Aragón	1258 Treaty of Corbeil France (Louis IX) and Aragon (James I) renounce the fundamentals of their rights north and south of the Pyrenees		1491 Capitulation of Granada Signed between the Catholic Monarchs and King Boabdil. The guarantees given to the Muslims (freedom of religion, public charges, etc.) were not honoured.
1157 Treaty of Lérica Confirms the treaties of Carrión and Tudillén and agrees on the marriage of the two heirs	1297 Treaty of Alcañices The definitive border between Castile and Leon and the kingdom of Portugal is fixed		
1158 Treaty of Haxama Castile (Sancho III) renounces his rights in Aragon (Ramón Berenguer IV being the <i>princeps</i> of Aragon and count of Barcelona) in exchange for the vassalage to the Crown of Castile	1246 Pact of Jaen Fernando III of Castile and Leon accepts the borders of the kingdom of Granada		
	1278 and 1288 First and second pariatge of Andorra Feudal condominium is agreed of the diocese of Urgel and the county of Foix, which incorporated into France (Henry IV, 1594) and binds these rights to the French crown (Louis XIII, 1620). This double dependency still remains to the present day		



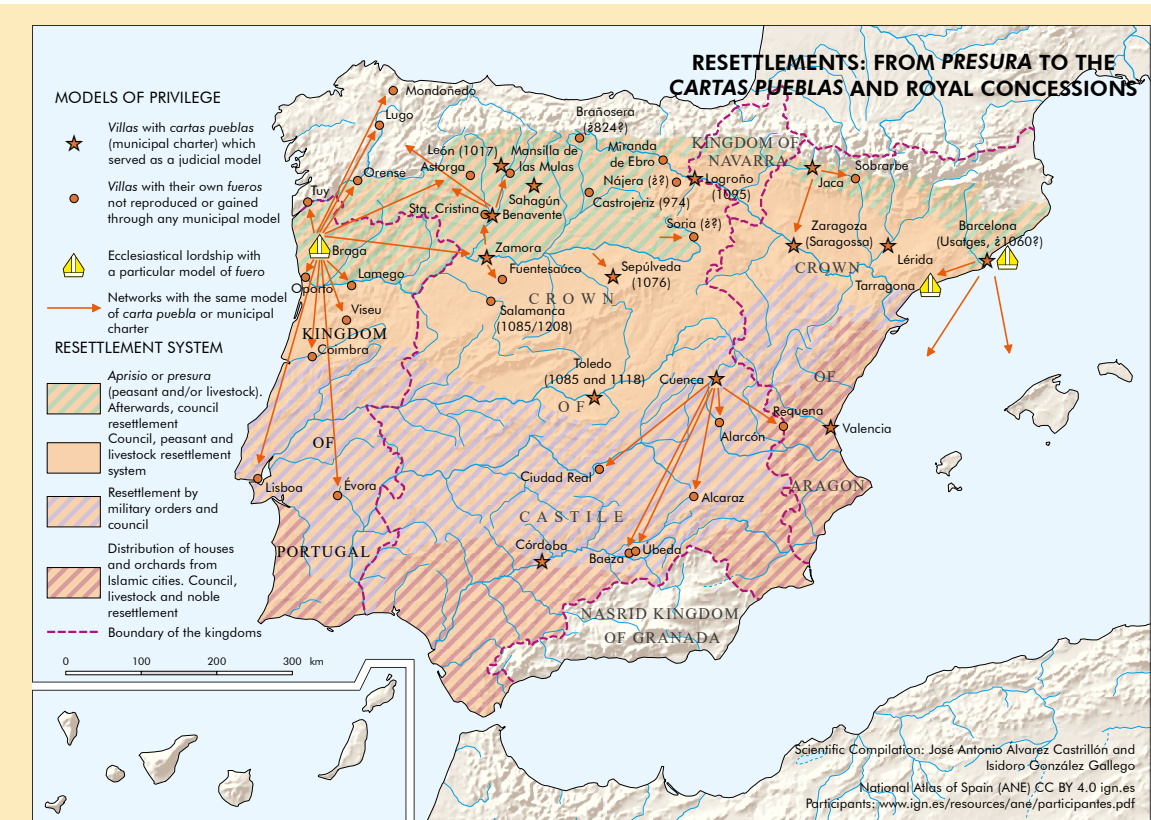
Aragonese crown, held since 1137 by the Catalan dynasty of the Berenguer, renounced the north-Pyrenean territories (recognised in the Treaty of Corbeil of 1258, between James I of Aragon and Louis IX of France), and turned south to complete its peninsular expansion. Immediately after that, the Mediterranean expansion began.

James I, like Louis IX, organised a crusade, but failed. In 1282, after the Sicilian Vespers, Pedro III of Aragon was crowned king of Sicily. In 1304 the Almogavars,

called by the emperor of Byzantium, defeated the Turks in Asia Minor and seized Athens. In 1323, James II began the conquest of Sardinia. In 1352, the Catalan squadron defeated the Genoese in the Bosphorus. In 1442, Alfonso V conquered Naples.

The five kingdoms: Castile and Aragon have been definitively consolidated. Navarre, after its successful participation in the Battle of Las Navas, remains more in the rearguard. Portugal became a kingdom after the victory of Alfonso Enriquez in Ourique; its borders

(recognised in the Treaty of Zamora) are the oldest in Europe. Granada, the fifth kingdom, survived as a trade link between Africa and the East. Castile had to face the North African invasion of the Benimerines in El Salado and Palmones battles and then focused on the opening of the Gibraltar Strait, with the conquests of Tarifa, Algeciras and Gibraltar. Later, under the rule of the Trastámara dynasty, enthroned after a civil war (1336-1339), they put greater pressure on the Nasrid borders and took Zahara (1407), Antequera (1410) and Archidona (1462).



Repopulations

8th – 9th centuries

With the advances to the South, it was necessary to populate the new territory. At first, some peasants, the *foramontanos*, came down from the North and occupied these empty lands and some monks (Mozarabs) also went up fleeing from the Muslims and built monasteries. It was the Asturian-Leonese *presura* and the sub-Pyrenean *aprisio* system.

10th – 11th centuries

To legalise the occupations and encourage repopulation, the Monarchs promoted councils, through the granting of *cartas pueblas*, or municipal charter with privileges for those who populated an area.

12th – 13th centuries

The North African invasions were answered by military orders, which obtained extensive territories in reward.

13th – 15th centuries

The conquered cities suffered repartitions, handing over of houses and orchards as spoils to the participants in the campaign, and in turn the nobility received huge latifundia.

Modern Age

Dynastic union of Aragon and Castile

The Modern Age began on the Iberian Peninsula during the joint reign of Isabella I of Castile and Ferdinand II of Aragon (1469-1504/1516) and ended with the Spanish War of Independence (1808-1814). There were two dynasties that ruled throughout that period, the Habsburgs dynasty (1517-1700) and the Bourbons one; the latter since the childless death of Charles II.

During the 15th century, the dynastic link between Castile and Aragon was very strong as well as that between Castile and Portugal. The Aragonese Trastámaras all married Castilian queens, while the Castilians almost all married Portuguese queens. The result was a civil war that Isabella, daughter of Juan II of Castile, supported by Aragon, won against Juana la Beltraneja, daughter of Enrique IV, (Isabella's stepbrother), supported by Portugal.

The [Canary Islands](#) were incorporated into the Castilian-Aragonese dynastic union, through a colonising occupation. Also were incorporated the Kingdom of Granada, in what many have called “the last medieval war”, and the Kingdom of Navarra, which was occupied by a Castilian army with the support of the noble side of the *beamonteses*.

The Catholic Monarchs developed a policy of marriage agreements with Portugal, England and the House of Burgundy-Habsburg. Their goal was to encircle an old enemy, France and their dream was to complete the peninsular union, which failed due to successive deaths. The result was the enthronement of the Habsburg dynasty, whose first king was their

1137-1410	1412	1412-1516
The Berenguer Dynasty in Aragon Last king Martin I, died childless	The Compromise of Caspe Don Fernando "el de Antequera", regent of Castile, grandson of Pedro IV of Aragon and nephew of Martin I was elected king by the assembly of three commissioners per territory (Aragon, Catalonia and Valencia)	The Trastámara dynasty in Aragon Ferdinand I (1412-1416). Born in Medina del Campo. Ⓞ Eleanor, Countess of Alburquerque. Alfonso V (1416-1458). Born in Medina del Campo. Ⓞ Maria, daughter of Enrique III of Castile, appointed Lieutenant General of Aragon due to the frequent absences of the king who established a court in Naples. Juan II (1458-1479). Born in Medina del Campo. Ⓞ Juana Enriquez, daughter of the Admiral of Castile don Fadrique Enriquez, defender of Isabella against Juana la Beltraneja. Ferdinand II (1479-1516). Born in Sos. Ⓞ Isabella I, queen of Castile

grandson, Charles I of Spain (1516), who also became Holy Roman Emperor Charles V four years later.

The distribution of territories: Tordesillas and Saragossa

Columbus returned from his voyage in March 1493 and first reported on his success to Juan II of Portugal. When he arrived in Barcelona in April, where the court was at that time, an ambassador defending Portuguese rights had preceded him.

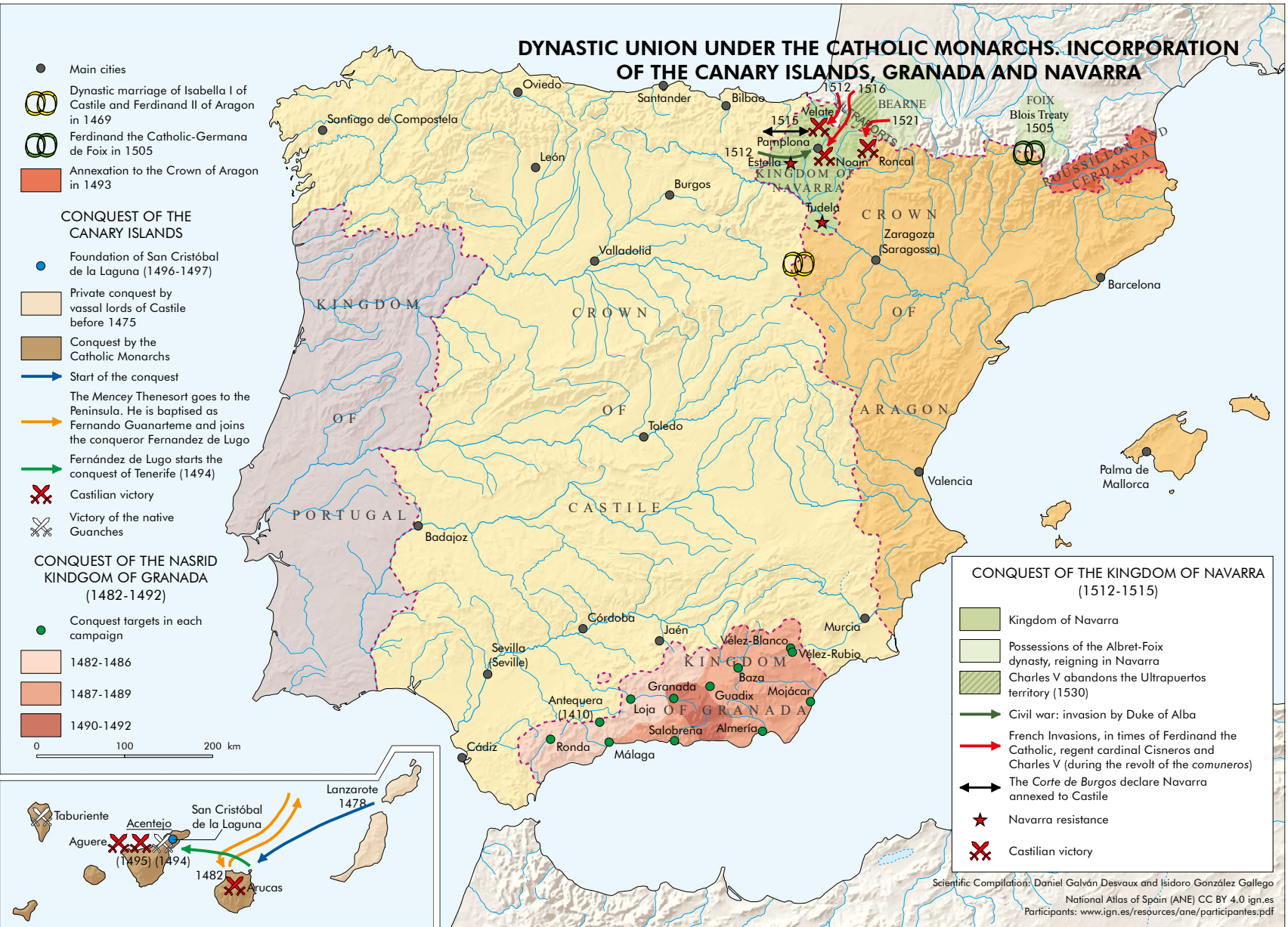
However, the Catholic Monarchs had already acted before Pope Alexander VI to obtain bulls to support them, as the Portuguese used to do regarding Africa. They had already heard about the discovery because in February Martín Alonso Pinzón wrote to them urgently from Bayona, where he had arrived before Columbus did in Lisbon (Lisboa).

The admiral proposed to draw a line in the direction of the meridian and so it was determined in the bulls, not in the *Inter Caetera* on May 3, but in the *Inter Caetera II* on May 4. Although the line, which

the Spanish aspired to draw over the Azores and Cape Verde, was moved 100 leagues to the west to facilitate the Portuguese return from the fortress of São Jorge da Mina, in Africa.

In the Treaty of Tordesillas (June 1494) the definitive layout would be 370 leagues to the west of the Barcelona proposal. The Catholic Monarchs waited impatiently until June for the geographical report entrusted to Columbus on his second voyage. Antonio Torres brought this information on a boat and delivered it at Medina del Campo in April. Thus, they learned that the city of La Isabela was 750 leagues from the Canary Islands. They then decided on the distribution of the limits of influence across the Atlantic in such a way as to satisfy Portugal (which wanted the line further to the west, 370 leagues from the Azores and Cape Verde), saving their future territory with another 380 leagues, from the line to the island of Hispaniola. Nobody had expected there was a continent that extended to the east, in Brazil.

The antemeridian would be decided after the clash between the Portuguese and the Spanish on the other side of the world. The Portuguese had built the fort



HISTORY

of Ternate (1509) and the Spanish the fort of Tidore in the Moluccas. After a meeting of cosmographers in Badajoz-Elvas (1524), an essential agreement was reached in Saragossa for the Spanish, who by then knew how to get to Asia from America through the Pacific, but not how to return. They did not discover it until 1565, when Urdaneta managed to attain his way back, sailing north towards Acapulco.

The unexpected America

The second trip to the Indies had a colonising purpose. They were up to 21 ships and 2,500 pioneers: soldiers, friars, merchants, artisans, supplies, farm animals, etc. Juan de la Cosa, Ponce de León, Father Las Casas were all travelling. Columbus was sailing on his third voyage, when the explorations of the

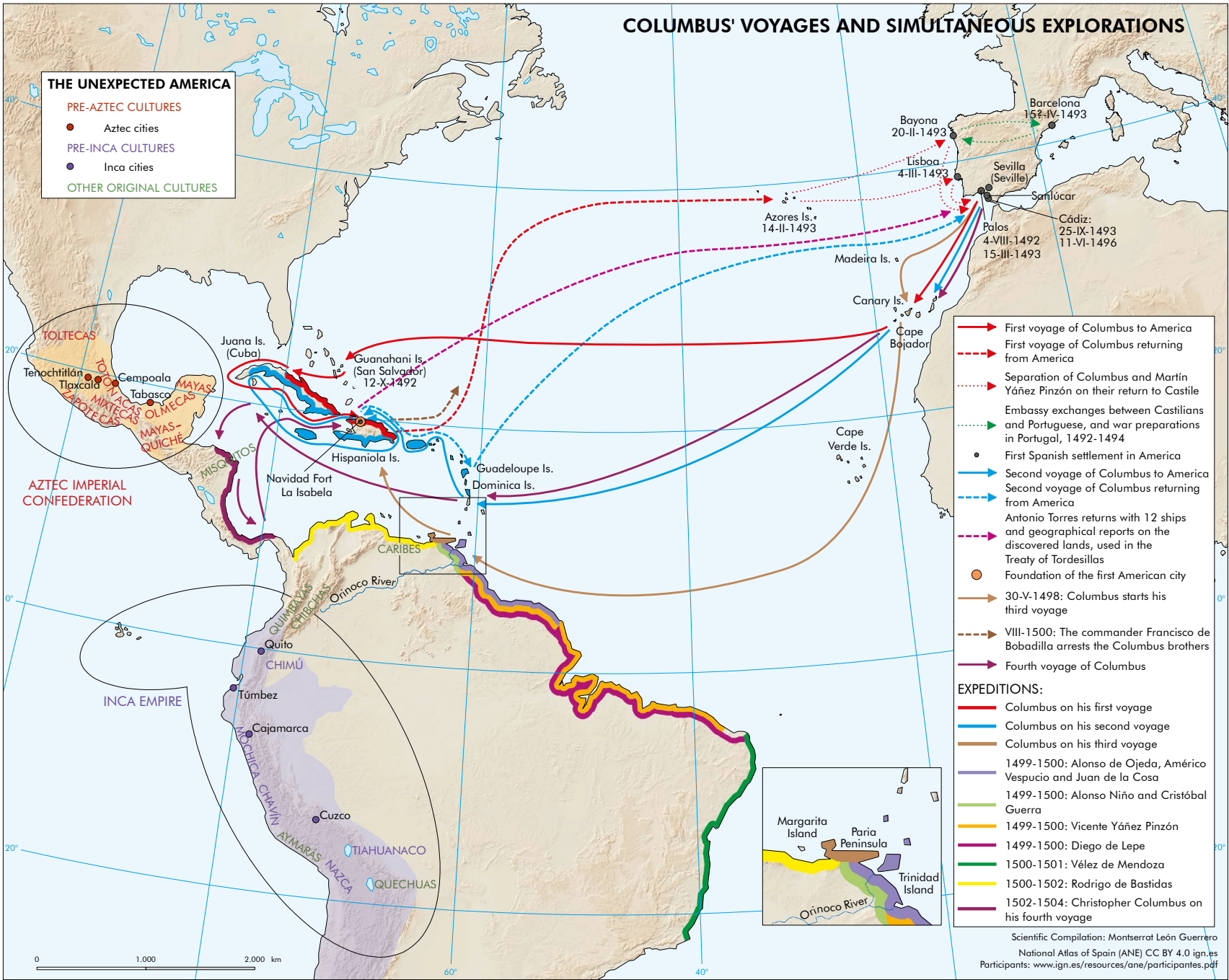
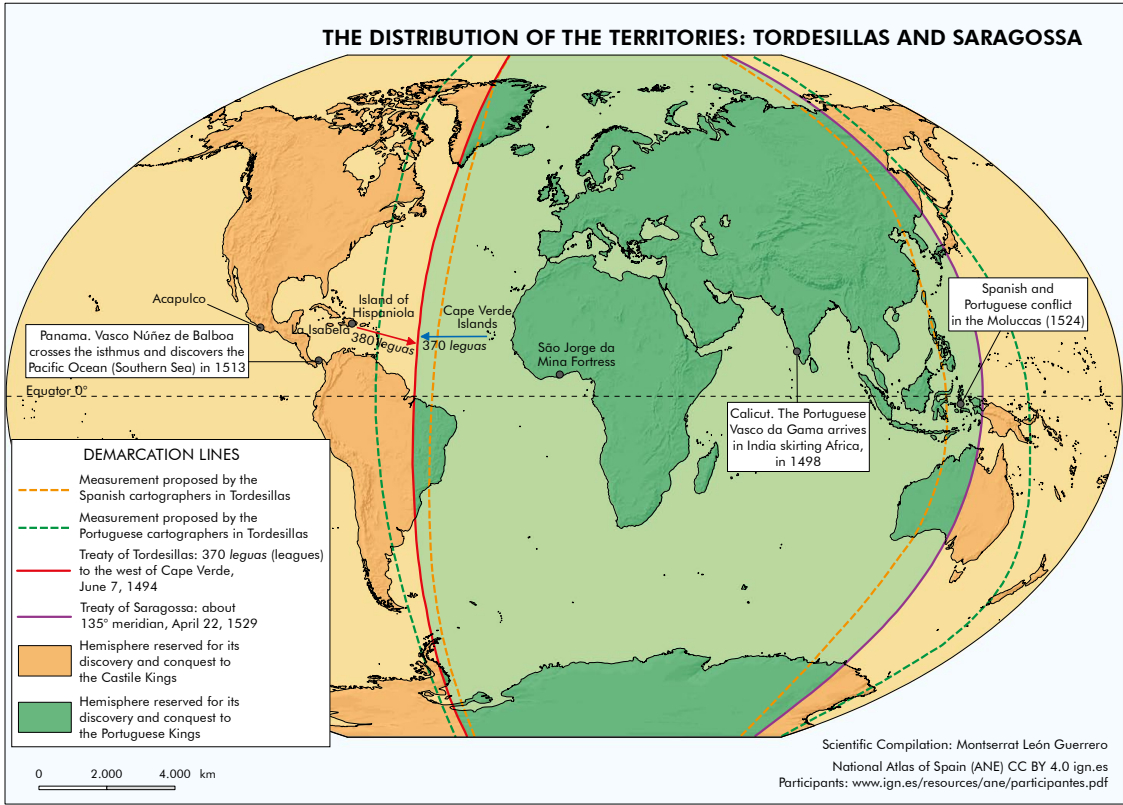
islands and the coasts were widespread. Balboa confirms that there is another ocean to the west. It is a new continent, with unknown flora and fauna, unimaginable cultures and fabulous empires, whose mythology predicted the arrival of mysterious gods from the sea.

America, once linked to Spain, becomes part of the European culture

America was the discovery of an unexpected and prodigious reality, which Spain had to tackle. The original peoples of the new continent also had to face the discovery of a “western culture” (oriental for them) in its Hispanic interpretation. For them it was, equally, an unthinkable and prodigious scenario. Both existences accepted their common challenge with the mindset and the instruments that were available at that time.

The peninsular Spaniards had a very weak demographic presence and they easily settled on the poor Caribbean islands. They found highly developed social structures on the continent where they sought to accommodate. Most of those diverse [native peoples](#) admitted the colonisers’ directions, in which they saw immediate advantages. Thus, ten years after Cortés entered Tenochtitlan, the Virgin (of Guadalupe) already appeared to the Chichimeca Indian Cuauhtlataotzin. Fifteen years later, the first printing press was created, and immediately the written grammar of the various native languages was organized.

Columbus was clearly set to take sides: in the confrontation between two *Taino* chiefs, Guacanari



and Caonabo, he took the side of the former, whose two sons embarked for Spain in 1495. Moreover, they did so on the first ship built in an American shipyard, the *Santa Cruz (la India)*. In the case of the Aztec empire, [Hernán Cortés](#) did act as a conqueror and also as a leader of the uprising peoples subjected by the imperial despotism of the Mexica. The army that conquered Tenochtitlan in 1521 was made up of some 900 Spaniards and tens of thousands of avenging warriors, particularly Tlascaltecas. The Tlascaltecas (following the model of the *señoríos vascos*) were recognised as *hidalgos* who were titled *don* before their Hispanicized names. They participated in the expansionism of Cortés and played an active role, together with Legazpi (founder of Manila in 1571) in the conquest of the Philippines. Two children of Moctezuma (Isabella and Peter) started noble dynasties on the Peninsula, which have survived to the present day. Regarding the [Inca empire](#), [Pizarro](#) and the Spaniards acted similarly: they were at the same time conquerors and supporters of the legitimate emperor, Huascar, in the civil war in which his bastard brother, Atahualpa (who ended up assassinating him), tried to snatch the throne from him. Cuzco (1533) soon became a great Hispanic capital, with the legitimist Inca nobility incorporated into the Spanish culture.

In America, a dominant class of few peninsulars and many Creoles, the children of a mighty mixture of blood, committed many abuses. Nonetheless, in Spain, intellectuals, theologians and jurists

understood America as an extension of the Peninsula; in the *Controversias de Valladolid* (1550 and 1551), it was debated whether there were fair titles for the new peoples which the different Laws of the Indies intended to legislate in their favour. The Crown, which enslaved 10,000 Muslims after the capture of Málaga (1487), rejected this practice for its subjects in America, which led to the African slave trade.

Thus, arose a formidable cultural and political space. It encompassed on the one hand, sons and grandsons of the Incas or Mexica, who became, for example, chroniclers of the Indies as well as others who reached high literary accomplishments, such as the Mexican Sor Juana Inés de la Cruz in the 17th century. There were also leaders of the great anti-Spanish rebellion (1780), such as the Hispanic-Inca hero Tupac Amaru II, José Gabriel Condorcanqui Noguera. The New Continent started developing, [magnificent constructions](#) began in 1541, with the Cathedral of Santo Domingo; in 1560, the one in Cuzco and in 1571, the Metropolitan Cathedral of Mexico; splendid palaces, great fortifications, ports and highways. Among the oldest universities in the world are several of the forty founded there (the first in 1538 in Santo Domingo), while there were only thirty on the Peninsula. Today we know that despite the large amounts of silver and gold that the Spanish extracted from America, much more was invested in over three centuries that gave rise to nineteen nations with powerful Hispanic cultural roots (1810-1824), which also proudly value their native peoples.

Spain facing Imperial Europe

Charles I of Spain, a remote foreigner who knew nothing about Spain, arrived in 1517 surrounded by Flemish lords, with whom he replaced the peninsular nobility in government. This inheritance was, for him, a simple addition to the glory of the Habsburgs. The disappointment of his subjects increased with his claim to the Imperial Crown, after the death of his grandfather Maximilian, and his demand that the cost (donations to the German prince-electors) should come from the *Cortes de Castilla* convened in 1519 while he was marching to Germany. He was crown Emperor in 1520, but caused an uprising in the cities of Castile (the *Comunidades*) and trade union revolts in Valencia and Majorca (the *Germanías*). The nobility condescended to them, until they saw their anti-lordly character (and anti-Moorish in Valencia). The *comuneros* Padilla, Bravo and Maldonado were executed in [Villalar](#) (1521) and the *Germanías* (Llorens in Valencia) suffocated in 1522. From then on, the aristocracy and the people of the Spanish kingdoms became hopelessly enthusiastic about the labyrinth of European imperial politics.

In Spain, the elitist movement critical of clerical corruption could have given rise to Protestantism, inspired in the ideas of Erasmus of Rotterdam. However, the Emperor, who soon learned Spanish and ended his life in retirement at the Monastery of San Jerónimo de Yuste, considered himself an

From the route of the Moluccas to the circumnavigation of the globe

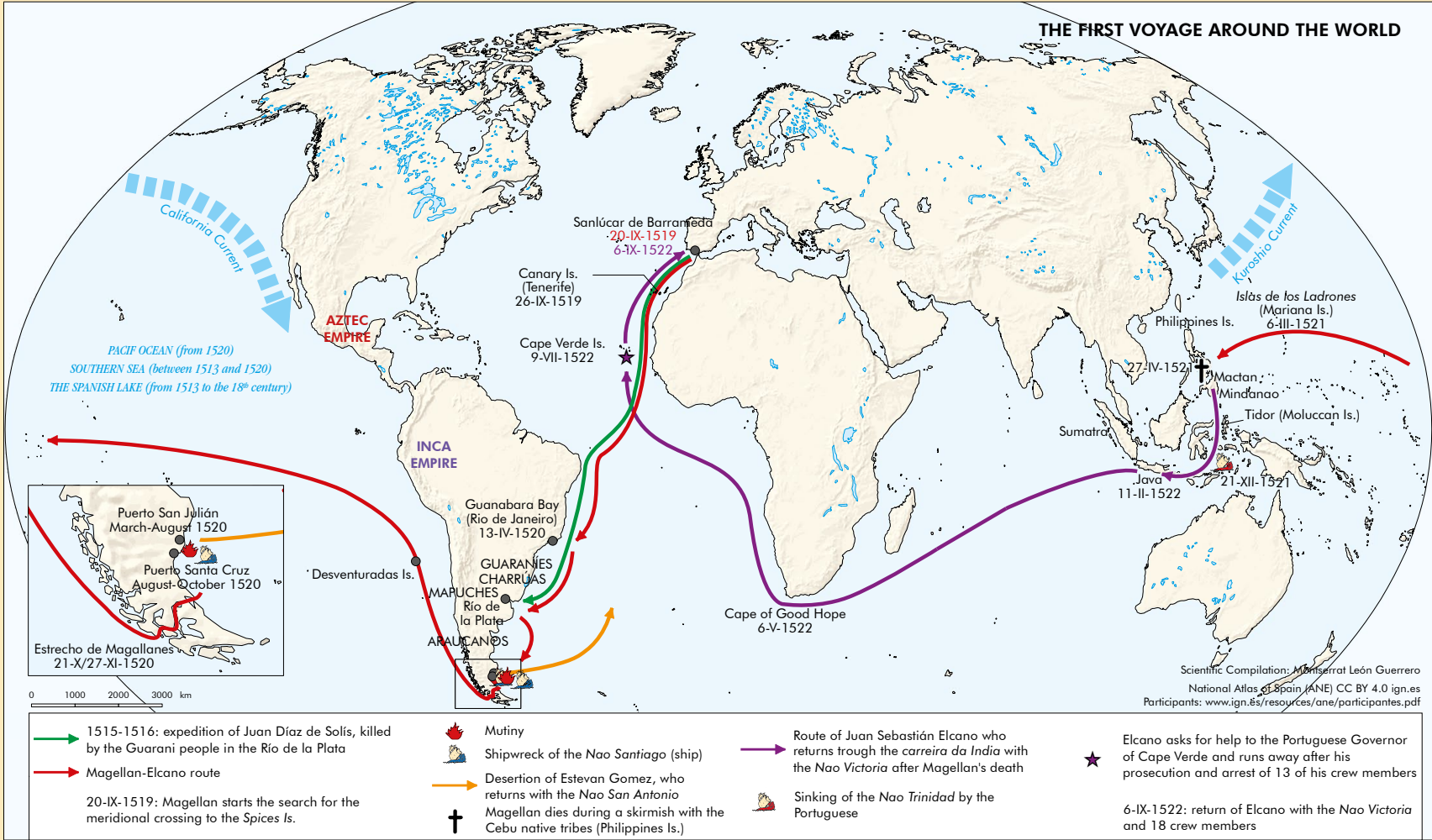
Ferdinand Magellan, a Portuguese explorer familiar with Southeast Asia, who fell into disgrace (1514) at the Lisbon court, went to Seville and proposed to an assenting Charles I, to start a spice route to the west, in the opposite direction to the *carreira da India* of the Portuguese, through Africa and the Indian Ocean. He undertook to find the passage to the *Southern Sea* of Balboa, reach the Moluccas and return the same way, always within the Spanish hemisphere of the Treaty of Tordesillas. In 1519, he set sail with 5 ships and 239 crew members, including Juan Sebastián Elcano and the Italian chronicler Antonio Pigafetta, author of the *Diary* that chronicled the expedition.

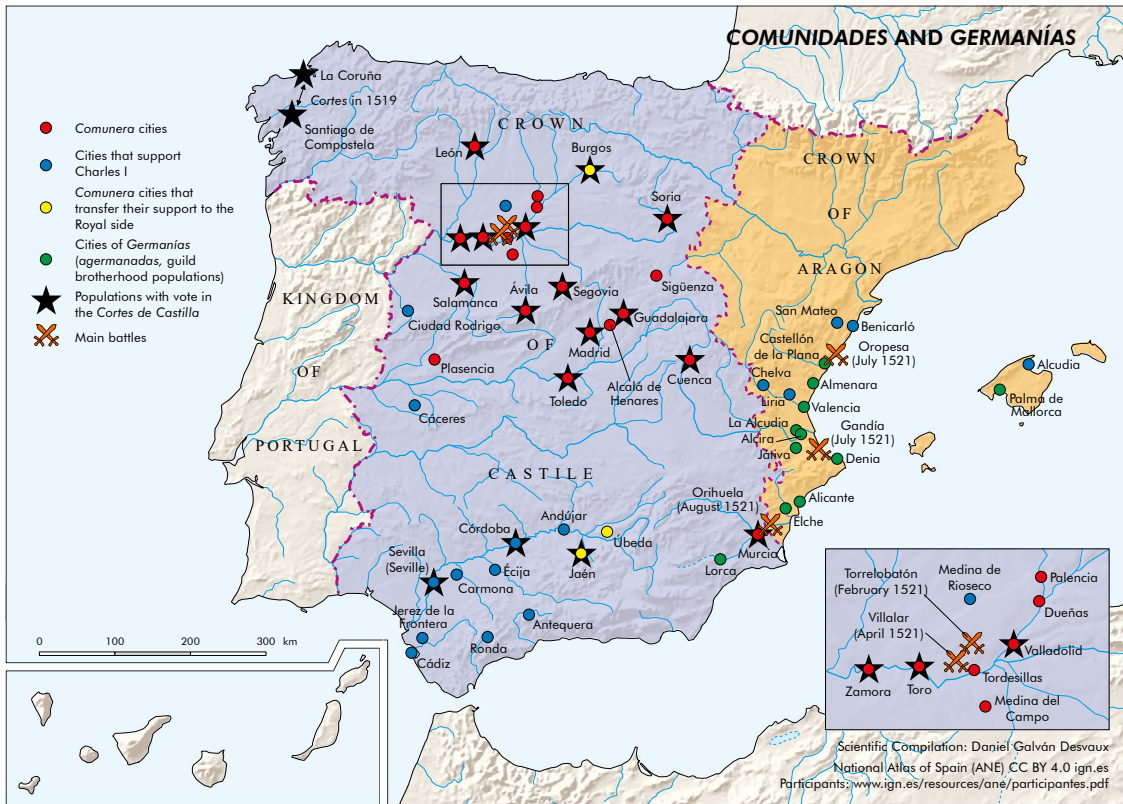
Magellan discovered the strait that bears his name, crossed the ocean, to which he gave a new name, and arrived as far north as Cebu, where he died in a skirmish with the natives.

Elcano then took command, went down to the Moluccas and filled the *Victoria*, the only ship available at the time, with rich spices. He had the brilliant intuition of not going back by the same route (the currents capsized all the ships sailing to the east) and risking going back through the Indian Ocean and Africa, facing up to the Portuguese attacks, as indeed happened. In 1522, three years later, he arrived

in Seville. With him were only 18 ragged and sick but immensely rich men, who had made the first circumnavigation of the world.

It was not until 1565 (Urdaneta's return) that the *Kuroshio Current* was found, a return route, far to the north up to Acapulco. During the 16th and 17th centuries, the Spanish travelled along the coast from Patagonia to Alaska, discovered the lands of the Pacific (Juan Fernández, Rapa Nui, Marianas, Caroline islands, Torres Strait), traded with China and Japan, occupied the Philippines and earned for the Pacific the name of the "Spanish lake".





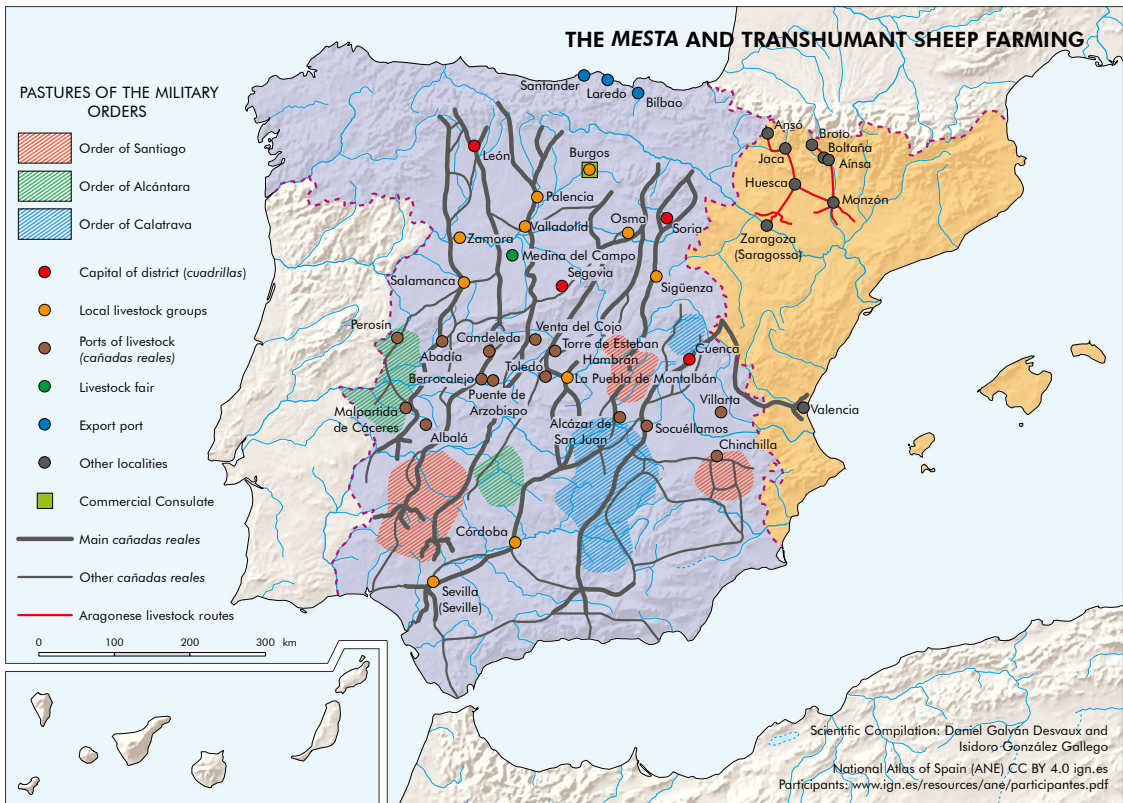
The Habsburgs

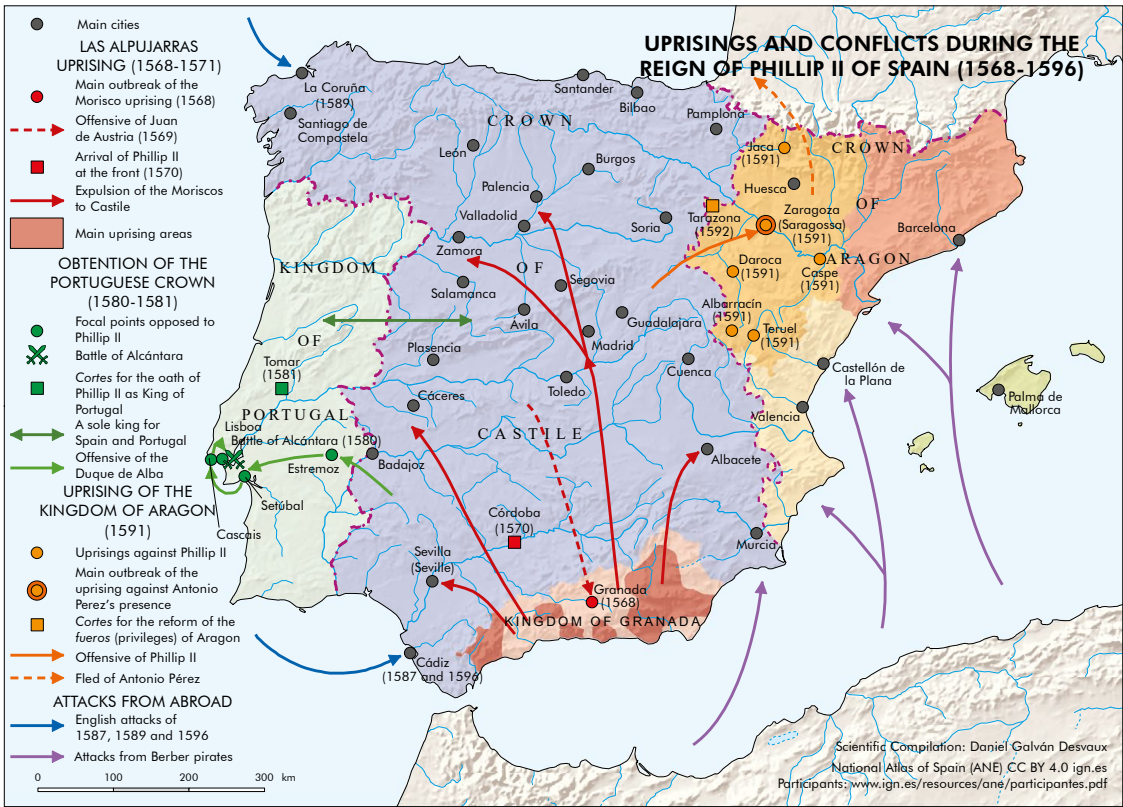
Charles of Habsburg (1516-1556), son of Juana I of Castile and Philip the Handsome, incorporated the peninsular kingdoms and their possessions into his dynasty. He replaces the traditional political line of the Trastámara (Peninsular union and defence of the common interests) by a decisive link with the family interests of the Habsburgs, in their heterogeneous and conflictive Central European domains. In this enterprise were wasted the enormous resources of the Spanish Crown which during the 16th century and much of the 17th, was the first territorial and economic power in the world. The Habsburgs of the 16th century were Charles I and Philip II (1556-1598), who in 1580 joined his Crown to Portugal; and those of the 17th were Philip III (1598-1621), Philip IV (1621-1665) and Charles II (1665-1700) who in full imperial decline and having died childless, left the crown to the French Bourbons.

advocate of the ideal of *Universitas Christiana*, supported by his peninsular kingdoms, which provided so much economic return from America. Thus, he confronted the reformism of Luther and the German princes who defended him, promoted the Council of Trent with a large presence of Hispanic theologians, and supported the Society of Jesus in the Counter-Reformation. He forbade studying at foreign universities (except for Bologna), Erasmism was isolated, Protestantism was persecuted. The Spanish version of the feeling of direct union with God –mysticism– was always frowned upon by the Inquisition. Along with that came movements of an exaggerated spiritualism, such as that of the *recogidos* and of the *iluminados*.

In order to isolate France, the Catholic Monarchs arranged the marriage of their children, Juan and Juana, with two Habsburgs. Although there was an economic interest as well. Spanish merino wool, the main raw material for export had competed advantageously with English wool since the 14th century with which it disputed the markets of Flanders and the Netherlands, a flourishing domain of the Habsburgs, inherited from the House of Burgundy. The great European textile centres were there: cloths, lace, tapestries, rugs and bedspreads. The fine linens were known throughout Europe as “cloth from Holland”. Nevertheless, while Flanders, in the south of the Netherlands, remained faithful to Spanish wool, the Dutch soon preferred English wool and linen or cotton, imported from overseas.

The herds were owned by the nobility, powerfully organised in the association called the *Mesta* (1273-1836). The cattle migrated in winter, grazed on rented meadows in La Mancha and Extremadura, and returned in spring. They moved along their own paths, protected by cane (*cañas*) fences, or by ropes (*cuerdas*) between stakes, named *cañadas* (75 m wide), *cordeles* (38 m) and *veredas* (21 m), with periodic resting places (*descansaderos*). The ranchers paid the *servicio y montazgo* as they passed through the “royal ports” that marked the entire Sistema Central: a great fiscal source for the Crown. The fair of Medina del Campo was the financial centre, and export was organised from the Consulate of Burgos. The *Mesta*, distributed territorially in four districts (*cuadrillas*), was grouped





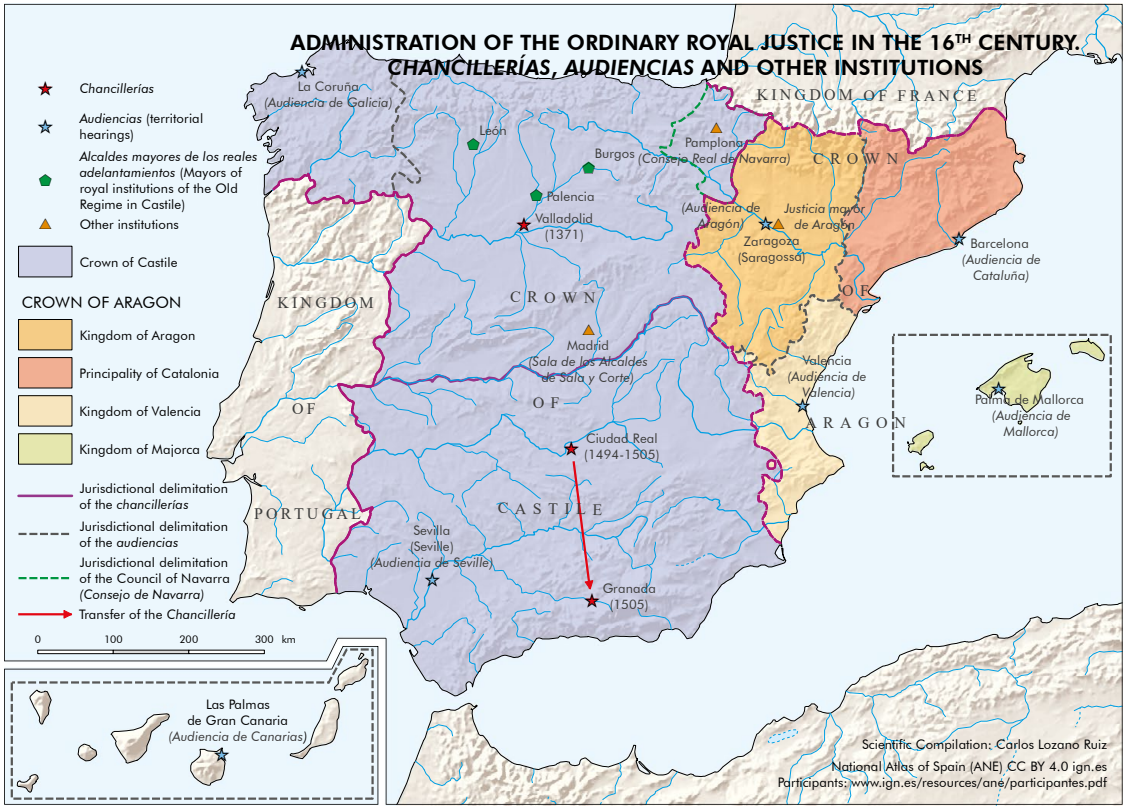
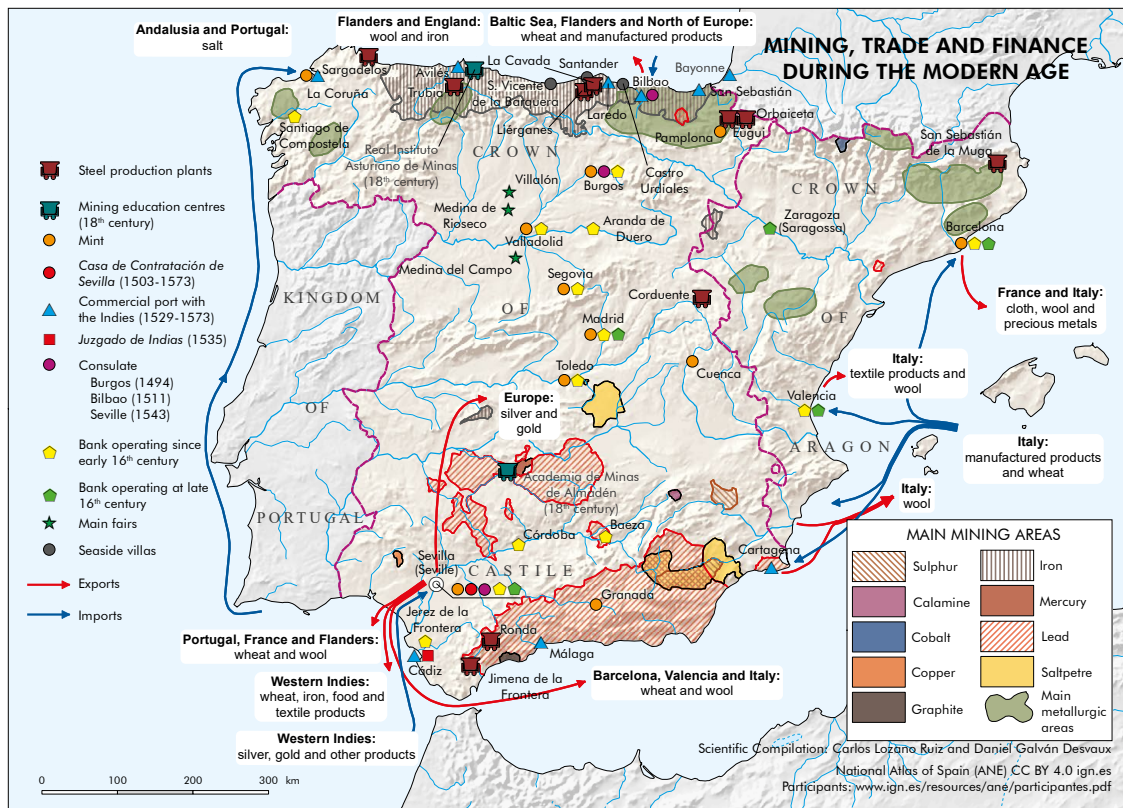
into route networks: Leonese, Segovian, Sorian and from Cuenca, with a meticulous judicial and economic regulation that still keeps a strong presence today.

The huge heritage of Philip II

With Philip II, Spanish hegemony oscillated between war successes –San Quintín (1557) or [Lepanto](#) battles (1571)– and failures, such as that of the Spanish Armada (*Armada Invencible*, 1588), or the resistance to accept his rule in the Netherlands (the “United Provinces” of the north). On the Peninsula, his unitary political conception pushed him to dictate intergrative provisions in clothing, customs and religion for the Moriscos (many lived in Granada and even in Aragon and Valencia). This caused a great uprising, the rebellion of the Alpujarras that, once defeated, led to the dispersion of the Moriscos of Granada. Ten years later, the mythical King Sebastian of Portugal died childless in the battle of Alcazarquivir. Philip II, supported by powerful Lusitanian nobles, was recognised King of Portugal as Philip I. He lived in Lisbon for two years, where he organised a court and planned to make the River Tagus navigable to Toledo. After another ten years (in a secret episode of betrayal, envy and love, with the involvement of the [princess of Éboli](#) and the king himself), Antonio Pérez, the royal secretary, orders the assassination of Juan de Escobedo, secretary of Don Juan de Austria. Antonio Pérez fled and took refuge under the protection of a *foral* institution: the *Justicia Mayor de Aragón*. It was in 1591, when [Don Pedro Lanuza](#), supported by the people of Saragossa, refused to hand him over to the King's Justice. However, a royal army took Saragossa, Don Pedro was executed and strong cuts of the Aragonese *fueros* (privileges) were dictated, which increased the unitary policy.

The brilliant Spanish hegemony was kept on credit. Philip II had to declare bankruptcy three times, despite the high tax pressure in Castile and the constant incomes of precious metals from America and from Spain itself, because the middle years of the 16th century are known as *the prodigious decade of Spanish mining*. The Crown owned all of the mines, and between 1550 and 1570, the silver production of the Guadalcanal mine (Seville) surpassed the one of Potosí. There was a formidable development of mining engineering, administration and techniques in Spain and America, and in 1624, the Board of Mines (*Junta de minas*) was created. No amount seemed to suffice; the Genoese (Centurione or Spínola) and German (Fugger or Welser) banks lent money guaranteed by the mines, then by the taxes on wool and, always, by the [gold](#) and silver of America. Their agents were controlling income in Seville and Cádiz (trade with America), at the Medina fairs (wool trade), in the Cantabrian export ports and at the consulates of Seville and Bilbao. They were contracted on behalf of the Spanish and were also in charge of the thousands of payments (soldiers, imports, maintenance of the [Spanish road](#) from Milan to Flanders, etc.). The very high imports always kept a deficit balance of trade, but there were many Spanish industries as well, such as the cloth one in Segovia, the Basque ironworks, cutlery in Albacete, and the Toledo swords. Mining declined in the 17th century, although in the 18th century there was an evident recovery, due to copper from Riotinto and mercury from Almadén.

During the 16th and 17th centuries, the Spanish Administration was of utmost efficiency, accounting



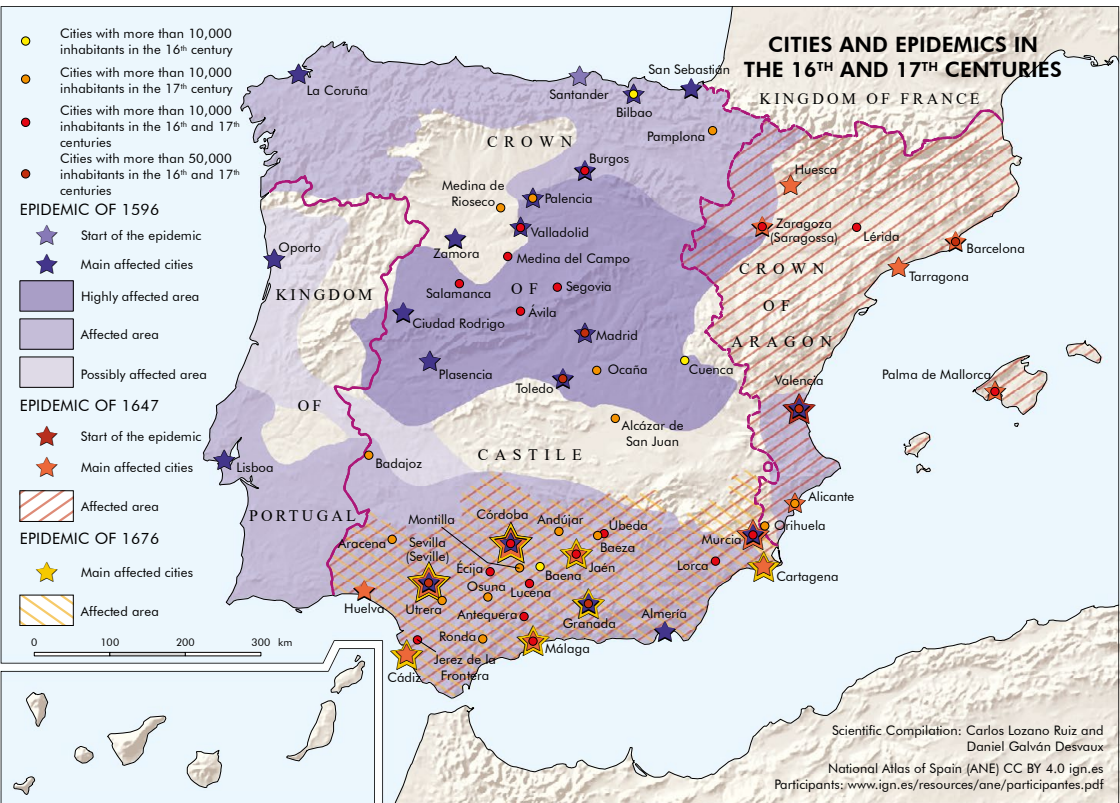
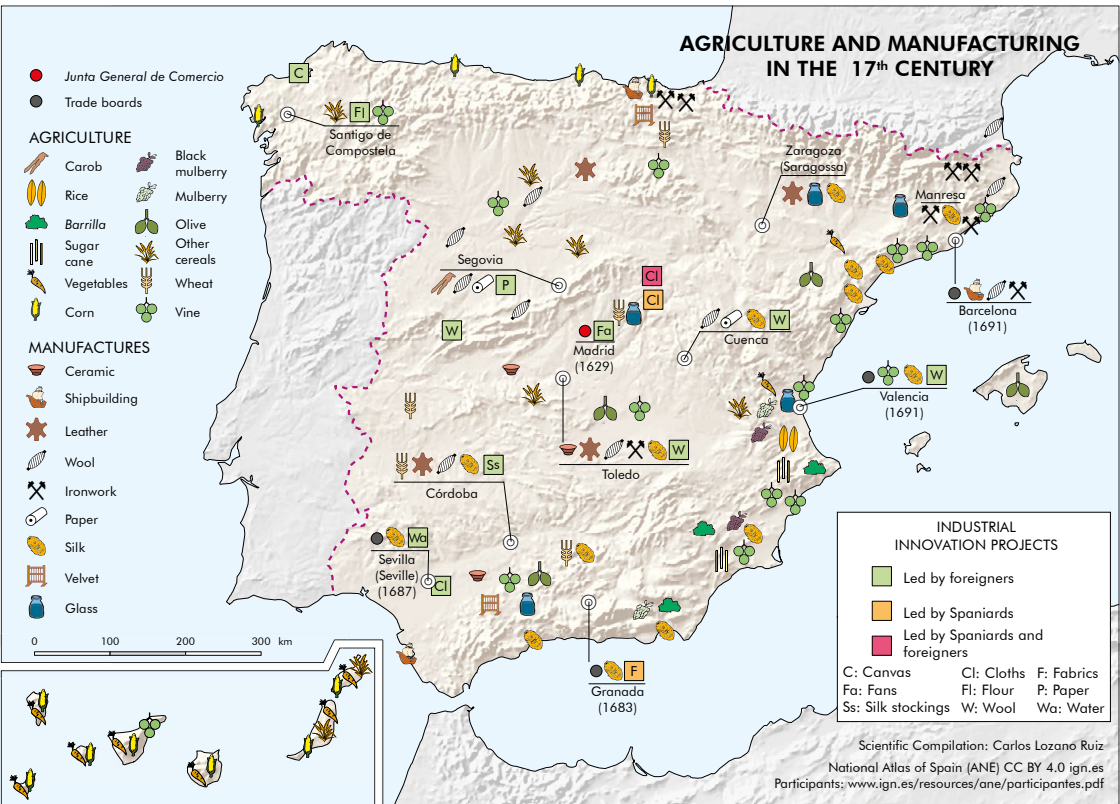
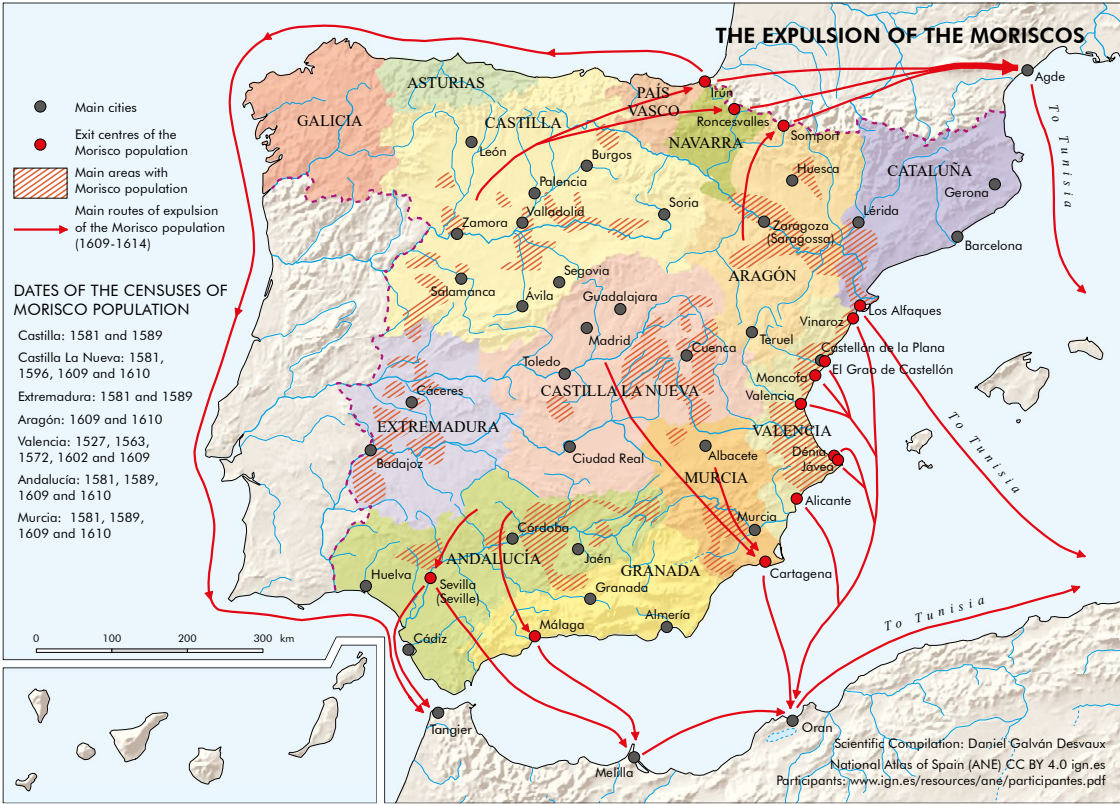
precision, information speed, and support for specifically Spanish sciences, such as the nautical or botanical sciences. Justice had two supreme courts (the *chancillerías*), royal territorial audiences, and *corregimientos* in each city (the *corregidor* was the highest municipal and judicial authority) with very important institutions such as the *veedores* (overseers for inspection visits) and the *juicios de residencia* (very important in the Indies), to which all authorities, including viceroys, had to submit after leaving office. However, some ancient figures survived, such as the *adelantamientos* (a military title for “a forward man”), used for a long time in the Indies, not to mention that various sectors had their own jurisdictions (universities, army, professional associations, etc.).

The Pax Hispanica

Philip III, a lover of art, literature and, particularly, hunting left the government in the hands of Royal favourites (*validos*): the Duque de Lerma and then his son, the Duque de Uceda, as Louis XIII would do in France with Cardinal Richelieu. Shortly before his death, his father, Philip II, had sealed the peace of Vervins with France, which he would consolidate by marrying his daughter Anne of Austria to the French king. He signed the peace with England in 1604 and suspended the war in the Netherlands (Twelve Years’ Truce) in 1609. Thus, the *Pax Hispanica* reigned throughout Europe. The fight only continued against the Turks, who harassed the Habsburg territories on the Danube and the Spanish coasts through the North African pirates. This was the excuse for the expulsion of the Moriscos in 1609. About three hundred thousand would leave, especially from the ancient kingdoms of Murcia and Valencia, with great damage to the production of orchards and rice fields, which would not be overcome even with the introduction of new crops.

A subsistence agriculture employed more than 90% of the population, with the three traditional crops for the winery, the oil mill and the mill, that is, wine, oil and wheat. However, there were still innovations, such as the substitution of oxen for mules, corn brought from America or industrial crops: esparto grass and hemp (sails and ropes), linen and mulberry (textiles); for dyes, indigo and madder (red dyes and pharmacy) as well as the *barrilla* for glass, soaps and pharmacy. Nonetheless, everything was declining due to the dreadful tax pressure on industrial production, which prevented profits and technical innovation. In 1679, with Colbert-like criteria for state intervention, the General Board of Commerce (*Junta General de Comercio*) was created, which attracted some foreign capital for the manufacture of glass, ceramics, soap and, above all, paper, which the expansive administration consumed without limit. Shipyards were promoted in America, such as the one in Havana, where the largest ship in the world, the *Trinidad*, was built in the 18th century with four decks, 140 cannons and a capacity for 1,140 sailors. Notwithstanding, the exhausted Spain demanded much more: economic weakness, wars, emigration to America (600,000 people?) and three appalling epidemics led to a decrease in the population, especially in the centre of the Peninsula.

It is true that, in the 18th century, the Bourbons managed to maintain the façade of the Spanish political edifice. Albeit, as a significant symbol, the *Trinidad* was sunk by the English in the Trafalgar battle at the beginning of the 19th century (1805).

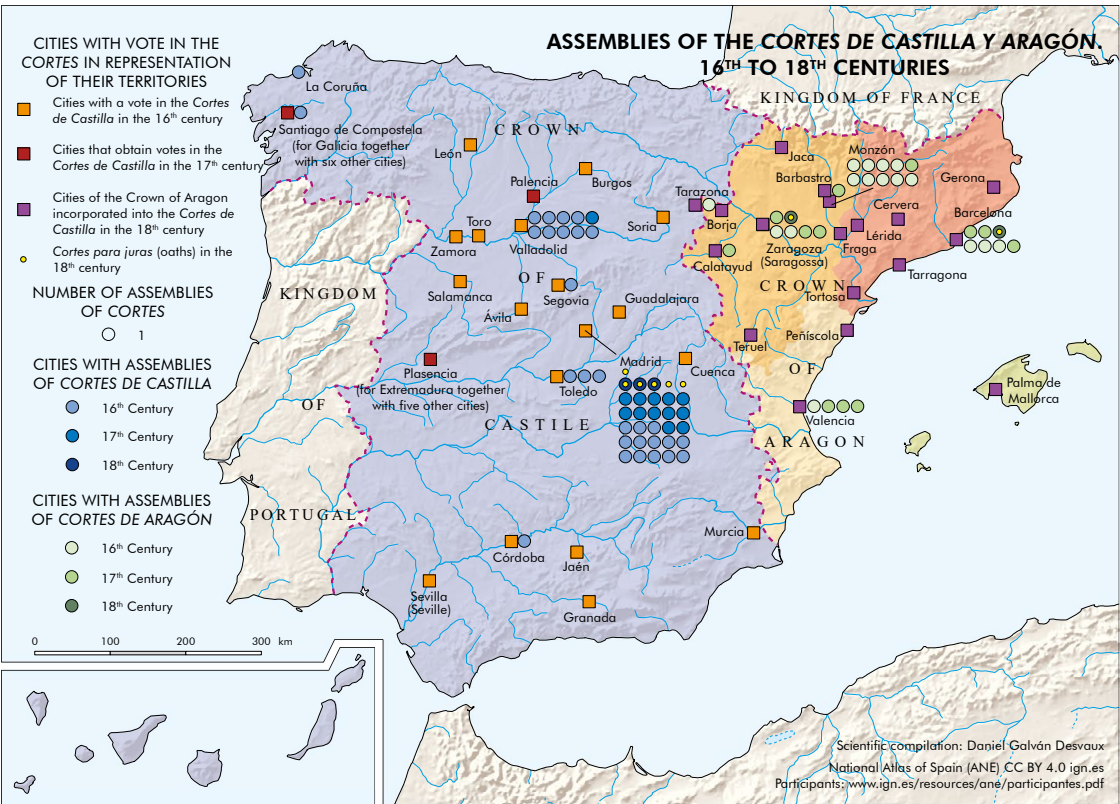
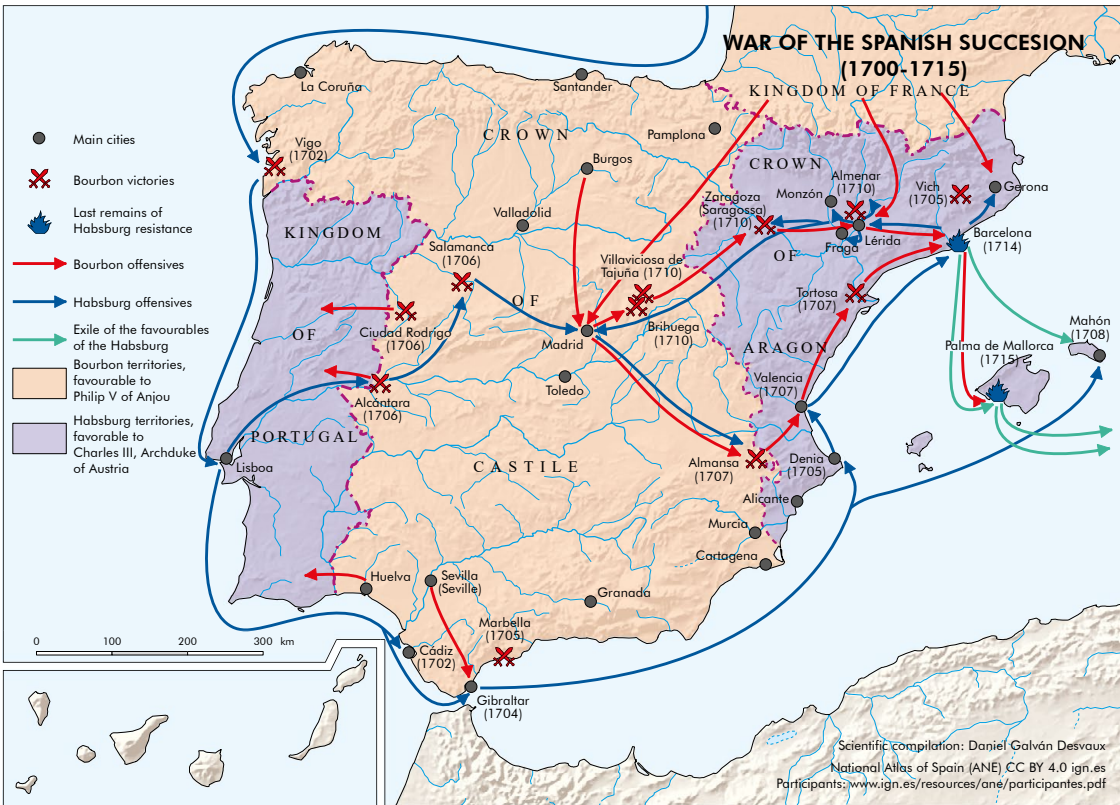
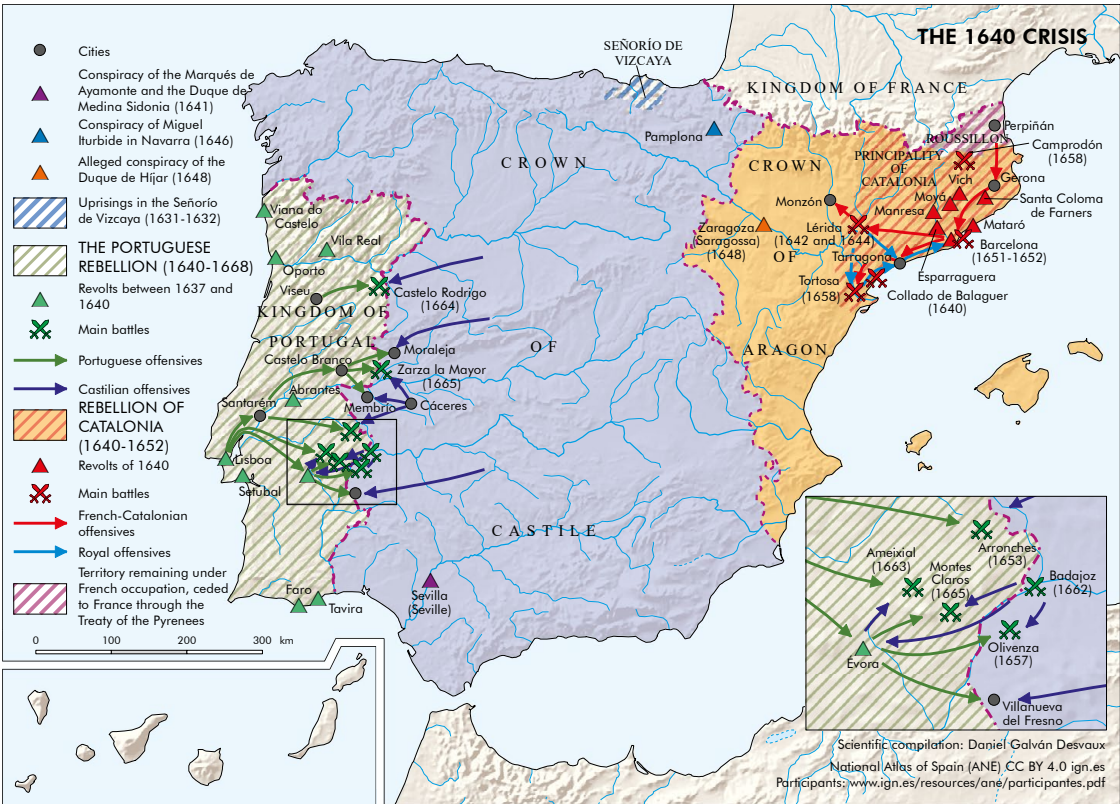


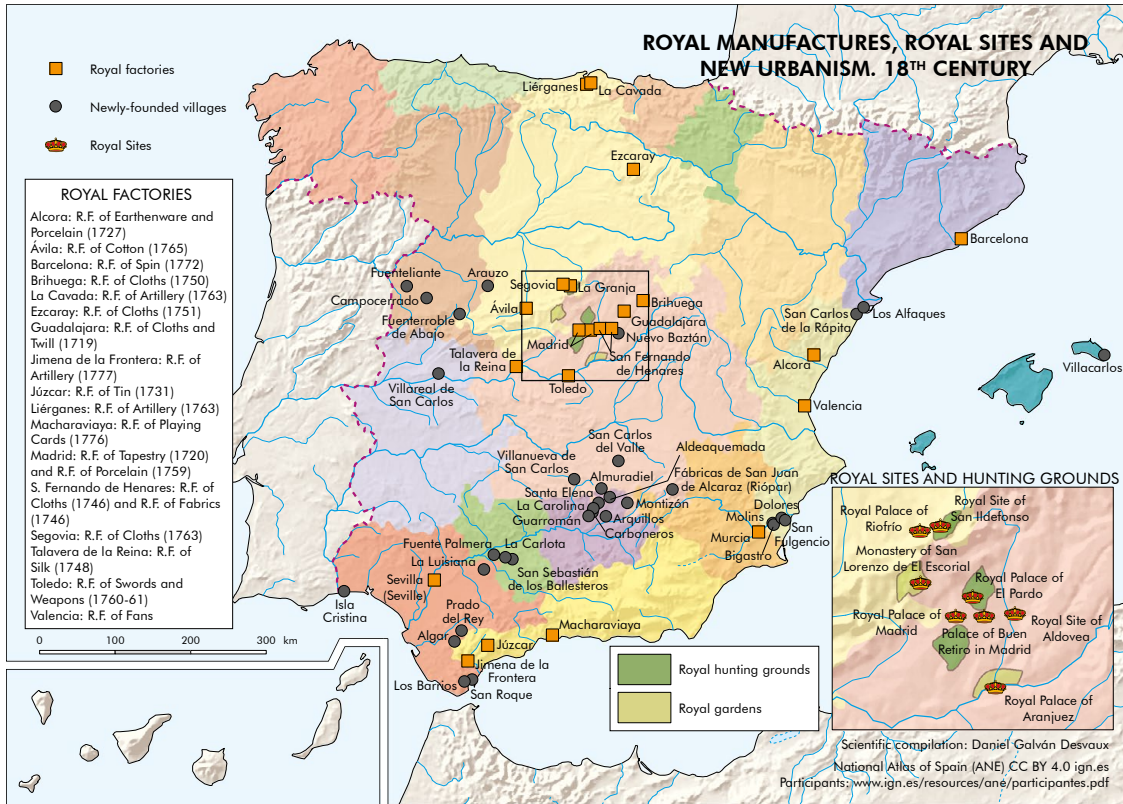
The failure of the Habsburg project

With Philip IV, also known as Rey Sol, Spanish power was expected to increase. In the Thirty Years' War, which began in Germany (1618) between Catholic and Protestant princes, Spanish-Austrian victories followed one another. Denmark, Norway and Sweden were unable to offset the balance until, in 1635, faced with the enormous power of the Habsburgs, France entered the war, supported by the United Provinces (Holland), England and Scotland. The triumphs gave way to defeats (the resounding disaster at [Rocroi](#) in 1643 was one of them). Spain is forced to sign the Peace of Westphalia (1648) and the Peace of the Pyrenees (1659) which meant its loss of territories, the recognition of the independence of Holland and the replacement of Spain in the European hegemony by a new great power: France.

From 1621, the Conde-Duque de Olivares was the Royal favourite, who failed in his attempt to involve all the kingdoms of the Crown in fiscal and military policies (*Unión de Armas*, a military and administrative unification project), because the public finances of the kingdom of Castile had more expenses than incomes and it was impossible to obtain more money from it. American mines were exhausted. Military defeats were profuse. Portugal saw its possessions attacked because of the Spanish wars. Moreover, international credit was fleeing, as Spain could not repay the loans. This terrible situation gave rise to *The 1640 Crisis*, with plots and rebellions in most of the kingdoms. In Catalonia, the abuses of the quartered troops was the excuse for some reapers (*segadors*), in the *Corpus* procession (*the Corpus of Blood*) to assassinate the viceroy. The Canon Pau Claris proclaimed the Catalan republic and offered the throne to Louis XIII, whose troops occupied Catalonia committing even more excesses. Barcelona was conquered by the king in 1652 but France stayed in the Catalan north Pyrenees. In Portugal, on December 1 (still a national holiday), the Duque de Bragança João IV, was proclaimed king after assassinating the Secretary of State Vasconcelos and arresting the vicereine. Portugal won resounding victories against all the Spanish armies and finally saw its independence recognised in 1668.

In 1700, Charles II died, a physically and mentally handicapped king who had bequeathed the Crown to a grandson of Louis XIV of France. All of Europe rises up against a hegemony, this time of the Bourbons, who would reign in France and Spain. Once again, *foralistas* and autonomist criteria were confronted, defended by Charles of Austria, pretender to the throne, against the centralists of the *enlightened despotism*, typical of the Bourbons. Most of the Crown of Aragon was in favour of the Habsburgs in a European Succession War that ended when Don Carlos inherited the imperial crown following the treaties of Utrecht and Rastatt (1713-1715), rigged by Louis XIV without consulting the Spaniards. Europe accepted the Bourbons in Spain in exchange for cutting down the Spanish European power, which resulted in the loss of Flanders, Luxembourg, Milan, Naples, Sardinia, Sicily, Gibraltar and Minorca, and in the commercial concessions to Great Britain in America. The new king, Philip V, issued the unifying *Decretos de Nueva Planta* (new administrative and tax organization). Among other provisions, the *Cortes de Castilla* incorporated cities from the *Cortes de Aragón*.





The Bourbon monarchy

In 1700, it seemed that the imposing power of the Habsburgs would be replaced by the Bourbons. That is why the War of Spanish Succession broke out throughout Europe. In 1714, with the Treaty of Utrecht, Europe ended up accepting the French King, but Spain lost all its territories on the continent as well as Minorca and Gibraltar. Thus, Spain had to give up the monopoly of its trade with America, a secular ambition of Great Britain.

The Bourbons of the 18th century were Philip V (1700-1724, by abdication), Louis I (January-August 1724, death), Philip V (takes back the throne, 1724-1746), Ferdinand VI (1746-1759), Charles III (1759-1788, brother of Ferdinand; king of Naples, which he left in 1734) and Charles IV (1788-1808).

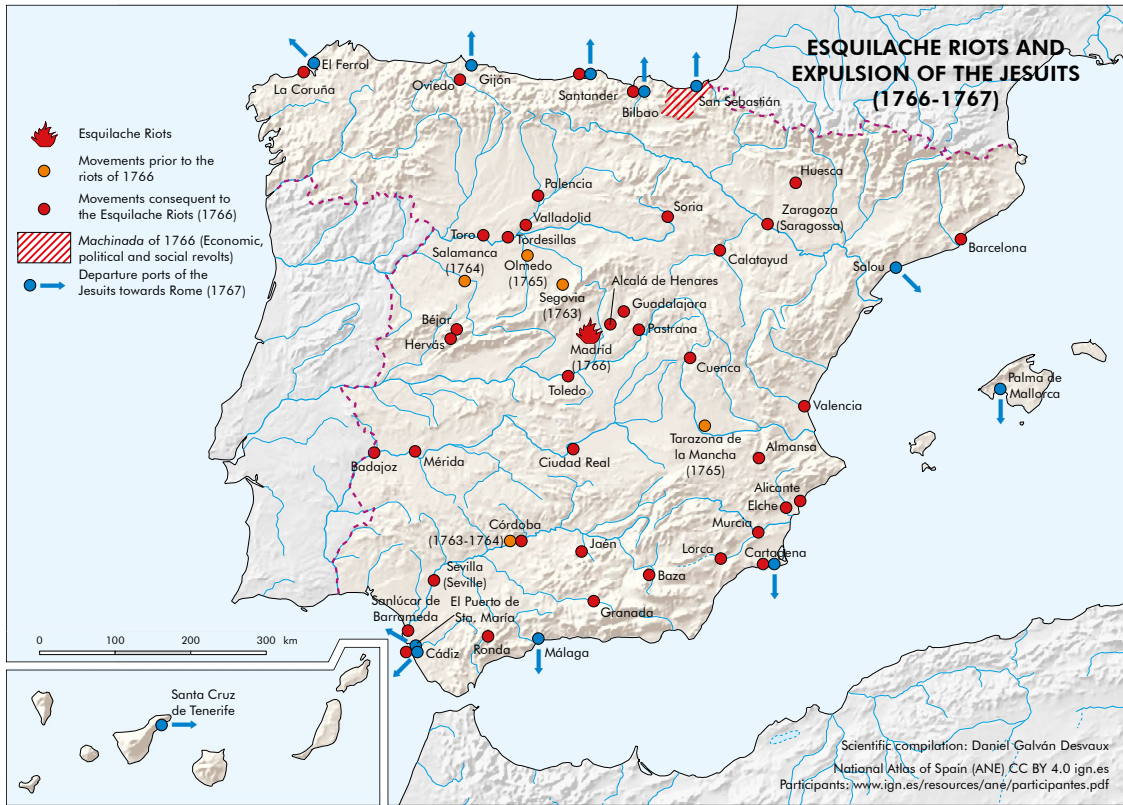
Bourbon reformism

The [European reformist spirit](#) of the 18th century arrived with Philip V. As a result, for example, the Habsburgs' hunting palaces were converted into Royal Sites and beautiful Versailles-like palaces with attractive gardens and fountains, were periodically visited by the court with all their paraphernalia.

Many royal factories opened and technical advances were fostered following the model of Colbert, the minister of Louis XIV. They catered to strategic productions (weapons' factories), luxury creations for the court in the Royal Sites (porcelain, tapestries, crystals...), consumer goods (table linens, cloths...) and even leisure (playing cards). The Colbertist leadership led to the establishment of the so-called "*estanco*" products, which were sold by concession of the State: tobacco, stamps, stamped paper. Peasants and artisans [repopulated barren lands](#), occupying new areas as an "enlightened urbanism". Minister Pablo de Olavide stood out, repopulating areas of Andalusia and Sierra Morena during the reign of Charles III (1767).

The stability of the first years of Charles III was interrupted as from 1763-1765. One of the endemic cereal crises produced a shortage of bread. There were riots, and a public security order on the use of wide-brimmed hats and long capes, which unleashed the anger of the people of Madrid against the Minister Marqués de Esquilache, who Charles III had brought from Naples. Esquilache was banished and the king was forced to decree a price reduction. The Society of Jesus was blamed for these and other riots, and was expelled from Spain in 1767, as had previously happened in France and Portugal. The Jesuits were persecuted for their opposition to statist [regalismo](#) (policy developed during the Enlightenment, consisting of reclaiming faculties, powers, or prerogatives for the monarch, recognized by the nobility and the clergy).

In 1761, the Road Instruction was published to connect the court with the outskirts. The General Superintendence of Roads was created and in 1802 was founded the School of Civil Engineers. The road network had about 25,000 km, which crossed [rivers](#), [mountains](#) and the fierce opposition of the *Mesta* in defence of its livestock transhumance paths' network (*red cabañera*). The dirt roads were just wide enough for two horses while the paved ones allowed for the passage of two carts at a time. Works on navigable canals began, some unfinished, such as the [Canal de Castilla](#) or the *Canal Imperial de Aragón* (1776-1784). The maritime ports were promoted with their work boards. A decisive step was the free trade decrees of 1765 and 1778, which opened the connection of 15 Spanish and 24 American ports.



The administration of the territory in Spain and America

The Bourbons introduced a unitary and centralist State, which sought efficiency against the administrative dispersion of the Habsburgs. The Peninsula was divided into 32 provinces, following the French influence, especially in Castile (24 provinces); those of the crown of Aragon, Navarra and the Basque territories were kept as single provinces. In the Central Administration, they took the model of ministries, which they called *secretarías de despacho*. The *Decretos de Nueva Planta* eliminated the regional privileged status (*foralidad*) in the crown of Aragon, although not in Navarra or the Basque provinces, nor for the feudal rights of the bishop of Urgel over Andorra.

In the Territorial Administration, they created the disputed figure of the *intendentes*, similar as provincial governors, with control functions of supplies and fiscal intervention. They were suppressed in 1724, and restored by the Marqués de la Ensenada in 1749. Nonetheless, the *chancillerías* and *audiencias*, reflected on the map *Administration of Ordinary Royal Justice in the 16th Century*, were maintained.

The peninsular viceroys were replaced by captain generals, which was a more managerial than courtly position. From 1716, the captain general also acted as president of the audience for administrative and governmental matters; and the maritime departments reinforced the defensive system.

Following this model, in America the four great viceroyalties and a General Captainty were maintained; the one of Chile was once called a kingdom. The Bío Bío River was agreed upon with the Mapuche population as a natural border. The mighty Viceroyalty of New



Spain included New California, New Mexico, Texas, Florida, and all of the Caribbean.

The Enlightenment culture

The economic societies of friends of the country were very particular institutions. In 1765, the Real Sociedad Bascongada was the first to obtain royal approval. Then further development of these institutions continued, especially with Charles III. Campomanes encouraged their expansion in his *Speech on the Promotion of Popular Industry* (1774) and by the distribution of promotional circulars throughout Spain. A year later, in 1775, the Real Sociedad Económica Matritense was approved.

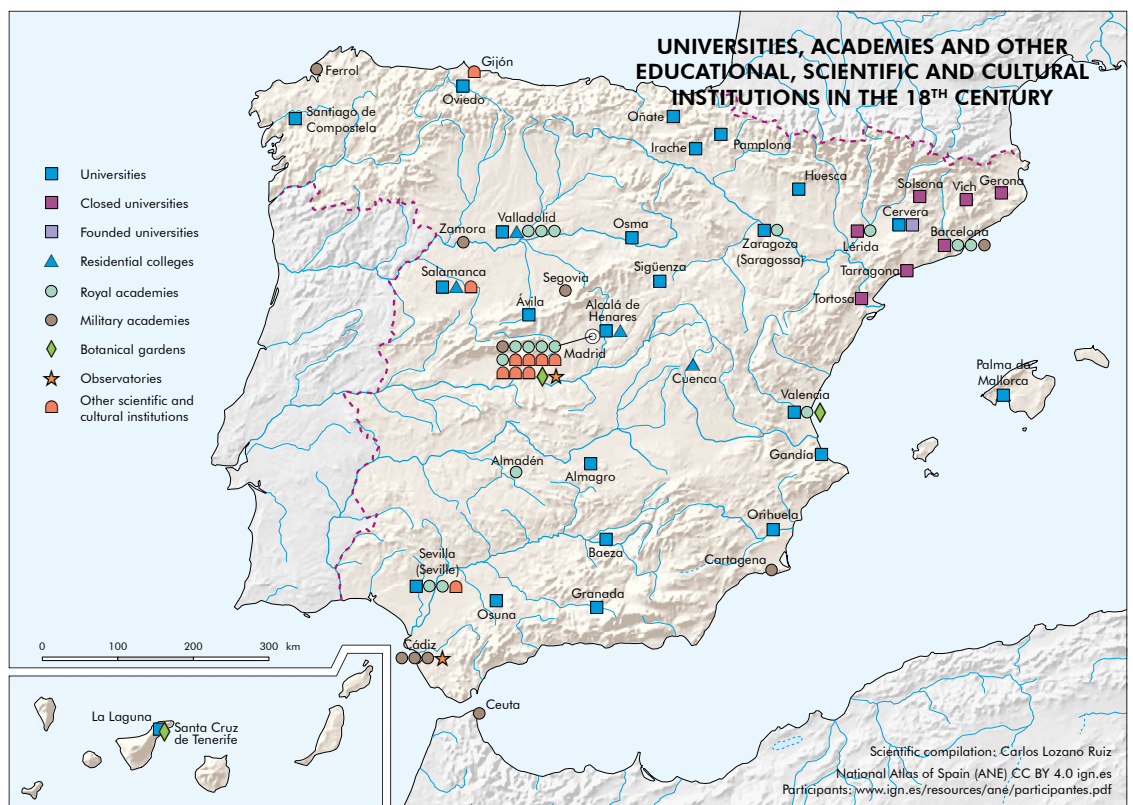
Each one presented its own profile but in all of them, there were noblemen, ecclesiastics, civil servants, soldiers, landowners, intellectuals, liberal professionals such as doctors and journalists, as well as some merchants and artisans. In any case, people with reformist tendencies. The main interest of the societies were education, the economy, charitable work (*montes de piedad*) and the teaching of trades. They also pursued a fair knowledge of their own territory.

In the university field, several reform projects failed such as those of Melchor de Macanaz, Mayans (*Idea of the new teaching methods for Spanish Universities*, 1767) or that of Pablo de Olavide. During the 18th century, historical universities coexisted with others of less relevance and newly created ones. Among the latter, it is worth mentioning the University of Cervera, founded in 1717 by Philip V to replace the rest of the universities in Catalonia, all of which were suppressed due to their support for the Habsburg pretender to the Spanish throne, against the Bourbons.

Conservatism predominated in the university cloisters and ideas of criticism or progress were non-existent. For example, to be a full professor at the University of Valladolid, it was necessary to swear the defence of the dogma of the Immaculate Conception. Therefore, being impossible to use the universities as disseminators of the Enlightenment principles, the Bourbons promoted other centres for the teaching and promotion of scientific knowledge and culture. Thus, in addition, the French reality of those times was emulated. The royal academies arose, the academy of language, of [history](#) and all kinds of institutions in the various disciplines: medicine, mathematics, mining... Natural history cabinets, astronomical observatories and [botanical gardens](#) were created.

As for the *Ecclesiastical territorial organisation*, it was said that to the north of the Sistema Central all the bishoprics depended on Santiago de Compostela, except for Oviedo and León, which even in the 18th century continued to qualify as “exempt bishoprics”, (*obispado exento*) of Burgos or Toledo, despite this being the “Primate Headquarters” since its conquest. In the south, two archdioceses predominated, Granada and Seville, both also recognised since their conquest. The latter was extremely powerful, being the head of all American episcopates.

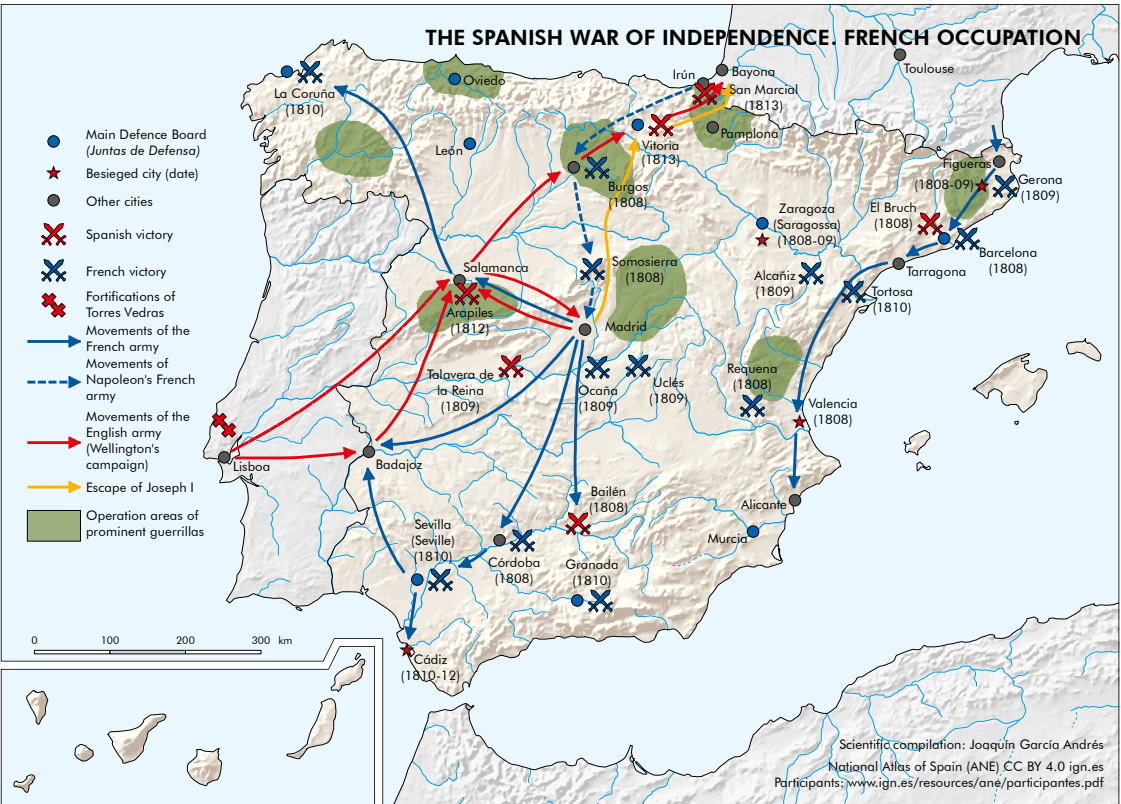
The *cabildos* were a very important centre of power in the cities. During the eighteenth century new bishoprics were achieved in Santander (1754), Ibiza (1782), Tudela (1783) and Minorca (1795). Calatayud, Játiva and Lorca, which also aspired to it, did not achieve their transformation from a collegiate church to an episcopal see. Many collegiate churches, however, managed to survive throughout the 18th century. The collegiate churches and their *cabildos* played a very notable role in many smaller towns being like second-rate cathedrals.



Contemporary Age

The population increased and exceeded ten million inhabitants in the 18th century, but changes in the territorial distribution took place. The inland areas, except for Madrid, suffered continuous negative rates for more than a century (*The Urban World and Population Density at the late 18th Century* map and *Population and Population Density in the First Third of the 19th Century* maps) while the outskirts were thriving: Gijón, Ferrol, Vigo, Cartagena, Jerez de la Frontera, San Fernando, etc. This was possible thanks to the progress in medicine, hygiene, increased agricultural production, [new towns](#) founded by the State, the arrival of technicians and foreign residents, the creation of industries, among other reasons.

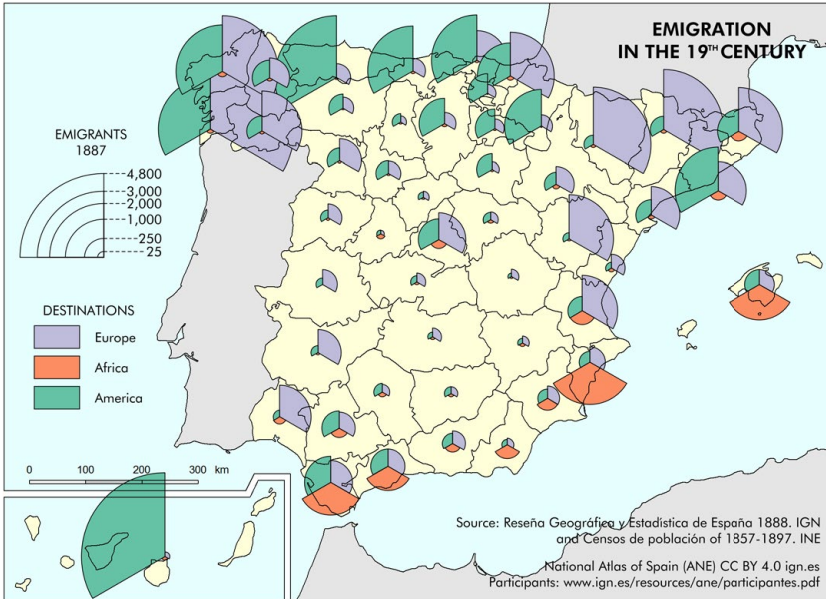
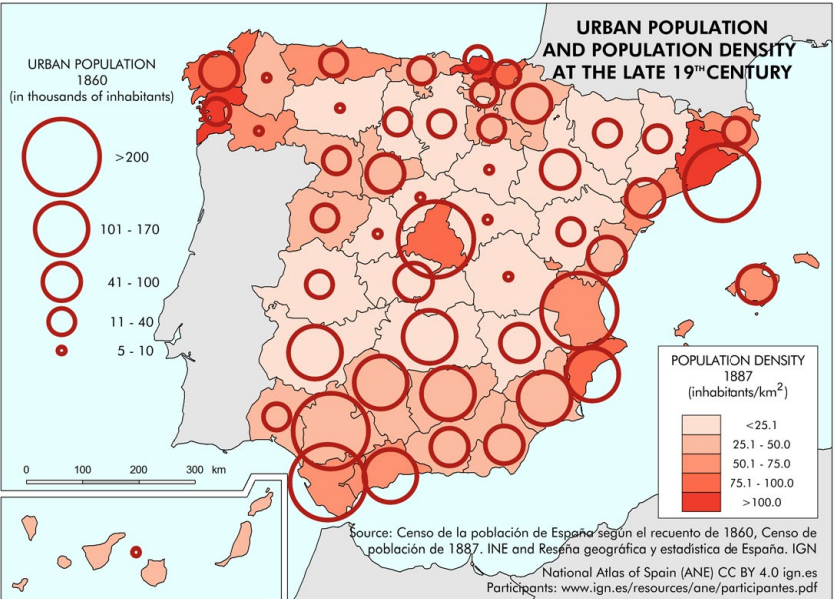
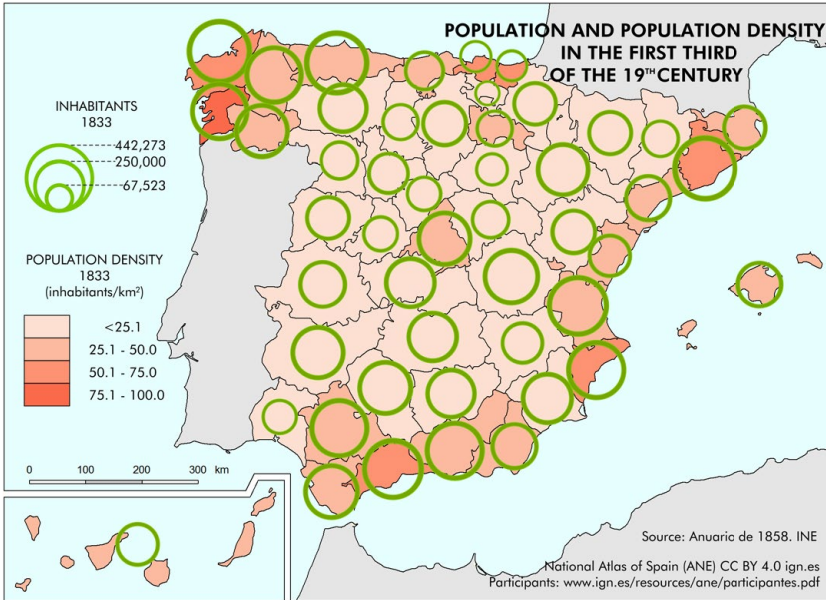
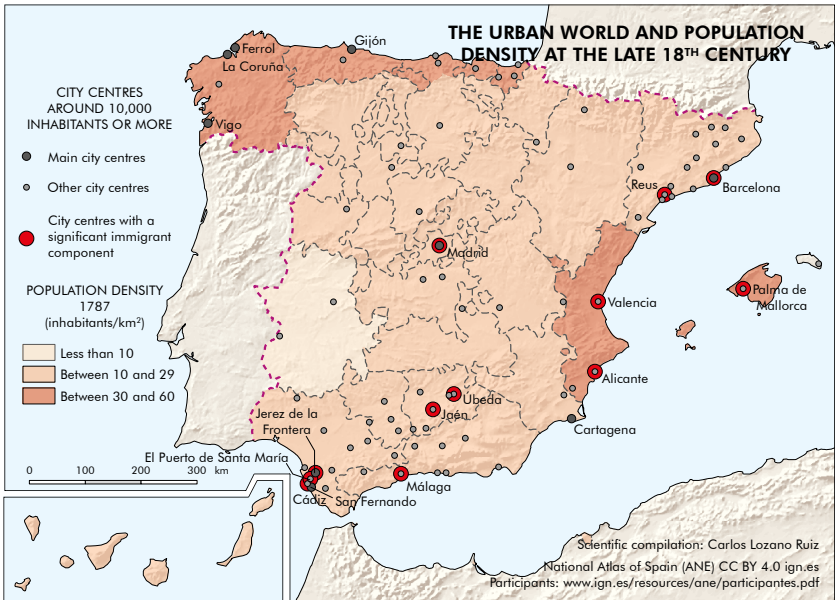
The Spanish War of Independence, the Carlist War and the continuous guerrillas, absolutist or liberal, reinforced the demographic blow, either due to deaths (500,000? 1808-1814) or to those exiled; some for their Francophile progressivism (the *afrancesados*, like [Goya](#)), others for their liberal activism. Also due to the plagues from 1800, 1814, 1833. In 1833, the country reached 12,162,000 inhabitants, which still meant a very weak density: just 1,636 inhabitants per square mile, as opposed to 4,659 inhabitants in the Netherlands, 3,875 in the United Kingdom, 3,085 in France or 1,815 in Portugal. With the provincial reorganisation by Javier de Burgos (1833), the new provincial capitals grew, as well as the mining areas, such as Asturias and Ciudad Real. The inland rural exodus expanded towards the industrial areas, which developed on the outskirts, and to the cities of the Basque Country (Biscay), Catalonia (Barcelona) and Madrid. Thus, a bourgeoisie of civil servants, industrialists



and merchants emerged, who supported great urban projects: districts such as *Ensanche* in Barcelona (Cerdà Plan, imposed by the central government) and Salamanca district, in Madrid.

The war against Napoleon, who came to Spain to place his brother on the throne in Madrid (*The Spanish War of Independence* map, also known as Peninsular War), brought the emergence of the first Constitution of Spain, in a besieged, progressive and liberal Cádiz. It also led to the appearance of guerrillas (a term that was made universal) against the French invader, in favour either of the absolutist king or of the liberals. The

guerrillas from one side or the other continued until the mid-twenties, according to the ruling ideology. In the thirties, Infante Don Carlos, who supported a monarchy that was absolutist, *foralista* and with a male sucession line, refused to accept his niece Isabella as the Queen. His reluctance was even increased because she was beign supported by de liberals. He proclaimed himself King (Charles V). A long and cruel seven years war started (*The Great Carlist War* map). The Convention of Bergara that ended it, started a liberal and two-party monarchy in Spain. There would be two other Carlist wars, in 1846-1849 and 1872-1876, and many attempts in 1855, 1860, 1869 and 1870.



Independence, liberalism and revolution

Reign of Carlos IV1788-1808

- Manuel Godoy, Prime Minister, joins Napoleon
- Defeat of the Franco-Spanish squad in Trafalgar
- Carlos IV abdicates in Bayonne and Napoleon appoints his brother, Joseph I Bonaparte, as king

1800-1808

1805

1808

Popular Uprising on May 2, 1808Spanish War of Independence1808-1814

- Constitution of Cádiz, an example of liberalism

19/03/1812

Reign of Ferdinand VII1814-1833

- Derogation of the Constitution of Cádiz. Restoration of Absolutism (liberal guerrillas)
- Liberal Triennium, ended with the Holy Alliance army (absolutist guerrillas)
- Battle of Ayacucho, independence of the Spanish American continent
- Publication of the Pragmatic Sanction that abolishes the so-called Salic law, which prohibited women from reigning

1814

1820-23

1824

1830

Reign of Isabella II (born in 1830), with the support of the Liberals1833-1868

- Regencies of María Cristina de Borbón-Dos Sicilias and of General Espartero
- Carlist War: Carlos, King's brother, disputes the throne and the return to absolutism
- Governments of Generals Espartero, Narváez and O'Donnell

1833-1843

1833-1839

1840-1868

The September RevolutionQueen Isabella II is dethroned1868

- Govenment of General Prim
- Prim is assassinated

1869

1870

Amadeus I of Savoy is appointed King (abdicating on the third year)1871-1873

First Spanish Republic1873

- Four presidents of the Executive between February and December

1873



In 1853 the prohibition of emigrating to America was lifted (*Emigration in the 19th Century* map). Cuba, still Spanish, attracted the Catalan emigration. Later on, the emigration was directed to Mexico, Uruguay, Brazil and Argentina. Between 1853 and 1882, there was a high Galician emigration rate (325,000, 60% of the total), and afterwards of Canarians, Asturians and Basques. The population of the Mediterranean and Balearic coastline headed for Morocco or Algeria (about 114,000, most of all, to Oran) and of the Northeast Peninsula to Europe.

to pay off public debt, finance the Carlist War and create an agrarian middle class with the peasants, who would then purchase the cultivated land. He also wanted to get supporters for liberal ideas and persuade the Carlist War towards the child Queen, apart from promoting the agrarian production and its trade. Between 1836 and 1837, 3,600 millions of *reales* (Spanish currency) were raised (*Ecclesiastical Confiscations of Mendizábal* map).

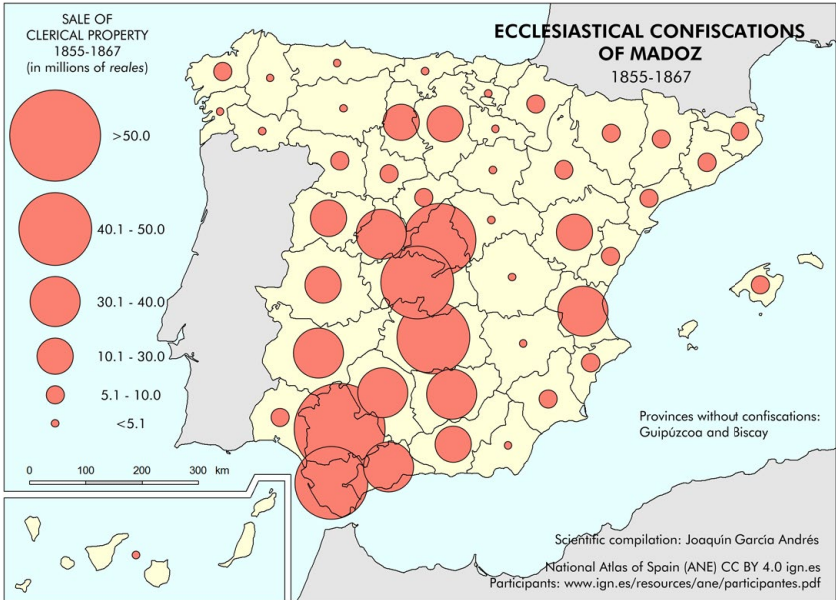
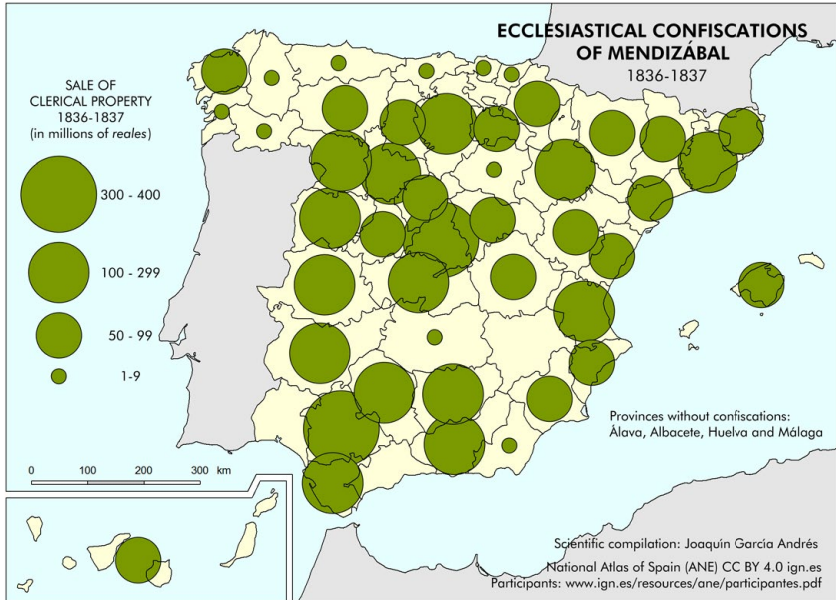
The Ecclesiastical Confiscations

The objective of the ecclesiastical confiscations, known as *desamortizaciones*, was the nationalisation of all the assets (buildings, land, works of art, books, etc.) from the so-called *manos muertas*, most of which were property of the religious communities, except for the educational and health care ones. There were precedents: assets belonging to the expelled Jesuits, some attempts by Godoy, the assets confiscation to the liberals and the Francophiles, or the nationalisation of the Inquisition property and of the military orders, decreed by the *Cortes de Cádiz*.

The ecclesiastical confiscation of Juan Álvarez Mendizábal, who was the progressivist Treasury Minister during the regency of María Cristina, started in 1835. The goods from religious orders were confiscated and sold to the highest bidder

The execution of the Mendizábal confiscation decrees was paralysed during the moderate decade (1844-1854, Narváez government). However, Pascual Madoz, Treasury Minister during the progressive biennium (1855-1856, government of Espartero), reactivated them with more intensity: he applied them not only for the confiscation of church property, such as in the first confiscation, but also for the communal properties from the municipalities and the ones from the State itself (*Ecclesiastical Confiscations of Madoz* map). They were aimed at financing railway works, promoting agrarian production and modernising the countryside.

In general, the peasants were unable to buy the confiscated land, which fell into the hands of, either the former owners (through figureheads) or the wealthy urban bourgeoisie, transformed into the landlord's bourgeoisie. On the other hand, many municipalities remained without rents and had to increase the tax burden. It is relevant to point out that provincial museums were created with the



[works of art](#), and monastic libraries were transferred to the newly created provincial secondary schools and to some universities.

The Bourbon Restoration

The restauration paved the way for a period of socioeconomic stabilisation, of consolidation of the goals achieved during the Elizabethan period and the creation of new ones.

1874	Generals Martínez Campos and Pavia ends the First Republic. Dictatorship of General Serrano
1874-1885	Reign of Alfonso XII
1881	Start of the "English-style" Governments with alternation between Cánovas del Castillo (Conservatives) and Práxedes Mateo Sagasta (Liberal Progressives)
1885-1902	Regency of María Cristina of Habsburgo, pregnant with the heir to the throne
1885	The Pardo pact officially ratifies the party alternation system
1897	Cánovas is assassinated
1898	Spanish-American War: Spain loses Cuba, Puerto Rico and Philippines: "the Disaster of 1898"

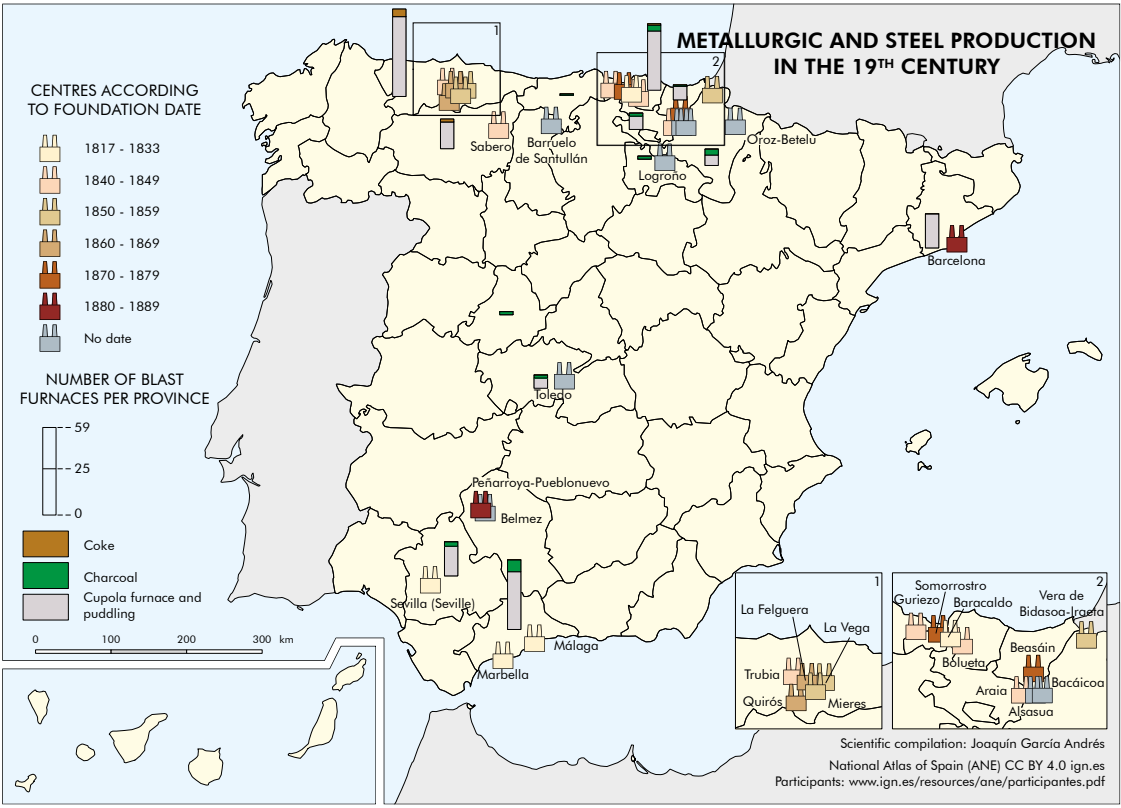
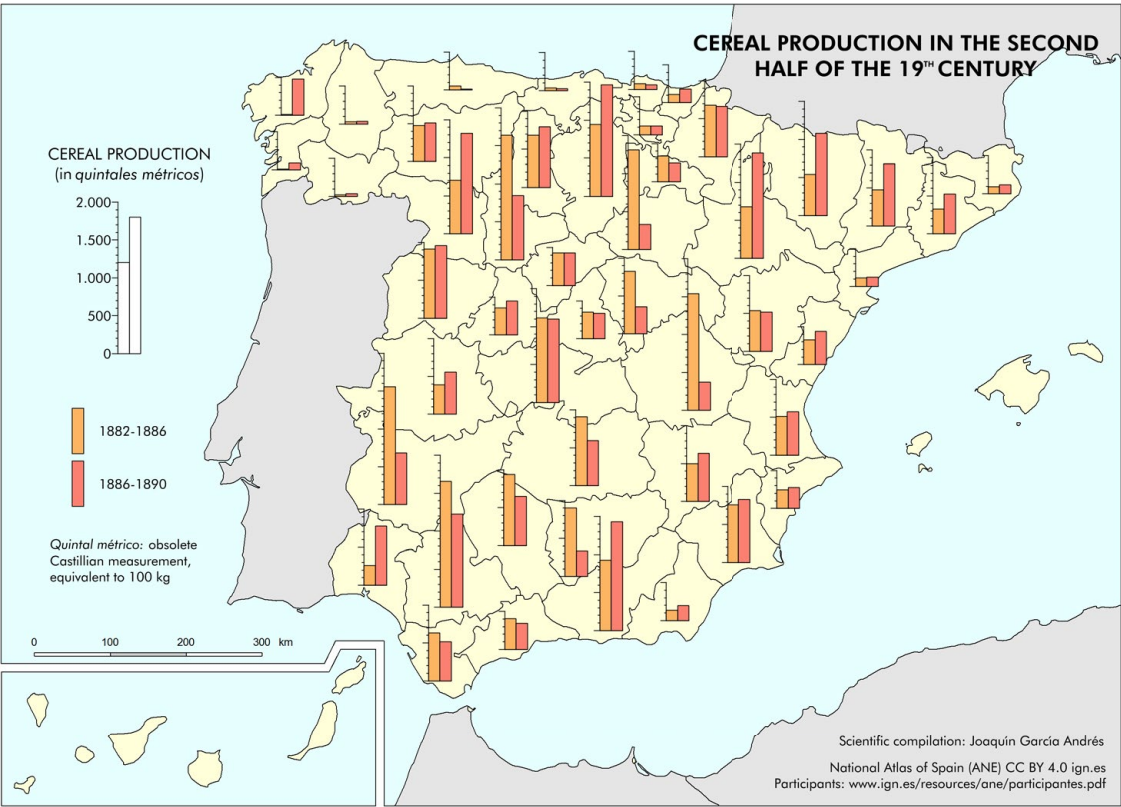
The offer of agricultural land, because of the confiscations, increased the cultivated land surface, the agricultural production and consumption. Until 1882, the economic agricultural conditions facilitated the inland cereal production. [The Crimean War](#) and the subsequent conflicts in Eastern Europe facilitated exports, to the extent that there was an emergence of a flour milling bourgeoisie in the two Castile regions, whose motto was: "Water, sun and war in Sebastopol".

Nevertheless, from that moment cereal imports started, favoured by the railway and a very benign climate that increased production. As a result, prices decreased and the countryside, once again, went into crisis and a new cycle began of rural exodus to the large industrial cities.

The cotton shortage due to the North American Secession War (1861-1885) contributed to the decline of the old textile industry, which gave way to metallurgic and steel factories. As iron needed coal as a source of energy, those places that catered for both (Ojén, Málaga, 1826), initiated the heavy industry process. But due to mining fatigue, this activity was moved to other regions such as Asturias (1864) and the Basque Country (1876), where a fruitful exchange of iron and coal with Cardiff was established.

At the end of the 19th century, 70% of the national production of iron was located in the Basque Country, so Spain became the main iron supplier for the rest of Europe. There was a huge increase in production from 43,000 tons of iron ingots, 37,000 tons of soft iron and steel, which were produced in 1868, to 310,000 and 190,000 tons, respectively manufactured in 1900.

The iron exploitation was important for the [railway expansion](#). The benefits from the Madoz confiscation decrees and a series of laws that promoted its financing, such as the *Ley General de Ferrocarriles de 1855* (General Railway Act), which attracted foreign capital, contributed to it (French capital in the Northern rails and British in the Sourthern ones). The first railway in the Iberian Peninsula was the Barcelona-Mataró line in 1848, followed by the Madrid-Aranjuez one in 1851. In 10 years (1856-1866) 460 km were built



per year, reaching 5,000 km. In a second 23-year-stage, (1873-1896) it reached 12,000 km. The 20th century started with 15,000-km-railway lines, some of which were international: Madrid-Lisbon (1881) and Lisbon-Madrid-Paris (1887).

Restauracion crisis and first dictatorship

Alfonso XIII assumed full authority as king on his 16th birthday, among a general historical pessimism

provoked by the *Desastre del 98* (98 Disaster), that marked the Generation of 1898.

Foreign colonial companies owned the raw materials (*Large Foreign Corporations* map). Germans, Belgians and French had the mining concessions and the English controlled more than 50% of the foreign capital in many industries: forestry (cork), food (Suchard), and, of course, mining (*Riotinto*). From 1868 onwards (Mining Law), the State had improved its commitment with them. Zinc, copper, mercury and lead were extracted.

The Spanish capital, with exceptions, such as the Marquis of Salamanca years before, settled for its agricultural *latifundia* (*The Large Rural Property* map). Despite that, the agri-food industry sector was emerging timidly. The unresolved agricultural issue (66% of the active population) with a high number of *jornaleros* (landless day *labourers*), temporary unemployed and mostly illiterate, caused the appearance of the revolutionary agricultural labour unions.

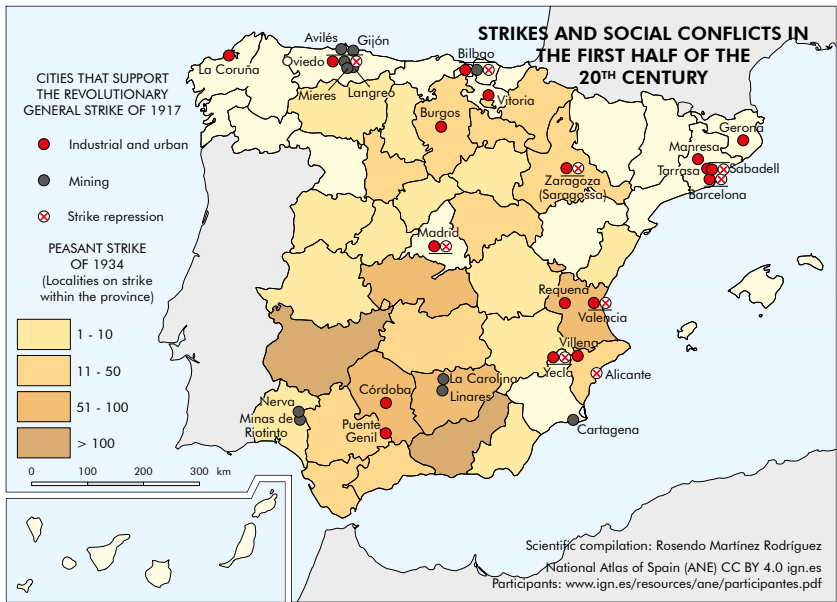
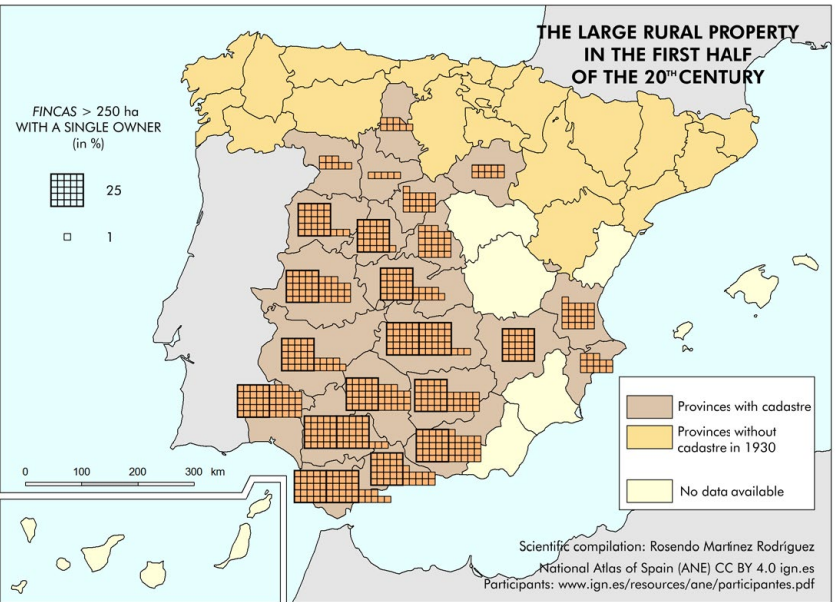
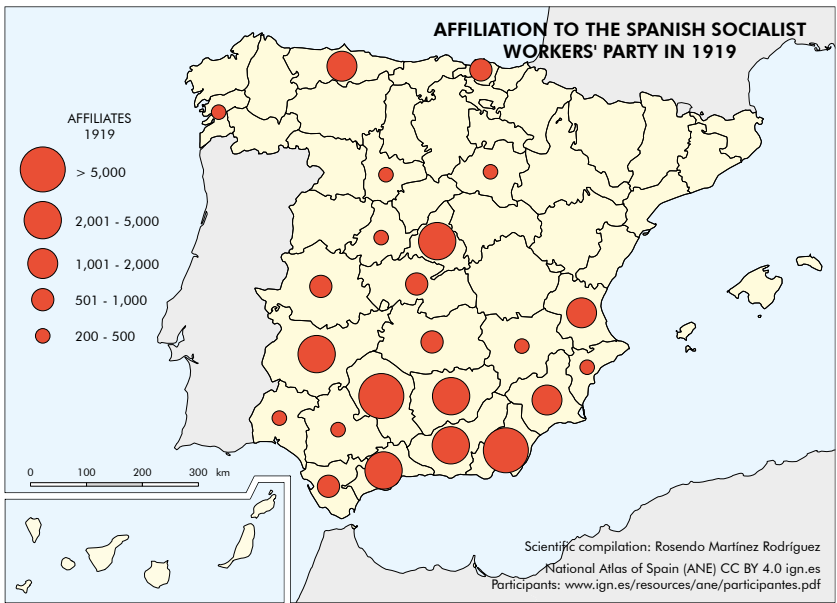
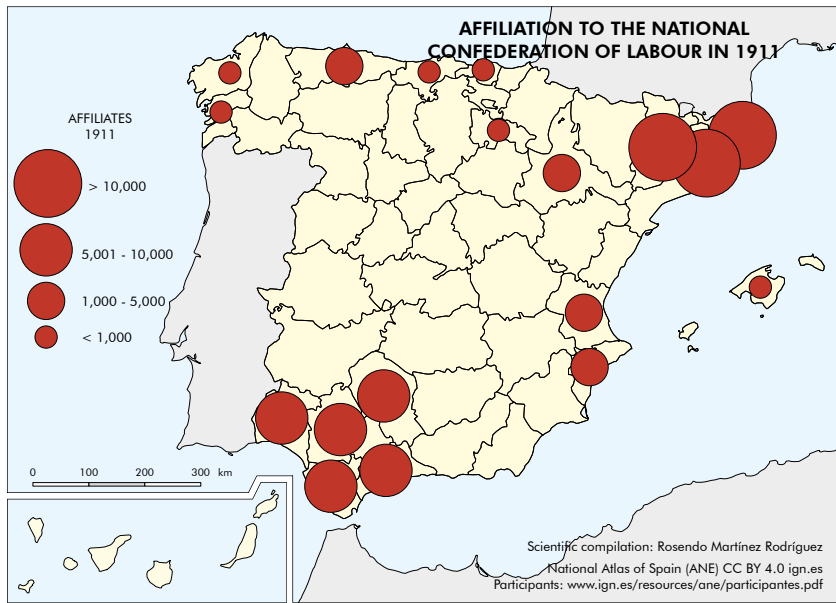
The social issues also remained unresolved. In 1916 there were 237 strikes; in 1920 more than 1,000. The repression of the 1917 Spanish general strike (*Strikes and Social Conflicts* map) left dozens of deaths and thousands arrested.

Under the Primo de Rivera dictatorship there was a decrease in conflict due to the big public works

Reign of Alfonso XIII (1902 - 1931)

1903	Death of Sagasta
1909-1927	The Moroccan War
1909	The Tragic Week
1912	Assassination of Liberal Prime Minister Jose Canalejas
	Assassination of Conservative Prime Minister Eduardo Dato
1921	Disasters of Annual and Monte Arruit
1923-1930	The King accepts General Primo de Rivera's dictatorship
1925-1927	The Alhucemas landing (1925). End of war. Abd el Krim surrenders (1926). Official end of the Rif Republic (1927)
1930-1931	The King fails in his attempts to restore the constitutional normality. Governments of General Berenguer and Admiral Aznar

HISTORY



and the collaboration of the General Union of Workers (Unión General de Trabajadores, UGT). But the situation blew up again in 1929. The National Confederation of Labour (Confederación Nacional del Trabajo, CNT) reached 700,000 affiliates during that year, and in the first years of the Republic, the UGT doubled that number. In Andalusia the peasants alliances exceeded 100,000 affiliates on the strike of 1934, wich anticipated the general revolutionary strike (*Affiliation to National Confederation of Labour and Affiliation to the Spanish Socialist Workers' Party maps*).

The Republic, the Civil War and Franco’s Dictatorship

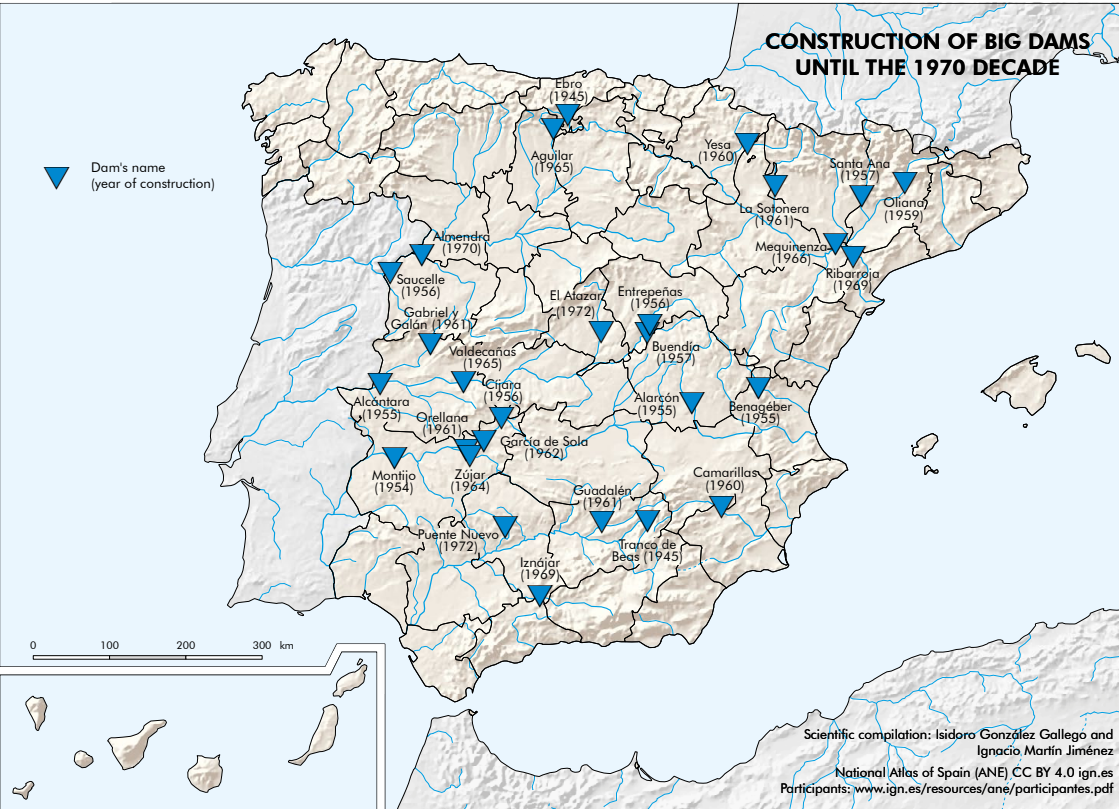
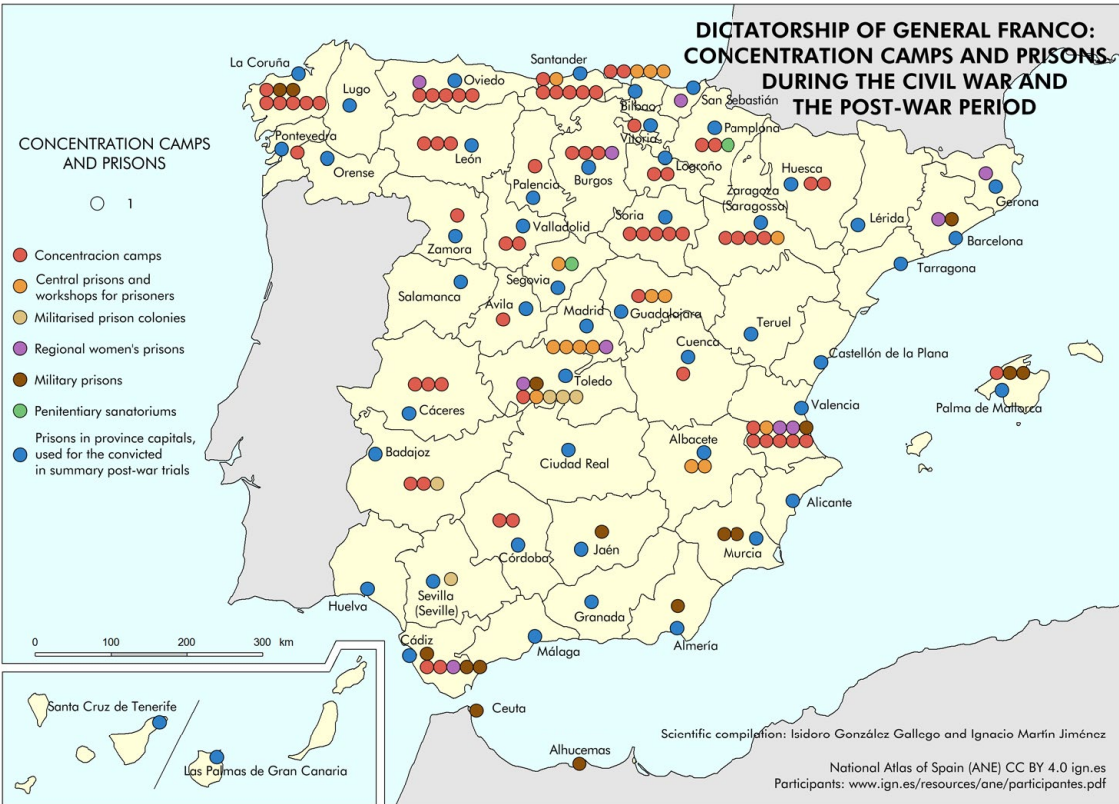
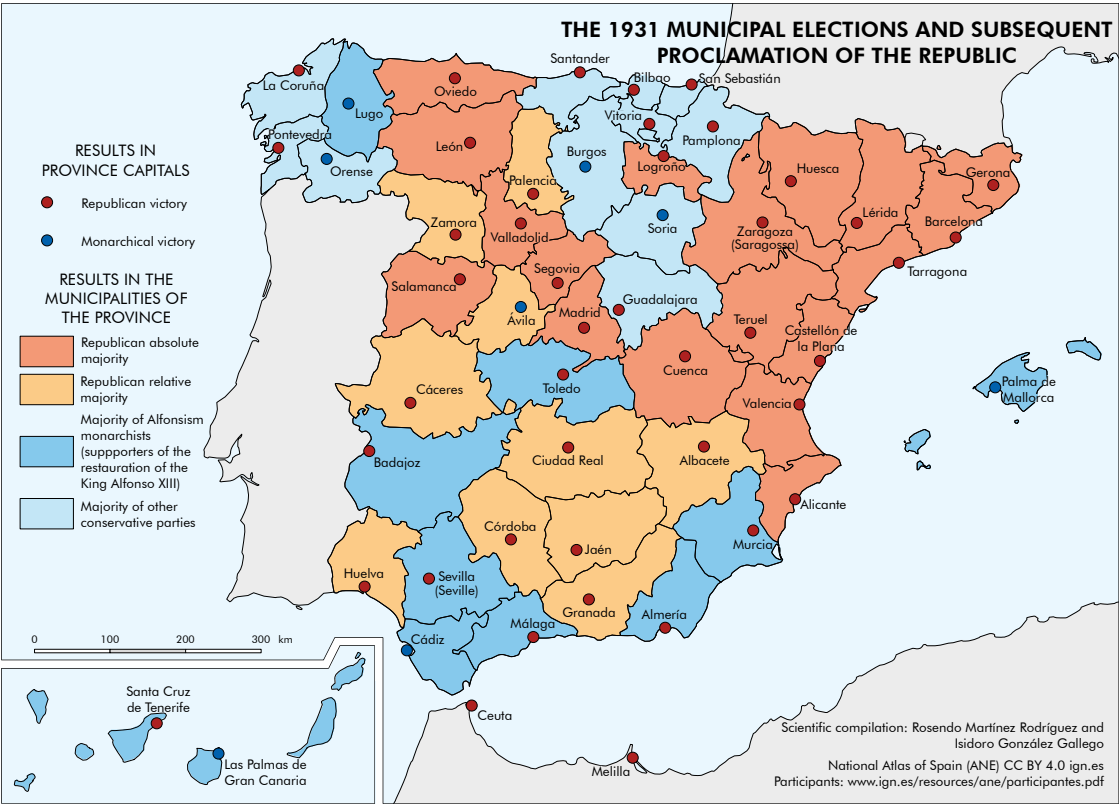
The republican parties had sworn allegiance to bring the republic through the Pact of San Sebastián (1930), as a consequence of the disrepute of the Monarchy. And they took advantage of the municipal elections in 1931 because, although the monarchists got more municipal councillors, the vote in the big cities was republican. Many people took to the streets and Alfonso XIII, abandoned by everybody, stopped his royal functions and left «Spain...the sole lady of its own destiny».

14/04/1931	Proclamation of the Second Spanish Republic
1931	The new Republican Constitution grants voting rights for women
1931-1933	Progressive Biennial that faces a large reform plan
1933-1935	Conservative Biennial, revisionist of such reforms
1934	Revolutionary General Strike The Asturias Revolution
1936	Triumph of the Popular Front in the Spanish General Elections
1936-1939	Military Uprising and Civil War
01/04/1939	End of the Second Republic Victory of the Military Uprising

The Republic faced all the problems simultaneously: agricultural, social, religious, military and territorial issues. In the meantime, a Constitution was elaborated in the middle of the Great Depression of 1929. All “these issues” were intended to be resolved, but how? Some wanted a bourgeois republic with reforms, but gradual and prolonged throughout time; others wanted radical political action that could even become revolutionary. The Second Republic emerged with great difficulties so that “the two Spains” could fit into it. Therefore, the Pact of San Sebastián was broken and not only the radicals but the liberal right also got out of the first Government.

In May 1931, more than 100 convents were set on fire. The following year there was an anarchist revolutionary attempt, a monarchist uprising and even a failed coup d’état by General Sanjurjo. And while the Agrarian Reform, the army reorganisation, the generalisation of the education and the regional planning was faced by the Republican Courts, the strikes and revolts continued, resulting in a tough response with 25 deaths in the anarchist Casas Viejas uprising. The society was not ready for with some decisions: the divorce law, the recognition of the Soviet Union; others, like the expulsion of the Jesuits, seemed exaggerated. And some raised powerful enemies against the Republic, such as the agrarian reform or the one of the army.

In 1933 the right-wing party won the elections (while Hitler came to power in Germany), the



reforms were stopped and the PSOE attempted a general revolutionary action in October 1934 (1,800-2,000 deaths across Spain), with victory only in Asturias. The Sacred Chamber of the Cathedral of Oviedo was blown up and the University was set on fire (its old library was lost) amid looting and killings. The Republic sent the *Legión* and also the Army of Africa to Asturias, which acted with similar violence. During 1935 both Spains were prepared to settle their confrontation in the general elections held in February of 1936. There was a triumph of the Popular Front, and in July a great part of the army took up arms, led by General Franco.

[The rebellion](#) only won in some parts of Spain. But the audacity and discipline of the rebels and the rulers' indecision, who would rather arm the civil people than lean on the rest of the army, whose loyalty they doubted, derived into a civil war that would last until 1939. There were moments with as much violence at the rear as on the front-line.

Once the war was over, General Franco established a personal [military dictatorship](#), of a National Catholic nature, amidst violent [repression](#).

In its first years, given its international isolation, the dictatorship tried to govern autarchically and with the expected territorial actions: great public works without the possibility of resistance from those affected (entire villages were moved), such as the construction of more than 500 dams. In the meantime, land plots concentration plans, colonisation of new [villages](#), and construction of grain storage networks (the [silos](#)), were promoted while the great property remained untouchable. The project known as *Plan Badajoz* was relevant, with thousands of people being resettled.

From 1959 onwards, (the isolation had already stopped due to the *cold war*), technocratic programs were implemented (the Development Plans) with industrial parks and estates throughout the country. Undoubtedly there was economic progress, urban middle classes were created in large numbers and the active agrarian population decreased by 10% due to emigration to industrial areas. Spain was considered the tenth world economic power for a few years. But in 1975 nobody wanted to continue with a dictatorship and the country returned to a democratic system.

The Arrival of Democracy

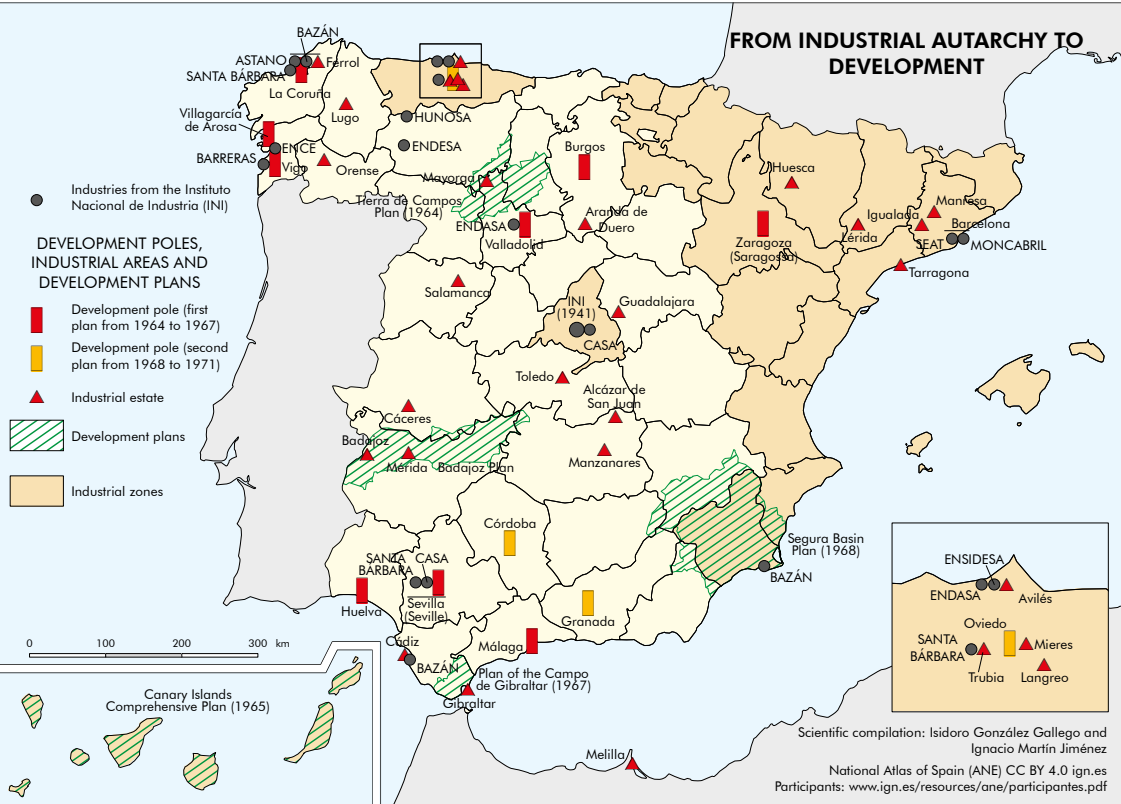
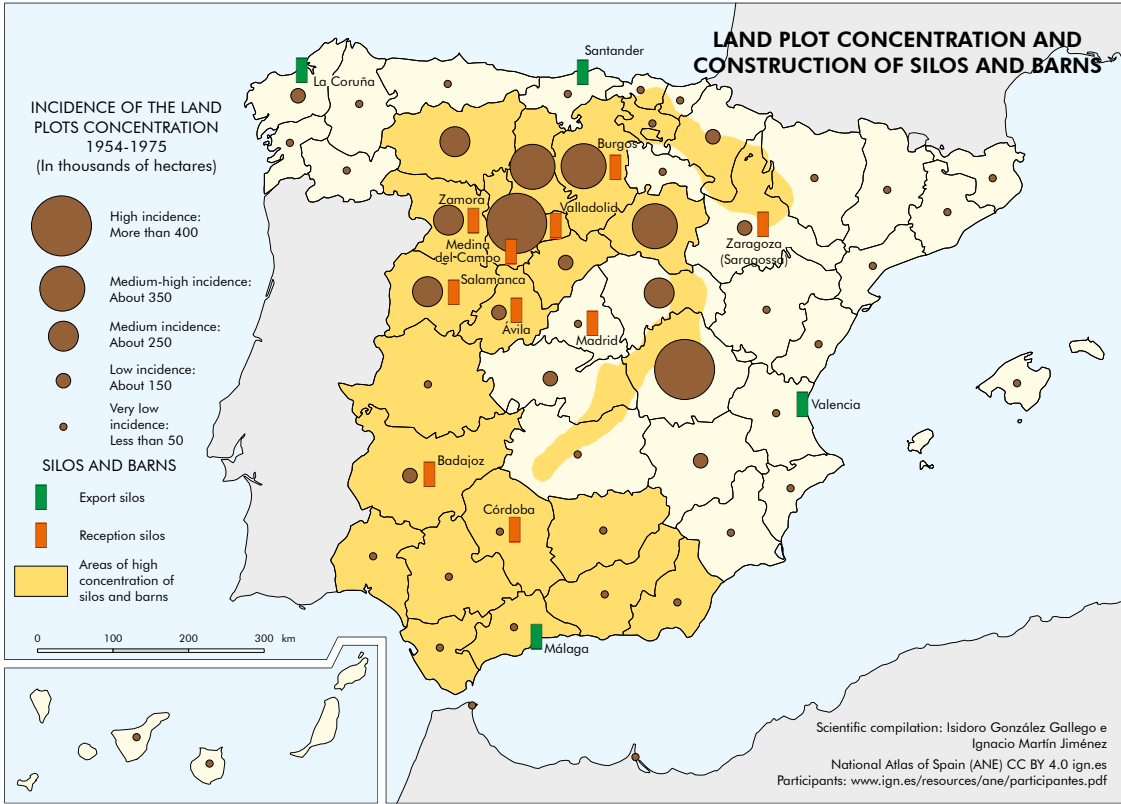
Once the dictator had died, the process known as "transition" began, which paved the way to a Western parliamentary democracy in Spain. The rulers he had appointed, trusting that the Francoist militarism would be perpetuated, understood that it was a senseless anachronism and the anti-Francoist rulers (from the exile or in captivity) coincided in the need to lead the country towards its identification with Europe; it was necessary to assume waivers from [both sides](#).

It could be said that the transition emerged in 1976 (*Referendum on Political Reform* map), culminated in 1978 (Constitution approval), consolidated in 1979 (*Municipal Elections of 1979. Leftist Victory in Provincial Capitals* map) and with the disappearance of the secular military leadership after the failed coup d'état led by Tejero, became a milestone. The Socialist Party came to power and Spain became a member of NATO and the European Community. But why is it said that it emerged? The historians

The transition (1975-1981)

November 1975	Don Juan Carlos is proclaimed King of Spain
February 1976	Spain leaves the Sahara, according to agreements signed three months before, under Moroccan pressure with an agonising Franco. Its future becomes dependant on a UN-controlled referendum
July 1976	Adolfo Suárez is appointed Prime Minister
December 1976	Referendum for the Political Reform Act
January 1977	The Atocha massacre: four labour lawyers from the Communist Party were murdered
April 1977	Legalisation of the Communist Party
June 1977	First General Elections after the Civil War, Adolfo Suárez is elected Prime Minister, position he would hold until 1981
October 1977	Pactos de la Moncloa (Moncloa Pacts)
6 December 1978	Referendum on the Spanish Constitution
March 1979	General elections. First Constitutional legislature
April 1979	First municipal elections after the Civil War
September 1979	Extraordinary Federal Congress of the PSOE through which it renounces Marxism
May 1979	Attack from the GRAPO terrorist group in Madrid: nine killed and 40 injured
December 1979	Approval of the Statutes of Autonomy of Catalonia and the Basque Country
January 1981	Adolfo Suárez resigns as Prime Minister
February 1981	Coup d'Etat attempt. The Lieutenant-Colonel Tejero occupies the Congress of Deputies

1939-1975	Dictatorship of General Franco, Head of the Government and of the State
1939-1950/1953	Post-war situation. Autarchy and international isolation
1959	Economic Stabilization Plan
1973	Admiral Carrero Blanco is assassinated by ETA Terrorist Group
1975	The Dictator dies

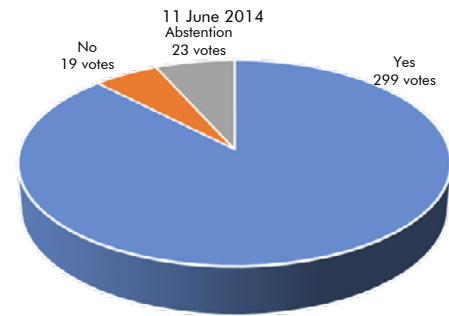


study how, under the tense Francoist surface, since the end of the sixties, Spain had developed a confluence of social, economic or cultural “transitions”, from which the political transition, once the dictator had died, was the inexorable end. The country was leaving behind the bipolar social division, which the old politicians –unable to overcome it– preferred to agitate. Now, in contrast, the new politics were building a free democracy for everyone. And Spain stands itself in front of its own history, 500 years after 1492, as a united nation, free from grudges, transparent, powerful and open to the world. The current Spanish generations will thus know, with the faithful memory of a former divisive past, how to effectively face the 21st century.

Abdication of Juan Carlos I

With the vote of the *Ley Orgánica 3/2014* in the Congress, the abdication of King Juan Carlos I became effective. It was presented by the Prime Minister Mariano Rajoy, who pointed out that the King abdicated “in favour of his successor Felipe de Borbón y Grecia, called to become King of Spain, just after the effective date of this law”. Some Congress representatives pointed out that “a new Head of State would be elected”; others voted “no”, highlighting their decision “for the republic”, “for the Catalanian republic” or “for the democracy”.

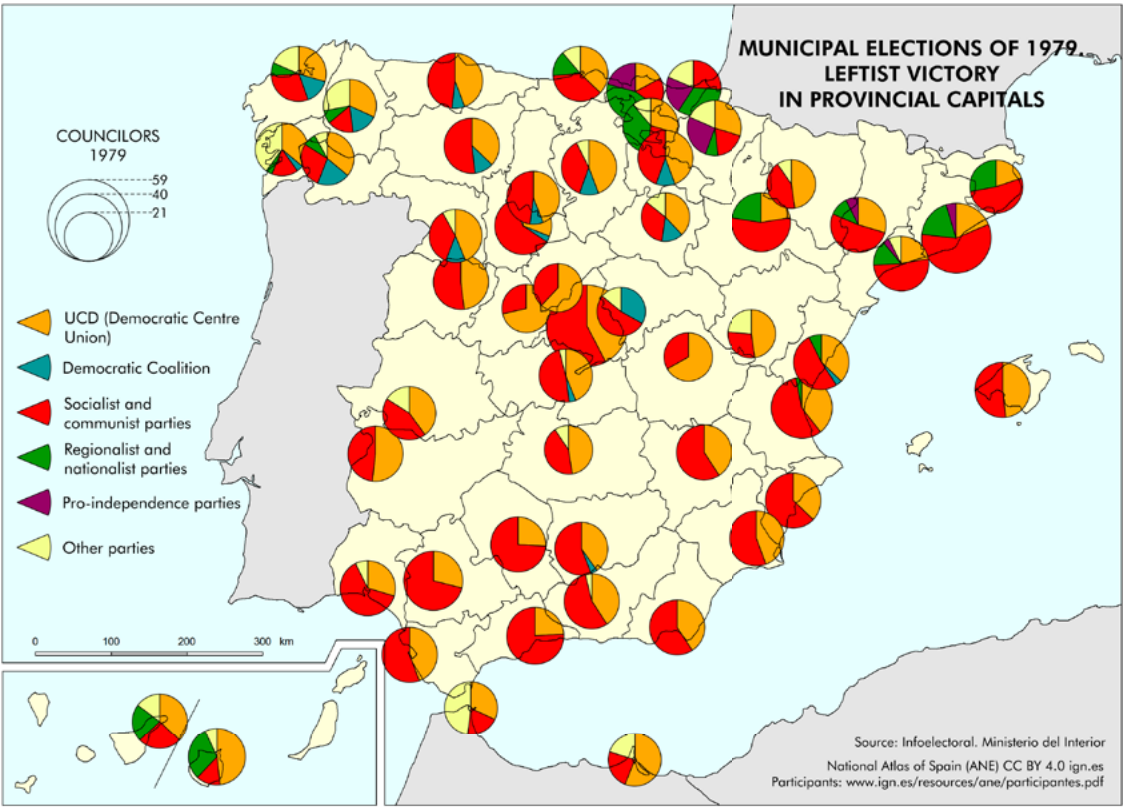
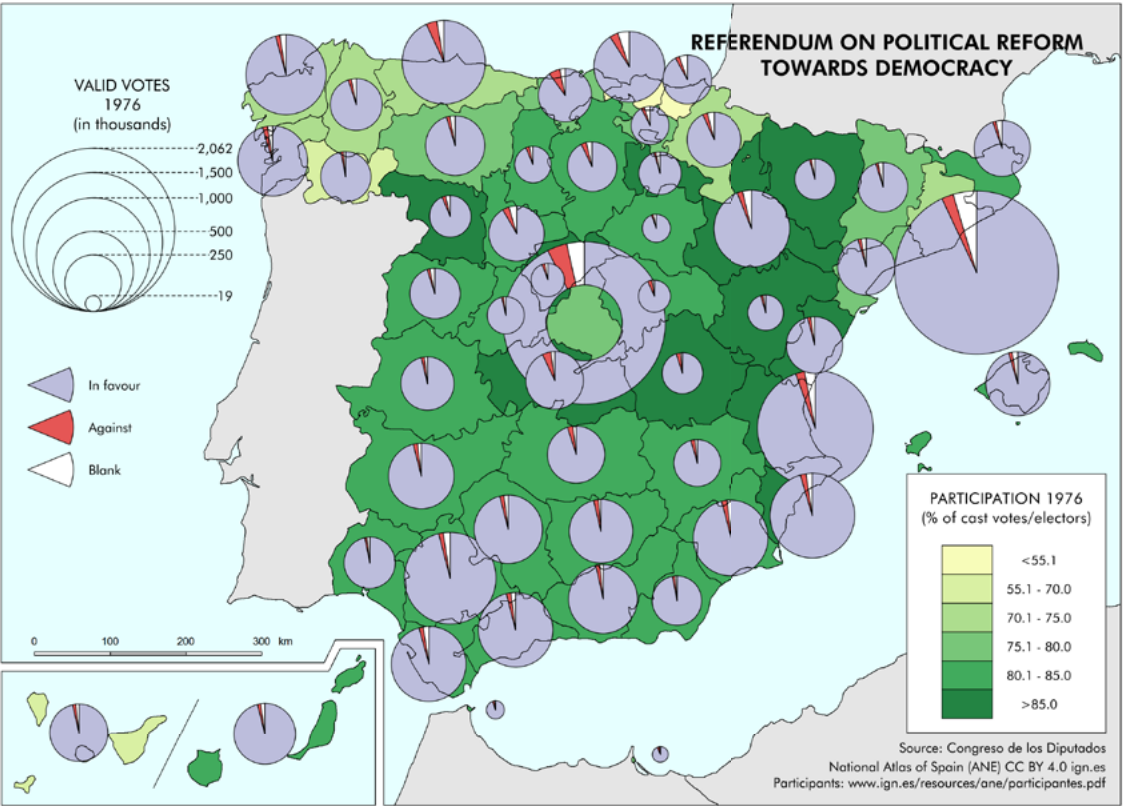
VOTE ON THE ORGANIC LAW OF THE ABDICATION OF KING JUAN CARLOS I



341 votes cast; 9 members of the Parliament absent, of whom 7 left the Chamber.
Source: Diario de sesiones del Congreso de los Diputados. Sesión 192. Congreso de los Diputados
National Atlas of Spain (ANE) CC BY 4.0 ign.es
Participants: www.ign.es/recursos/ane/participantes.pdf

Spain today, a European democracy (1981-2022)

February 1981	Leopoldo Calvo Sotelo is elected Prime Minister of Spain
May 1982	Spain joins NATO
December 1982	Felipe González is elected Prime Minister of Spain, position that he maintains until May 1996
June 1985	Spain signs the Treaty of Accession to the European Economic Community
June 1986	ETA undertakes the major terrorist attack at the Hipercor supermarket in Barcelona: 21 deaths and 45 injured
January 1988	Signature of the <i>Pacto de Ajuria Enea</i> to eradicate terrorism
April 1992	Opening of the Seville World Expo
July 1992	Opening of the Olympic Games in Barcelona
March 1995	Approval of the Statutes of the Autonomous Cities of Ceuta and Melilla
April 1996	<i>Pacto del Majestic</i> : The PP receives the CIU party support to form a government and act during all the Legislature
May 1996	José María Aznar is elected Prime Minister of Spain



May 1996	Strong budgetary adjustments are announced	June 2012	Spain gets a 100-billion-euro bank bailout from the European Union
January 1999	The unique Euro currency comes into force, which will be in circulation since January 2002	June 2014	Abdication of the King Juan Carlos I and proclamation of the King Felipe VI
March 2004	Terrorist attack on 11-M in Madrid by an Islamist group, three days before the General Elections: 191 deaths and more than 2,000 injured people	July 2014	Economic recovery and decrease of the unemployment rate in more than 400,000 people
April 2004	José Luis Rodríguez Zapatero is elected Prime Minister of Spain	June 2018	First no-confidence motion accepted in democracy, presented by Pedro Sanchez against Mariano Rajoy
March 2006	Approval of a New Catalonia Statute	December 2018	Pedro Sánchez is elected Prime Minister of Spain
October 2006	The GDP increases by 4% and the unemployment rate remains at 8.10%	January 2020	PSOE-Unidas Podemos coalition Government
April 2007	The real state bubble blows. Start of the Great Recession	March 2020	The COVID-19 outbreak starts. The Government declares two consecutive States of Alarm
December 2007	<i>Ley de la Memoria Histórica</i> is passed	February 2022	Russia invades Ukraine An energy crisis starts in Europe
May 2010	Budget Cuts Plan, Labour and Pension System Reforms	June 2022	NATO Summit in Madrid
October 2011	ETA announces the definitive end of the armed activity		
December 2011	Mariano Rajoy is elected Prime Minister of Spain. The Government announces a tough economic plan		

Bibliography and Index

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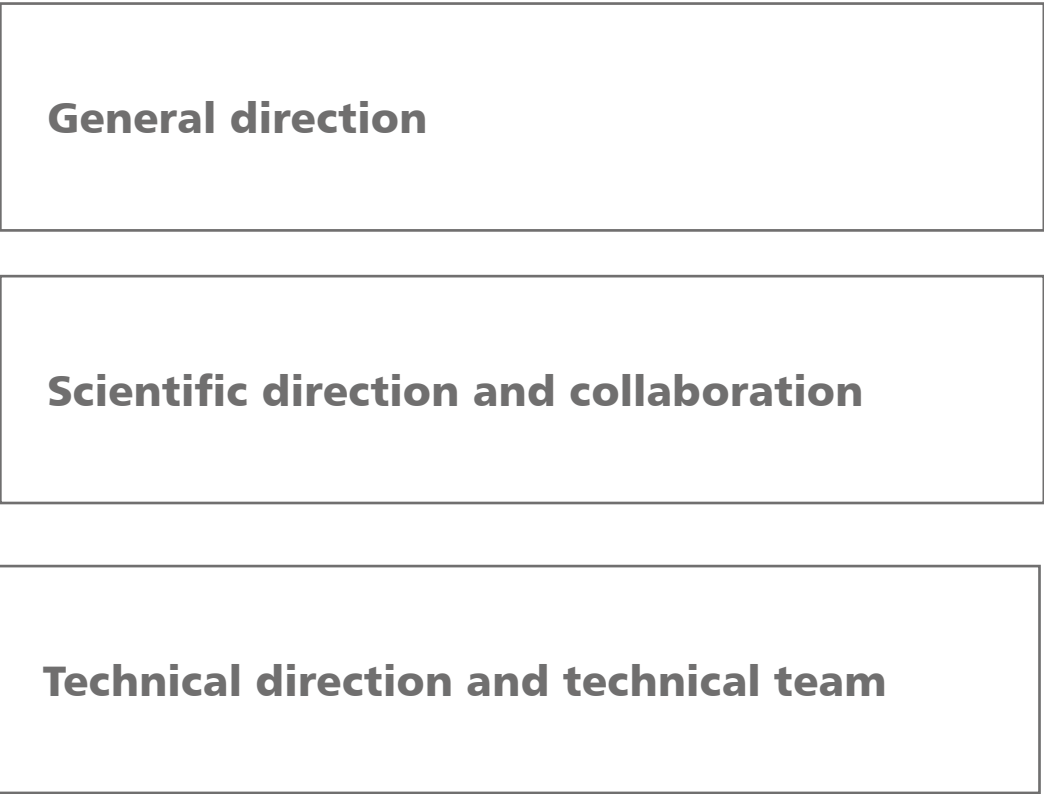
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Members engaged



All publications of the National Atlas of Spain are collective works that include contributions from numerous collaborators involved in a wide variety of tasks. In the specific case of this publication, the following tasks have been undertaken: the definition of the graphic resources (maps, graphs, tables, etc.); the collection of the data required to prepare the above resources from a wide range of sources, which are for their most part of an official nature; the analysis and preparation of these statistics for subsequent processing; the definition of texts, maps, graphs and tables; the graphic design of the format; the preparation of a draft format including the positioning of the resources, together with their size and characteristics; map and graph design; map and graph editing in accordance with the agreed draft format; quality control from various points of view (scientific, graphic design and internal structure of the digital files, taking into account the topology and compliance with the data model); insertion of graphic resources into pages; drafting of original texts in Spanish; scientific revision of the original texts in Spanish; adaptation of the texts for this international version of the publication; translation into English of the texts, maps, graphs and charts for this international version of the publication; preparation of indexes; colour tests; printing; binding; and numerous other tasks for the bilingual online publication. Each graphic resource is, in short, a collective resource. Only certain original texts in Spanish and some illustrations may be attributed to a single person or organisation.

The overall supervision of all publications of the National Atlas of Spain corresponds to the National Geographic Institute of Spain (IGN), as its corporate author, and to the National Centre for Geographic Information (CNIG), as the editing organisation. Both institutions are also responsible for the technical supervision and preparation of the specific product, within the various different series of the National Atlas of Spain collection, the aim of which is to satisfy the demand of the various users.

As mentioned in the Presentation, the National Geographic Institute of Spain has benefited from the definition of resources undertaken by the specialists of Red ANEXI scientific network for preparing this product. Amongst the organisations belonging to the scientific network, a key role has been played on this occasion by the Inter-University Institute of Geography of the University of Alicante, which was home to a research group specialising in geography of hazards, and also by the Spanish Geography Association, which has a close relationship with various research groups who were carrying out studies from a geographic perspective on the subject matter dealt with in this publication.

On the basis of the thematic table of contents proposed for this volume, specific Thematic Working Groups were set up, to which the scientific preparation of the content of one or more chapters was entrusted. These specialists contributed their knowledge of the sources of the data concerned and duly analysed them; drafted the original texts in Spanish; validated in scientific terms the partial results and the final product for the Spanish version of the volume. These tasks require specialised knowledge of the subject matter concerned. Each scientific coordinator of a Thematic Working Group formed the teams of scientific collaborators of the member organisations of the scientific network concerned. Furthermore, in those cases where it was considered necessary, the coordinator requested the inclusion of other specialists belonging to institutions not forming part of the scientific network concerned. In these cases, the collaborator has been described as an “external scientific advisor”. It is important to note that these “advisors” shall be expected to join in the future the scientific network if they belong to an academic institution or an institution involved in scientific research. On the other hand, there have also been numerous “scientific advisors” from organisations that are outside the scientific network that do not belong to scientific or academic organisations. In addition to the above, this specific project also required forming a Group of Specialised Scientific Advisors external to the scientific network and consisting of experts in the field of healthcare. This category of scientific advisors external to the scientific network also includes all the staff of the organisations that have provided data, which are mostly European, national, regional and local public administrative bodies. It shall also be noted that some providers of statistical information also belong to the private sector. The role of all these external scientific advisors was crucial: they provided data and prepared thematic information for preparing resources; and, when they were asked to do so, they validated the resources concerned and clarified aspects relating to the definitions of variables, methods of data capture and processing, the interpretation of data, and on some occasions revised original texts in Spanish and contributed specific clarifications.

This publication can always be improved upon. Despite the best efforts of our extensive team of scientists and technical experts, there may have been occasional errors in certain phases of the preparation process, or we may have involuntarily overlooked the contributions of certain persons or institutions in our lists of collaborators. We apologise for any such omissions and will do our best to correct them in future editions.

With this publication we continue an approach that aims to satisfy the increasing demand from public and private institutions, and also from members of the public at home and overseas, for products like this one, which can contribute to improving geographical knowledge on Spain, both within the country and especially outside Spain, thanks to this international version of the publication.

The National Geographic Institute of Spain and the National Centre for Geographic Information would like to express their very sincere thanks to each of our collaborators for their active contribution to this publication.

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SPAIN ON MAPS. A geographic synthesis

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PART	II	PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY
PART	III	HISTORY
PART	IV	POPULATION, HUMAN SETTLEMENTS AND SOCIETY
PART	V	PRODUCTIVE SECTORS
PART	VI	SOCIAL FACILITIES
PART	VII	TRANSPORT AND ICT
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