

UNIT 1: THE CRISIS OF THE ANCIENT REGIME

Lesson plan:

- 1.- THE ANCIENT REGIME
- 2.- THE ENLIGHTENMENT AND THE SCIENTIFIC REVOLUTION
- 3.- THE 18TH CENTURY: *the transformation of the Ancient Regime:*
 - 3.1.- *political transformations: the Enlightened Despotism.*
 - 3.2.- *International conflicts: the European balance*
 - 3.3.- *Economic and social transformations.*
- 4.- THE 18TH CENTURY IN SPAIN:
 - 4.1.- *War of Succession & arrival of the Bourbon dynasty*
 - 4.2.- *Bourbon reformism: political, economic and social reforms.*
 - 4.3.- *Spanish international policy.*
 - 4.4.- *Cultural achievements*
- 5.- ART: *Rococo & Neoclassicism.*

TOPIC 1: THE ANCIENT REGIME.

“*Ancient Regime*” is the expression used by the French revolutionaries to describe all they wanted to destroy.

Concerning the **political** system, the absolute monarchy, in which the king held all the powers. Instead, they wanted to establish a representative government and to separate the powers (executive, legislative, judicial).

During the 17th century, there were two main political models in Europe: the *absolute monarchy* (France, Louis XIV) and the *parliamentary monarchy* (England after the Glorious revolution 1688, in which the king's power was limited and controlled by the Parliament).

As for the **society**, a society divided into **estates**: *privileged* (nobles, clergy) and *non privileged*: peasants, craftsmen, bourgeoisie. They were also known as “Third Estate” .

It was very wealthy and was very influenced by the enlightened ideas. Hence, they attacked the power of nobility and clergy and claimed for a society based on legal equality of all the citizens, without privileges.

The **economy** was based on agriculture, with low productivity. Economic activities were limited by guilds, interior customs and lots of taxes. Revolutionaries asked for a productive economy where those who had initiative could make business without limitations.



ACTIVITIES 1,2,3,4

TOPIC 2: THE ENLIGHTENMENT → [VIDEO](#)

During the 18th century there was a new intellectual movement that grew in France and spread all across Europe and some American areas, it was so-called the Enlightenment. The **MAIN IDEAS** of the Enlightenment were:

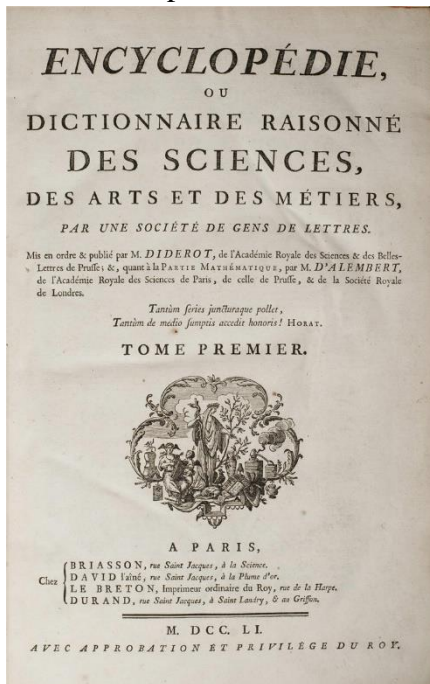
- **Faith in human reason.** Reason was essential and the only source of understanding the world. It could not be an ally of all the traditional principles based on mere faith. Superstition, tradition or religion were rejected as ways to achieve knowledge.
- **Progress** must be achieved through **education**, scientific advances whose final target is human **happiness**. Learning and teaching were considered essential since the new knowledge gives freedom and creates an enlightened society.
- **Criticism** of the Ancient Regime, since it was a major threat against happiness and progress. The enlightened thinkers criticised superstition and attacked social inequality and religious intolerance. New moral values based on reason, **science**, and culture should develop.
- **Critical thinking.** To have an independent point of view creates free and educated people. *Sapere Aude* (Dare to know) was the motto of the Enlightenment used by **Emmanuel Kant** in his famous essay “*What is Enlightenment?*”.
- Traditional religious beliefs were strongly criticised and a **new type of natural religion** developed: **deism**. Its main principle based on the fact that God created the Universe and it works according to scientific laws. In some cases the deism evolved into atheism or agnosticism.
- Science played a leading role. Enlightenment science greatly valued empiricism and rational thought, and was embedded with the Enlightenment ideal of advancement and progress. At the time, science was dominated by scientific societies and academies, which had largely replaced universities as centers of scientific research and development. The century saw significant advancements in the practice of medicine, mathematics, and physics; the development of biological taxonomy; a new understanding of magnetism and electricity; and the maturation of chemistry as a discipline, which established the foundations of modern chemistry.

Some precedents of these ideas can be found in **John Locke**. He was an English thinker that took part in the *Glorious Revolution* (1688). His main ideas can be found in his *Two Treatises of Government* (1689). He defended the division of powers into legislative and executive, which should never be held by the same person. The power must not be absolute and it must respect the natural rights of human beings (life, freedom, and private property). He is considered the father of liberalism. Besides, **Isaac Newton** was an English scientist who created the scientific method, based on observing and checking facts. He enunciated the *Law of Universal Gravitation*.

There were several **MEANS THROUGH WHICH THE ENLIGHTENMENT GREW**:

- **Salons.** They were meetings in private where intellectuals gathered in order to exchange social and cultural ideas. Some of them were ruled by **women**, such as Madame Stael, who was Necker’s daughter (Necker was Louis XVI finance minister) Though still limiting, salons forged the way for women's rights and leadership in the arts and sciences.

- **Media.** New newspapers, magazines or printed pamphlets became essential means to spread the ideas of Enlightenment to other places.



- **The Encyclopaedia.** It was a collective work directed by Diderot and D'Alembert and published between 1751 and 1772. It was a compendium of the knowledge of that time, where the most important thinkers took part, as Voltaire, Rousseau, Quesnay, or Turgot. It is composed of 17 volumes of text and 8 of images. It constituted a revolution in the new ideas and was the main means to spread the new enlightened mentality. *“In its skepticism, its emphasis on scientific determinism, and its criticism of the abuses perpetrated by contemporary legal, judicial, and clerical institutions, the Encyclopédie had widespread influence as an expression of progressive thought and served in effect as an intellectual prologue to the French Revolution”* (www.britannica.com)

Some of the **MAIN ENLIGHTENED THINKERS** during the 18th century were:

Diderot and **D'Alembert**, as editors of the Encyclopaedia.

Holbach, who was one of the first atheist thinkers and defended that religion was caused by human ignorance.

Montesquieu, French nobleman based on John Locke's ideas and on the English political model in which the parliament had controlled the royal acts since the Glorious revolution (1688). His main political treatise was *The spirit of laws* (1748). He defended the division of powers: legislative, executive, and judicial. They should be never held by the same person in order to represent the whole society. All the powers should have the same importance, but the legislative should prevail over the others since it was the assembly that represented the nation.

Voltaire. He was another French intellectual, he inspired the Enlightened despotism since he understood that the monarchs should be advised by intellectuals, who should lead the national politics. He also attacked the privileges noblemen enjoyed, defended the role of education, as well as industry and an agricultural revolution. He opposed the religious fanaticism and defended the religious tolerance and universal moral. Voltaire also admired the English parliamentary monarchy. He was really influential in the European courts since he was quite moderate. He had very important links with the Russian tsarina Catherine II, with whom he exchanged many letters.

Jean- Jacques Rousseau.

This Franco-Swiss thinker did not belong to the nobility and was quite more radical than the former ones: His main work is *On the Social Contract* (1762), where he defended that sovereignty resides in the people. Hence, the government must follow their will, if not it can be ousted from the power by the people. It is the concept of general will and national sovereignty. He was the thinker who had more influence on the coming American Revolution and French Revolution, as well as on the 19th-century democratic ideas. He was also concerned about education, as can be seen in his book *Emile*, which served as the inspiration for new national system of education during the French Revolution.

The **LEGACY OF THE ENLIGHTENMENT** has been of enormous consequence for the modern world. The general decline of the church, the growth of secular humanism and political and economic liberalism, the belief in progress, and the development of science are among its fruits. Its political thought developed by Thomas Hobbes (1588-1679), John Locke (1632-1704), Voltaire (1694-1778) and Rousseau (1712-1788) created the modern world. It helped create the intellectual framework for the American Revolutionary War and the French Revolution. However, the influence of these ideas was limited as most of the population was illiterate. The Enlightenment just affected intellectual elites and its thinkers were a minority.

Besides, with the exception of Rousseau, the Enlightenment thinkers were far from being considered revolutionaries, although their criticism to the Ancient Regime and some of the principles they supported, such as freedom, natural rights, religious tolerance, separation of powers, national sovereignty... would be essential in the following century.



ACTIVITIES 5,6

TOPIC 3: THE 18 TH CENTURY: THE TRANSFORMATION OF THE ANCIENT REGIME. THE ENLIGHTENED DESPOTISM

As a result of the new intellectual spirit, many transformations affected the Ancient Regime during the 18th century.

3.1. Political transformations: the Enlightened despotism.

This new form of government was developed in some European countries in the 18th century. These monarchies tried to adapt its former absolutist principles into the new enlightened ideas due to the many intellectuals that criticised them.

The enlightened despotism **tried to reconcile absolutism and Enlightenment**, where the monarch had all the powers, but the new main royal target was to develop **progress and well-being** of the national subjects (*everything for the people, but without the people*).

The enlightened despots carried out several types of **reforms** in order to get their subjects' happiness.

- Political measures:
 - Centralised governments to consolidate their powers.
 - important reforms in the national administration.
 - important corps of civil servants that applied these principles.
 - Unification of the legal system
 - Modernisation of the army
- Social measures:
 - measures in order to abolish servitude and to reduce the privileges of nobility.
- Economic measures:
 - Agriculture, industry, and trade were often promoted.
 - New lands were colonised to be farmed and irrigation grew
 - National banks were also created.

- Cultural measures:
 - Education developed by the creation of schools and academies.
 - Some new institutions were created to promote the scientific developments.
- Religious measures:
 - There was more religious tolerance.
 - It limited the powers of the clergy and Papacy.

The main enlightened monarchs were **Joseph II and Maria Theresa of Austria**, **Catherine II** of Russia, **Friedrich II** of Prussia, **Joseph I** of Portugal, and **Charles III** of Spain. These monarchs were often advised by major intellectuals, such as Voltaire (in Russia), the marquis of Pombal (in Portugal), or Jovellanos (in Spain).

However, this type of government did not succeed because it maintained all the privileges and did not guarantee equality and freedom of the subjects, and will be soon replaced by the unsatisfied bourgeoisie during the era of revolutions.



ACTIVITY 7,8

3.2- International conflicts: the European balance.

During the 18th century there was a balance of powers in Europe since no nation enjoyed the supreme power. The main European powers of the century were Great Britain, France, Austria, and Prussia (Spain became a middle power in Europe).



None the less there were some conflicts in that time:

- **War of the Austrian Succession** (1740-1748), that ended up with Maria Therese as empress of the Holy Roman Empire.

- **Seven Years' War (1756-1763).** It was a colonial war between Great Britain and France and their allies that also affected America and India. The main objective of France and Great Britain was to get the control over North America and India. The signing of the Treaty of Paris (1763) was the end of the war.
 - Great Britain obtained Canada and its Indian colonies from France, and Florida from Spain.
 - Spain received Louisiana from France.

This treaty meant the **French decline and the expansion of Great Britain.**

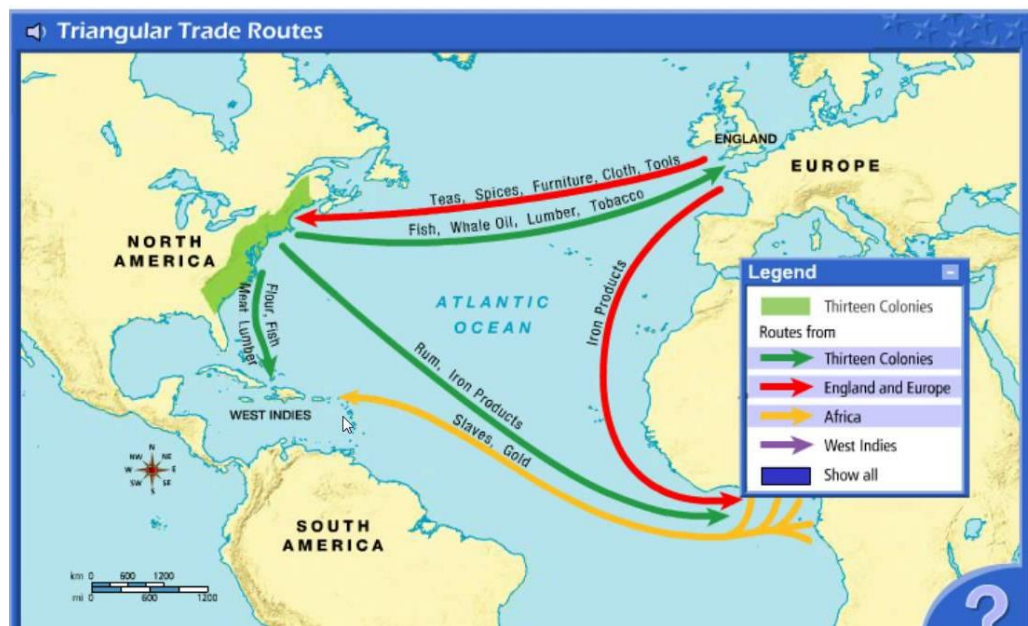
- **Partitions of Poland.** Between 1772 and 1795 Poland was split and shared up by its neighbouring countries Russia, Prussia, and Austria, Poland disappeared and would not exist as an independent state until the end of World War I (1918).
- **Spanish War of Succession (1700-1714)** (SEE topic 4: SPAIN DURING THE 18TH CENTURY)-



ACTIVITY 9

3.3 The transformation of the Ancient Regime: economic and social changes.

- **AGRICULTURE:** production increased due to new crops, repopulation of uninhabited areas and crop rotation. As a result, population grew and there was an increase in productivity.
- **INDUSTRY** was developed thanks to the domestic system (textile). Besides, monarchs promoted royal factories, like Carlos III in Spain (*see Bourbon reformism*). They mostly produced luxury goods such as crystal lamps, cloth, tapestries, silk, china, or clocks.
- **INTERNAL TRADE** increased due to the bigger agricultural and artisan production. Transport was facilitated as new canals and roads were built. Additionally, many internal customs were done away with.
- **EXTERNAL TRADE** increased between Europe, Africa and American colonies (the “**triangular trade**”). Europe exported manufactured goods whilst it imported raw materials (precious metals, plantation products...) and slaves from Africa and the colonies.



International trade allowed the creation of banks and stock exchange market, which were the origin of modern capitalism.

- **NEW ECONOMIC POLICIES** emerged: Physiocracy and Liberalism. Physiocrats (**Quesnay**) considered agriculture to be the most important economic activity, and supported private property and free trade. Hence, they were against any intervention of the State in the economy. So were the liberals. Economic liberalism was mostly theorised by the Scots **Adam Smith** in his book *The wealth of nations* (1776), adding that production and prices must only be regulated by supply and demand.
- As for **SOCIAL CHANGES**, during the 18th century population grew steadily from 110 million in 1700 up to 190 million in 1800. This growth was mostly due to scientific advances, improvements in nutrition and hygiene and the reduction of epidemics thanks to the discovery of the first vaccine (it was discovered by Jenner in 1796 to fight against smallpox) or the use of quinine to fight malaria. European society still based on the estate system but there were some little changes:
 - Nobility and clergy were strongly criticised by the enlightened thinkers due to their power and influence;
 - Some ecclesiastical privileges were reduced by the enlightened despots
 - some of their lands were seized;
 - the number of convents and religious orders were reduced.
 - Some taxes were imposed to the clergy.
 - A new powerful middle class grew: the bourgeoisie. It was very wealthy and was very influenced by the enlightened ideas. Hence, they attacked the power of nobility and clergy.
 - The peasants' living conditions did not improve, although some of them got more money thanks to the domestic system.



ACTIVITIES 10,11

TOPIC 4: THE 18TH CENTURY IN SPAIN: *War of Succession-political, economic and social reforms, cultural achievements.*

3.1.- The War of Succession and the arrival of the Bourbon dynasty

The House of Austria ended with the king Charles II (1665-1700): He had married Marie Louise d'Orléans and Maria Anna of Neuburg, but he had no children.

o Charles II had to appoint his successor among some candidates from other European courts: Joseph Ferdinand of Bavaria, Archduke Charles of Austria, son of the emperor of the Holy Roman Empire and part of the Habsburg family, and Philip of Bourbon, Duke d'Anjou, Louis XIV's grandson. Charles II wrote his will on 3 October 1700 and named Philip d'Anjou his successor. The king Charles II died on 1 November 1700 and Philip V was proclaimed as the new king of Spain.

The European courts did not accept the crowning of Philip V since it was to create a strong Franco-Spanish alliance. Hence **the War of the Spanish Succession (1701-1713)** broke out. It was a war with a double component, since it was a civil war within Spain and an international war in the rest of Europe: The new king Philip V was supported by Castile,

France, and Bavaria. The claimant Archduke Charles of Austria was supported by the Crown of Aragon, Austria, Great Britain, the Netherlands, Portugal, Prussia, and Savoy.

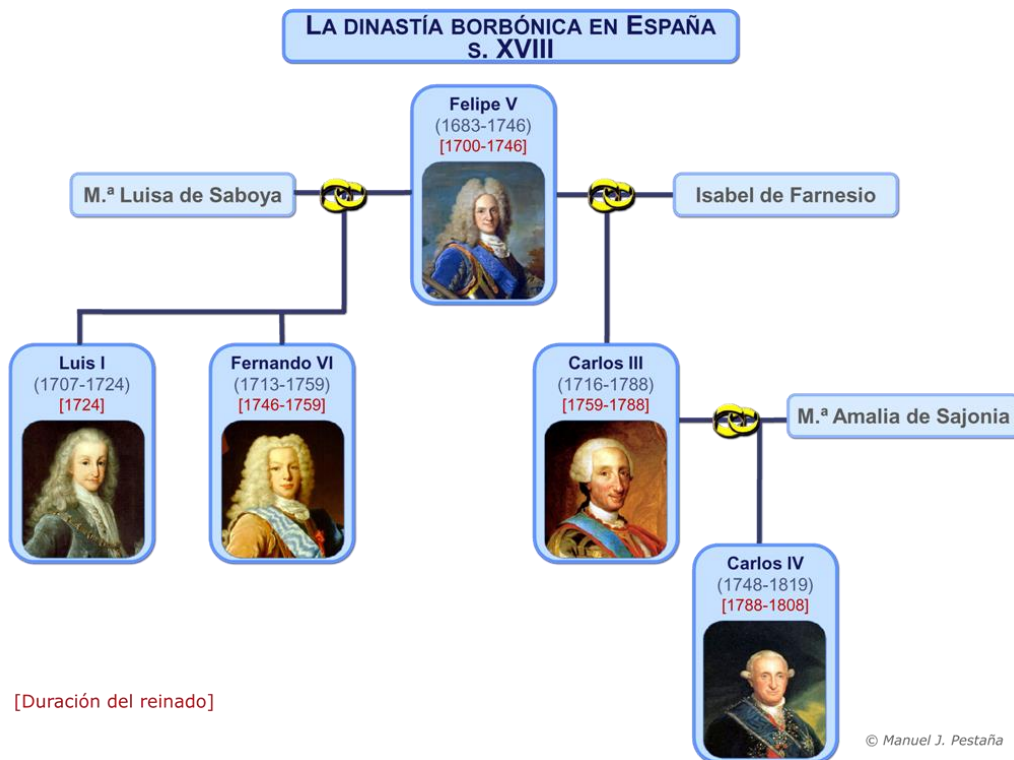
The Archduke arrived in Barcelona and self-proclaimed as the new king Charles III and managed to conquer territories in Spain. His British allies conquered Gibraltar in 1704. The battles of Brihuega and Villaviciosa (1710) meant Philip V's final victory in Spain and the Archduke was expelled. Only Catalonia fought for the Archduke until 1714. When Charles' brother (Emperor Joseph I of Germany) died in 1711, his international allies did not support him any longer because they were afraid of a new Spanish-German axis. The **Treaty of Utrecht-Rastatt** was signed in 1713-1714 and ended the War of the Spanish Succession.

- Philip V was recognised by the European monarchs as the new king of Spain, but he had to renounce his rights to the French throne .
- Great Britain also obtained the concession to trade and to the slave-trading contract (Asiento contract) in the Spanish Indies. .
- Spain lost its European possessions and ceded them to other powers:
 - Gibraltar and Minorca were given to Great Britain.
 - Naples, Sardinia, Milan, the State of Presidi (on the Tuscan coast) and the Low Countries were given to Austria.
 - Sicily was given to Savoy (in 1720 Savoy and Austria exchanged Sicily and Sardinia).



ACTIVITY 12

The Bourbon monarchs that reigned in Spain during the 18th century were: **Philip V** (1700-1724), who was the first Bourbon king and abdicated in favour of his eldest son. **Louis I** (1724), who died just after a short 7-month reign. **Philip V** (1724-1746). He returned after his son's death. **Ferdinand VI** (1746-1759). It was a peaceful period where reforms were accomplished. **Charles III** (1759-1788). He was the king of Naples until he was crowned in Spain. The main reforms were carried out during his reign. **Charles IV** (1788-1808). His reign was not very successful and he abdicated after the Motín de Aranjuez in favour of his son Ferdinand VII.



4.2.- The Bourbon reformism: political reforms

Once the Bourbons arrived in Spain they established a new state based on the French model of a centralised state and an absolute monarchy: The **centralisation** was achieved by developing a progressive **castilianisation** and by doing away with most of the chartered privileges (*fueros*) some of the kingdoms had enjoyed: *The Decretos de Nueva Planta* (→ [SEE TEXT HERE](#)) were passed for several kingdoms: in 1707 after the battle of Almansa and they abolished the Aragonese and Valencian charters. From then on they had to abide by the Castilian laws. New Nueva Planta decrees were passed in 1715 in Mallorca and Catalonia. Just the Basque Provinces and Navarre kept their chartered privileges (actually they still do).

Not only was a process of **castilianisation** accomplished in judicial matters, but also on linguistics, since the other Spanish languages were not permitted.

All the Cortes were consolidated into just one for the whole kingdom: the *Cortes Generales del Reino*.

Spain was divided into provinces where an intendant represented the king and governed on his behalf. The monarchs developed **absolutism** in Spain by concentrating all the powers and by intervening in every national aspect. They summoned the Cortes as little as they could. They passed laws, fixed taxes, and even controlled religious matters.

...economic reforms

- In **agriculture** new American crops were introduced, such as maize and potatoes, which became the staple diet in many areas. There were many more farming lands. Some areas were colonised, such as Sierra Morena during the king Charles III's reign. The Mesta had some of its privileges reduced.

- **Industry** was modernised and manufacturing grew. The Royal Manufactories (Rales Fábricas) were created, such as La Granja (crystal), El Buen Retiro (china), Santa Bárbara (tapestries), Brihuega (woollen cloths), Talavera de la Reina (silk), or Toledo and La Cavada (weapons)
- **Trade** grew because of many improvements that were accomplished in transport and due to new laws; bridges and roads were built, widened and paved. A radial network of roads was created from Madrid and the most important areas of the periphery (it is the origin of the current radial motorways). Ports were renewed to allow more goods. Internal customs disappeared. Hence no customs duties should be paid to trade with the former kingdoms of the Hispanic Monarchy. **External trade** developed after the decree that established the freedom of trade with the American colonies from every peninsular port (1778). Therefore it finished with the monopoly that Cádiz had had since the House of Trade (Casa de Contratación) had been moved there from Seville in 1717.
- **Taxes** were unified and rationalised. The first large-scale census (catastro) was accomplished by the marquis of Ensenada in 1749 (*Catastro de Ensenada*) in order to know the actual wealth of the country by recording the number of estates and neighbours.

...and social reforms

During the 18th century Spain developed and grew from 7.5 million inhabitants up to 10.5 million.

Esquilache, Charles III's minister, passed an act that prohibited the use of the traditional long cloaks and wide-brimmed hats in order to prevent riots. It would be compulsory to use a short cloak and a three-cornered hat that could not hide either criminals or weapons. These measures caused the Esquilache riots ([*Motín de Esquilache*](#)) (1766). Hence this minister was dismissed and his law was not enforced.

There were some other **religious reforms**: The power of the Inquisition was reduced and some of its functions were given to civil tribunals. The Jesuits were expelled from Spain and its colonies in 1767 since they had a lot of power. They were blamed for causing the Esquilache riots. They were also considered to be against the reforms that were carried out by the monarchs



ACTIVITIES 13, 14

4.3.- Spanish international policy

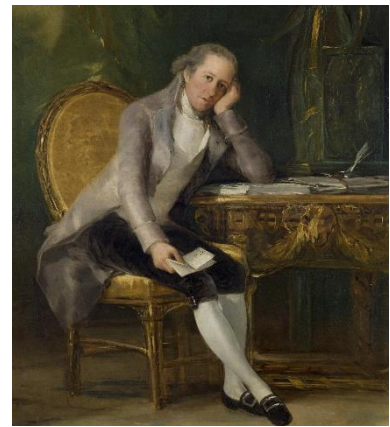
The main target of the Spanish international policy was to re-take over those possessions that had been yielded in the Treaty of Utrecht-Rastatt, mostly the Italian ones. In order to accomplish that task, Spain allied with France due to dynastic reasons and they signed the **Pactes de Famille** (1733-1761). Additionally, during the American Revolutionary War (1775-1783) Spain allied with France and the Americans in order to fight Great Britain. In

the Treaty of Versailles (1763) Spain recovered from Great Britain Minorca, Florida, and some other Central American territories.

4.4.- Enlightenment in Spain. Cultural achievements

The Enlightenment just affected some elite groups and the most important enlightened period took place under Charles III's reign. New societies known as **Sociedades Económicas de Amigos del País** were founded across Spain in order to promote innovations in their regions and they became the main Spanish intellectual and economic focuses. New schools were opened and the Universities were reformed in order to teach the useful sciences according to the enlightened authors (mathematics, physics and chemistry). The monarchs also created **Royal Academies** for some specific matters such as the *Real Academia de la Lengua Española* (1713), *Real Academia de la Historia* (1735), *Real Academia Médica Matritense* (1734), and *Real Academia de Bellas Artes de San Fernando* (1752) Some new public spaces were opened for leisure and research, such as the *Royal Botanic Garden* in Madrid. The Spanish enlightened authors understood that the decline of Spain was caused by the old-fashioned social order and the economic backwardness.

The main representatives of the Spanish Enlightenment are: Writers like father **Feijóo** and Gaspar Melchor de **Jovellanos** (who was also a politician). Politicians such as the Marquis of **Ensenada**, Count of **Aranda**, Count of **Floridablanca**, and **Campomanes**.



ACTIVITIES 15

TOPIC 5: ART DURING THE 18TH CENTURY

5.1.- Rococo

In the first half of the 18th century a new artistic style emerged in **France**. Rococo was a refined and aristocratic style. Interiors were overdecorated with mirrors, irregular shapes, seashells and floral elements. In French, these decorative elements are called “rocaille”. It can be widely found in many Austrian and German royal palaces, In Spain the best example is the [Gasparini Salon](#) in the Royal Palace of Madrid and some rooms in La Granja Palace. **Painting** used pastel to depict mythological themes, rural festivals and domestic scenes. Watercolours are also used in this style. The French **Watteau** and Jean-Honoré **Fragonard** (*The swing*) are the most well-known Rococo painters.

5.2.- Neoclassicism

It was popular in Europe in the 2nd half of the 18th century. It was initiated in France, as a rational and austere style. It followed all the classical principles for art and was quite well accepted by the enlightened thinkers and middle-class people. It was used by Enlightened despots to rearrange and to modernise the cities. They are commonly associated to improvement measures, such as the opening of boulevards, construction of

fountains, creation of sewage systems and installation of street lights. In Madrid the best example is the [Paseo del Prado](#) during Carlos III's reign.

Architecture imitated Greek and Roman models and adopted pure and simple forms. Some examples are the [Pantheon](#) in Paris, the [British Museum](#) in London, the [Brandenburg Gate](#) in Berlin. In Spain, the Puerta de Alcalá by Sabatini, the Prado Museum (see image) by Juan de Villanueva or the Astronomical Observatory.



Sculpture were made of marble and depicted mythological themes or portraits. The most famous sculptor was [Antonio Canova](#).

Painting sought perfection in drawing and lost interest in colour. Its favourites themes were mythological and historical. In France, [Jacques -Louis David](#) stood up as the author of [the Oath of the Horatii](#) (*El juramento de los Horacios*) or [The Intervention of the Sabine Women](#) (*El rapto de las sabinas*). In Spain, the most well-known Neoclassical painter was [Mengs](#).



ACTIVITY 16.

UNIT 2: THE AGE OF REVOLUTION.

Lesson plan

INTROD: THE CONCEPT OF REVOLUTION

1. THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

1.1.- The Thirteen Colonies

1.2.- Causes of the American Revolution

1.3.- The American Revolutionary War

1.4.- The United States of America.

2. THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

2.1.- Causes of the French Revolution

2.2.-From the Estates General to the National Constituent Assembly (1789-91)

2.3.- The Legislative Assembly (1791-92)

2.4.- The Convention (1792-93). The Terror.

2.5.- From the coup of Thermidor to the coup of Brumaire: the Directory (1795-99)

2.6.- From the Consulate to the Empire (1799-1804)

3. EUROPE UNDER NAPOLEON

4. THE RESTORATION.

5. THE LIBERAL REVOLUTIONS OF THE 19TH CENTURY

6. NATIONALISM. THE UNIFICATION OF ITALY AND GERMANY

6.1.- The Italian unification

6.2.- The German unification

7.- CULTURE AND ART. Romanticism.

INTRODUCTION: THE CONCEPT OF REVOLUTION

STARTING POINT:
What is a Revolution?

A revolution is a *radical and long-lasting transformation* of the structure. It involves a change with far-reaching consequences. Unlike a reform, the outcome of a revolution is the establishment of a new and different system.

As the reforms undertaken during the Enlightenment didn't solve the problems of the Ancient Regime, the system came to an end through revolution.

The revolutions that started at the end of the 18th century were the American and the French Revolutions. They were both led by the bourgeoisie, that's why they are known as "bourgeois revolutions" although other groups participated in them and benefited from them as well.

The revolutionary changes brought about the end of the Ancient Regime and affected the political, economic and social level, giving birth to what we call the contemporary Period.

1. THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

STARTING POINT:
What was the situation before 1773?

1.1.-The Thirteen Colonies

The first English colonists arrived in North America in 1607 and created the first colony: Virginia. In the mid-18th century, there were Thirteen Colonies that stretched from the French colony of Quebec and the Spanish colony of Florida. (→see [MAP](#) of the Thirteen Colonies).

1.2.-Causes of the American Revolution

Economic reasons: after the Seven Years' War taxes were raised or new ones were passed:

- Stamp Act (1765)→ all the official documents would be charged with a direct tax by fixing a stamp on them.
- Tea Act (1773). All the tea in the colonies had to be bought exclusively to the British East India Company, which would not pay any customs duties.

The *Boston Tea Party* (1773) showed the American reject to this act by dumping all the tea from the British East India Companies in the harbour of Boston dressed up as Indians. Most of the taxes were rejected by the colonists, who did not pay them.

Political reasons:

- The autonomy that the colonies had always enjoyed was bit by bit reduced by the British Parliament, where there was not any American representative. They invented the slogan *No taxation without representation*.
- Republicanism had grown among Americans, who did not want George III of Britain as their king.

Cultural and ideological reasons:

- The Enlightenment had influenced many American colonists, whose demands based on the enlightened principles: (division and balance of powers, Locke political ideas about the origin of the power, freedom...)



ACTIVITY 1.1 and 1.2

1.3.- American Revolutionary War

Some representatives of the Thirteen Colonies met in the **First Continental Congress** (1774) which was held in Philadelphia.

The American representatives agreed to boycott British products. **The Second Continental Congress (1776)** was also held in Philadelphia and it had important effects: The [VIRGINIA DECLARATION OF RIGHTS](#) (June 1776) and the [DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE](#), (see extracts of **both TEXTS**) which was passed on 4 July 1776. It was drafted by Thomas **Jefferson**: (*everybody was born free and equal, everybody had natural rights, government must count on citizens' approval, which is the basis of national sovereignty*)



ACTIVITY 1.3

The American Revolutionary War broke out in April 1775. It became a civil war, since there were American loyalists (pro-British king) and patriots (pro-American independence).

The loyalists were supported by the British army; the patriots were led by **George Washington**, and had the support of France and Spain. The victories of Saratoga (1777) and Yorktown (1781) involved the surrender of the British army.

1.4.- The United States of America

- The [Treaty of Versailles](#) (1783) signed the end of the war among the adversaries: Great Britain accepted the independence of the United States of America, but kept Canada as a British colony;
- The [American Constitution](#) was passed on 17 September 1787 and was the first one to be written in history:



-It was created a **federal state system**. A federal (central) government has authority over foreign policy, army, and finances.

-It establishes the **division of powers**:

- Legislative. It was composed of a two-Houses Congress whose members were elected in censitary suffrage: Senate and House of the Representatives.
- Executive. It is held by a President, who is elected every four years by the citizens in censitary suffrage.
- Judicial. The Supreme Court is in charge of controlling the conflicts between the federal government and the states. Its members were appointed by the President.

-This Constitution also acknowledges the **rights** to life, liberty and property; the freedom of expression, press, and religion are also principles contained in this Constitution.

-There is **separation** between State and Church.

ACTIVITIES 1.4 AND 1.5

[GEORGE WASHINGTON](#) was elected as the first American President in 1789.



HOW IS THE NEW STATE ORGANISED?

The American Constitution is still in force. However, it has been modified several times, that's what we call **AMENDMENTS**. Since 1787, more than 9,000 amendments to the Constitution have been proposed, but only 27 have been accepted. The first 10 amendments formed the Bill of Rights, which recognizes rights such as freedom of speech, religion, press, the right to bear weapons... Other amendments abolished slavery (1865), gave the right to vote to non-white people (1870), gave women the right to vote (1920). The last amendment was made in 1992.



ACTIVITIES 1.6, 1.7

2.- THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

WHAT IS THE HISTORICAL SIGNIFICANCE OF THE FRENCH REV?

The Revolution that broke out in France in 1789 is considered a landmark in History, so much as to establish the beginning of the Contemporary period. The historical significance of the French Revolution is commonly agreed, as it stated principles that are the pillars of our democratic societies, such as freedom, equality or national sovereignty. It would impact the entire world and become a model for subsequent revolutions.

2.1.- The causes of the French Revolution

There were several causes that led to the outbreak of the French Revolution

Ideological causes: the Enlightenment ideas; the American Revolution was a model of further revolutions and proved that those enlightened ideas could be implemented.

Economic causes: there was a financial crisis due participation in wars and money waste (luxurious habits in the French court). The country was completely exhausted and with very few financial resources, close to declare bankruptcy. Additionally, harvests in the 1780s were really bad and bread prices rose to very high figures. Many riots were caused due to the bread prices. The king was considering to impose new taxes to the privileged estates, advised by his finance ministers (Turgot, Necker).

Social causes: Nobility and clergy did not have as much political importance as before since absolutism had strengthened. They did not want to pay any new tax Louis XVI's ministers wanted to impose. The bourgeoisie did not have any political influence and their economic activity was controlled by the king. Hence, they meant to abolish the absolute monarchy. Peasants and urban workers suffered more and more since taxes were continuously raised. They became the main actors in the French Revolution.

Political causes. The Estates General had not been summoned since 1614, but it was compulsory to hold a meeting in order to raise the taxes to the privileged estates. The voting system in the Estates General gave more importance to the privileged estates, whilst the Third Estate members were almost neglected.

ACTIVITY 2.2

2.2.- From the Estates General to the Legislative Assembly (June 1789- September 1791)

To solve the severe financial crisis of the French monarchy, King Louis XVI summoned the **Estates General** for the first time in 175 years. It consisted on a medieval assembly made up by representatives of the three estates. They had the power to approve new taxes. The three levels of French society, who were able to express their wishes in the *cahiers de doléances* (books of grievances-cuadernos de quejas), sent their representatives to Versailles.

From the beginning, Louis XVI disappointed the members of the third state by denying any reform on society or the monarchy, and ignoring their cahiers de doléances. More precisely, what the Third Estate wanted was the decisions of the general assembly to be voted "per person" (one member, one vote) and not by order (order = one vote). They called themselves **National Assembly**.



The tennis court oath → [VIDEO](#)

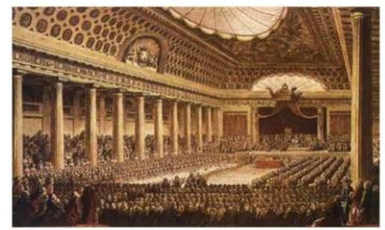
The king finally agreed to the National Assembly's demands. The 9th July is the birth of the **Constituent Assembly**, as the National Assembly decided to write a constitution. However, people were afraid of the king's actions against the new institution.

The **Storming of the Bastille** on 14 July 1789 showed that the new Assembly had the people's support. The Bastille was attacked in order to get weapons to defend the Assembly from the king's actions. It was the symbol of the absolute monarchy since it was a political prison (just 7 inmates were housed in that prison at the moment of the storming). More riots broke out in the countryside and other cities around France, this is called the **Great Fear** (*La Grande Peur*).

To restore calm in the kingdom, the National Assembly implemented a number of legal reforms.

- They abolished feudal rights of nobles and clergy, on the 4 August 1789.
- They approved the **DECLARATION OF RIGHTS OF MAN AND CITIZEN**, on the 26 August 1789. *Every man has natural rights: property, freedom, and safety. There was freedom of opinion. The division of powers was present in this declaration. It also declared the national sovereignty.* (→**READ TEXT**)

MEETING OF THE ESTATES-GENERAL (May 1789)



The representatives of the Third Estate demanded **double representation, collective discussions and per-person voting**. The king accepted the double representation, but he didn't accept the vote per person. Protests went on and the king closed the Estates-General.



These decisions put an end to the Old Regime, but the king was still reluctant to put them into force. In October 1789, the people of Paris (mainly women) marched towards Versailles in order to search for the king and bring him back to Paris.

The Constituent Assembly kept on with more relevant legal reforms:

→All the clergymen became civil servants (**Civil Constitution of the clergy**, 12th July 1790). The Civil Constitution reduced the number of bishops and archbishops, made the clergy paid employees of the government and required all members of the clergy to swear an oath of loyalty to the nation, becoming one of the new regime's most controversial, disruptive and divisive measures. It created more dissent and fuelled more opposition than any other revolutionary policy, dividing the clergy into *jurors*, who swore to obey this constitution, and *non-jurors*, who did not accept to swear it);

→They also established standards for weights and measures, replacing the 100 ways to measure land that had existed before the Revolution. Following the Académie Française recommendations, a new system was approved based on mathematics, geometry and physics, creating new units of measurement : metres (measurement in French), litres and grams. Prefixes derived from Greek – deci, centi, milli, deca, hecto, kilo – would be used to indicate divisions or multiples of these units.

→Other measures were the abolition of guilds and a new territorial division (departments).

Louis XVI did not accept all this changes and prepared to flee with his family to Austrian territories . He is discovered and arrested at Varennes (21 June 1791). *The flight to Varennes* is the definite rupture between the king and the people. It means the failure of the constitutional monarchy.

The **Constitution** was finally passed on 3 September 1791 and a new liberal system was imposed: division of powers : legislative (the Legislative Assembly); executive (the king , but did not have any sovereignty) ; judicial (the judges, who were elected by the people). Every man with possessions would be able to vote: censitary suffrage. The political regime that the Constitution established was the constitutional monarchy.

2.3.- The Legislative Assembly (1791-92)

After the approval of the Constitution the National Constituent Assembly changes its name for Legislative Assembly, which passed many laws (confiscation of the lands of the Church, abolition of guilds, torture, universal tax system, creation of the national army...)

There were two major groups: both believed in revolution but **Girondins** (*girondinos*) were moderate since they represented the bourgeoisie. They favoured liberal economic policies and the middle class. They were keen on maintain the censitary suffrage.



Jacobins were more radical, they wanted to abolish monarchy and to judge the king, they believed in universal suffrage. Their economic policies were more protectionist since they meant to control prices rises in order to help the lower classes. Their main supporters were the workers of Paris, known as *sans-culottes*, who caused many riots to favour the Jacobins. The main Jacobin leader was **Maximilien de ROBESPIERRE**.

Some nations did not accept the new French situation and **Austria and Prussia declared the war on France in April 1792**. The international defeats caused a major riot **that attacked the Tuileries Palace (10th August 1792)**. The king was imprisoned, the monarchy was abolished and a republic was proclaimed. A new assembly was established: the **National Convention**.

2.4.- The National Convention (1792-95) and the Terror.

The new government was first controlled by the Girondins. They proclaimed the Republic (sept'92) and faced Louis XVI's trial and a foreign invasion. The king was declared guilty with 387 votes for his guilt, and 360 against. He was finally executed by the guillotine on 21 January 1793.

Some people rebelled against the regime and supported the monarchy, the Catholic Church, and the nobility. A counter-revolution broke out in a region in western France called *La Vendée*. The counter-revolutionaries were mainly concerned about the government's treatment of both the king and the Church. (This movement challenged the Convention but will be finally crushed by government troops by 1793).

Popular discontent with war allowed the Jacobins to rise to power (1793). The new government was led by **Maximilien de Robespierre**, who imposed a dictatorship through the powerful **Committee of Public Safety, establishing the so-called Reign of Terror** (September 1793-June 1794). Some of the measures implemented were:

- A Republican Calendar is established to erase every Catholic influence. The year I began with the proclamation of the Republic. The beginning of the year was fixed on the day of the proclamation of the Republic (22 September-1 Vendémiaire).

- laws were passed to judge the possible traitors to the revolution, the so-called counter-revolutionaries. Many people were executed during their government (around 50,000 people), such as Marie Antoinette, Louis XVI's wife and most of the Girondins leaders, as well as some Jacobin leaders, like Danton.

- Political measures: a more democratic **Constitution** was passed in **1793**, where universal suffrage was adopted. Hence, every man could vote in the elections; national sovereignty was transformed into popular sovereignty.

- Economic measures: prices were controlled by the State.

2.5.- From the COUP OF THERMIDOR to the coup of Brumaire: the Directory



Robespierre himself was executed after a coup d'état (*coup of Thermidor*-July'94) and power returned to moderate representatives, who drafted a new Constitution in 1795 where censitary suffrage was imposed again. The new government was called the **Directory**, made up by 5 members in order to prevent a new dictatorship. The Directory fought against radical Jacobins as well as against monarchists. It also launched many military campaigns in Italy, Prussia and Egypt, where general Napoleon Bonaparte became very prestigious. On 9 November 1799 **Napoleon** staged a coup d'état (18 Brumaire coup d'état) which meant the end of the Directory. It was the beginning of the

Consulate, made up of three consuls.



ACTIVITIES 2.1, 2.3, 2.4

2.6.- From Consulate to Empire (1799-1804)

Napoleon soon became First Consul, and consolidated the revolution's conquests.

- He achieved peace within France eliminating radical factions and making the exiled nobility return. He also signed the **Concordat** with the Catholic Church (1801), recognising the Catholic religion. In exchange, the Church accepted not to claim the lands that were seized during the revolution and the priests and clergymen would be paid by the State
- He implemented several internal reforms: the most important one was the **Civil Code** (Napoleonic Code) in 1804. It codified revolutionary achievements: private property, equality under the law, separation of Church and State, economic freedom, protection of property, civil marriage and divorce, education promoted by the State, creation of the Bank of France and a new currency (the franc). To promote himself, many monuments were built in Paris like the hospital of *Les Invalides*, or *L'Arc du Triomphe*.

Due to Napoleon's popularity, he was elected First Consul for life in 1802. Subsequently he was proclaimed emperor in 1804 after a national plebiscite.

→The [coronation of Napoleon](#)



3. EUROPE UNDER NAPOLEON 1799-1814

Napoleon soon created a vast empire under French rule. He became the master of Europe after defeating Austria in Austerlitz (1805) and Prussia in Jena (1807). He created some satellite states in (Italy, Poland) and annexed Belgium and the Illyrian provinces to France and set up alliances (Spain). Great Britain was the only country that resisted, defeating the Franco-Spanish navy in Trafalgar. (1805). Napoleon responded by imposing an economic blockade to the British.

As Portugal didn't respect the blockade, he planned the invasion of Portugal after having signed a treaty with Spain's prime minister Godoy, (treaty of Fontainebleau, 1807), allowing the French troops to occupy the country. The people's opposition to the French occupation led to the Spanish Independence War (1808-14).

By 1812, Napoleon was the master of Europe (SEE [MAP](#))

The invasion of Russia (1812) was his major failure and the beginning of his decline. A coalition was formed (U.K, Austria, Prussia, Russia) and Napoleon was finally defeated in the battle of the Nations in Leipzig (1813). He was exiled to the island of Elba, close to Corsica, but managed to escape and retake the power for 100 days (*the Empire of the 100 Days*). Napoleon was definitely defeated in Waterloo (1815) and sent to exile in Saint Helena, where he died in 1821.

ACTIVITIES 3.1;3.2;3.3.

4.- THE RESTORATION



A new period started in Europe in which some of the powers that had defeated Napoleon tried to restore absolutism. Nevertheless, new ideologies originated in the French Revolution and spread by Napoleon through Europe would finally succeed. These ideologies were Liberalism and Nationalism. The first one will bring about several waves of revolutions during the first half of the 19th century (1820, 1830, 1848), the second one will lead to the birth of two new countries: Italy and Germany in 1870.

The Restoration period started with the meeting of the powers that had defeated Napoleon (UK, Austria, Prussia, Russia) in the **Congress of Vienna** in 1815.

The principles of this new period were:

- **absolutism** :Absolutism was restored in all the countries that were invaded or attacked by Napoleon , as it happened in Spain with Fernando VII. Only Great Britain did not enforce this principle due to its parliamentary monarchy;

- **legitimacy**. Following these principles, they wanted first to restore de Ancient Regime restoring the monarchs that had been deposed by Napoleon. The restored king had to belong to the traditional dynasty of the nation;

- the right to **intervene** in other nations, creating the HOLLY ALLIANCE to prevent any revolution from succeeding again;



- the British contribution to this international situation was the principle of **balance of powers**, by which no nation could be more powerful than the others.

To achieve these objectives, , they redrew the European map establishing new boundaries and forcing France to return to the boundaries of 1791.

ACTIVITIES

4.1,4.2, 4.3



THE LIBERAL REVOLUTIONS OF THE 19TH CENTURY

During the 19th century, the ideas and values of the French Revolution that were spread out by Napoleon succeeded throughout Europe, in spite of the attempts of the absolutism to contain them.

Liberalism defended individual FREEDOM, EQUALITY before the law, NATIONAL SOVEIRIGNTY, SEPARATION OF POWERS, RIGHTS and individual FREEDOMS (speech, association, press, religion...), Written CONSTITUTIONS and limited suffrage that would turn into universal. These ideas gave rise to a new wave of revolutions in 1820, 1830 and 1848.



In **1820** there were liberal revolutions in **Spain** (general Riego forced the king Fernando VII to accept the liberal Constitution of Cádiz), Portugal, some areas of the Italian peninsula and **Greece**, that became independent from the Turks.

In Spain, the three-year period (*Trienio Liberal*) ended up with the intervention of the Holy Alliance (*Los Cien Mil Hijos de san Luis*) who restored Fernando VII in 1823 as an absolute monarch. This absolute decade will be called “*Década Ominosa*” (1823-33) and will last until his death in 1833.

In **1830** the revolution started in **France**, where the absolute king Charles X was replaced by a new king (Louis-Philippe of Orleans), supported by the middle bourgeoisie.

The revolution then spread to **Belgium** (that got its independence from Holland) and **Spain**, where the new queen Isabel II and her mother M^a Cristina had to fight against the Carlists. To do so, M^a Cristina had to get the support of the Liberals against the Carlists who defended the absolutism.

In other parts of Europe the revolutionaries were put down and their achievements limited.



In **1848** the revolutions got a democratic dimension, as the revolutionaries asked for universal (manhood) suffrage and were backed by middle class and the proletariat. This is why this new wave

of revolutions was called “**the springtime of the peoples**” They started in France, where Louis Philippe was deposed and the II Republic was proclaimed. Louis Napoleon Bonaparte was elected president of the Republic, and in 1851 gave a coup d’état. The II Republic ended up and the Second Empire was proclaimed. Louis Napoleon was called Napoleon III. He would have an important role in the unifications of Germany and Italy. Other revolutions occurred in eastern Europe, and serfdom (servitude) was abolished in most of it, with the exception of Russia.



WHAT ARE THE CONSEQUENCES OF THE LIBERAL REVOLUTIONS?

The **outcome of the revolutions** was generally positive, in spite of their limitations. Revolutionary values were consolidated, many countries adopted Liberalism, Constitutions were written, rights and freedoms were enlarged, France adopted universal male suffrage, serfdom was abolished in many countries, the bourgeoisie increased their social and political influence and the

proletariat, although they didn't achieve their goals, got class consciousness, beginning to organise themselves in order to stand up to the bourgeoisie and the liberal State.



ACTIVITY 5.1

5. NATIONALISM. THE UNIFICATION OF ITALY AND GERMANY

STARTING POINT:
What is Nationalism?

Nationalism is an ideology which grew in the 19th century in many European areas. This ideology understood that a nation is a community that shares common cultural elements, such as language, religion, history or folklore. Each of these nations should have their own state, where the boundaries should coincide with those of the nation. Some of the nationalisms that grew in Europe were **integrating**, such as in Germany and in Italy. Instead, many others were **disintegrating** and sought the emancipation from larger empires or states, like in Bohemia, Poland, Hungary, Romania, Greece, Belgium, or Ireland. Nationalism was initially linked with Liberalism, but soon evolved to more conservative positions.

6.1.- The unification of Italy

This process was led by the northern kingdom of the Piedmont-Sardinia and its king **Victor Emmanuel II** and his prime minister **Cavour**, along with the revolutionary southern forces of **Giuseppe Garibaldi**.

The Italian peninsula was divided into seven states, and some of them were under foreign control Austria in the north and the Bourbons in the south.

The first step to the unification of the peninsula was the incorporation of **Lombardy** and the central duchies after defeating Austria in Solferino and Magenta (1859). Napoleon III supported Victor Emmanuel II and got Nice and Savoy in exchange. Meanwhile, Garibaldi and his troops conquered the **south**.



The two armies united and Victor Emmanuel was proclaimed king of Italy in 1861. The next territory was the **Veneto**, annexed in 1866 taking advantage of the recent Austrian defeat against Prussia. The process ended up with the annexation of the Papal States (1870)

6.2.- The unification of Germany.-->[MAP](#)

The German unification was led by Prussia, the most industrialized German state, under the rule of **Wilhelm I** and his chancellor **Otto von Bismarck**. **Prussia** started the unification process with a conflict with Denmark over the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein. After defeating Denmark in 1864, Prussia defeated Austria (1866, battle of Sadowa) and then France in 1870 (battle of Sedan). Napoleon III was captured and Alsace and Lorraine were annexed. The **Second Reich** or German Empire was proclaimed in 1871, in the Hall of the Mirror in Versailles Palace. Germany became the strongest state in Europe and **Bismarck** was the new leader in the European relations-



ACTIVITY 6.1 and 6.2

7.- CULTURE AND ART. Romanticism.

During this revolutionary period, culture was secularised (a lesser degree of religious influence) and more influenced by press and public opinion. Illiteracy was reduced thanks to free public education (primary education) and more women got access to culture.

Science progressed in many fields: natural sciences (Charles Darwin), physics, chemistry, and medicine, bringing about an important demographic growth that will boost the Industrial Revolution.

The dominant artistic style in the first half of the 19th century was Romanticism. It started as a reaction to neoclassicism, as it was inspired by medieval times and promoted creativity, fantasy and the expression of feelings

In architecture there was a revival of older styles: Neo-Gothic, Neo-Romanesque or Neo-Mudéjar.

Sculpture and painting were very dynamic and often represented historical scenes, like the relief “*the Marseillaise*” by **François Rudé**, “*Liberty leading the people*” by **Eugène Delacroix**. Another prominent French painter was **Géricault**, who painted “*The raft of Medusa*” in a very expressive manner.



DELACROIX, Liberty leading the people



GÉRICAUT, The raft of Medusa

In England, the landscape was originally depicted by **John Constable** or **William Turner**, who will be advanced future artistic movements and is considered the precursor of abstract painting



WILLIAM TURNER, Rain, Speed and Steam.

As a reaction to Romanticism, **Realism** will focus in daily issues of common people. It will predominate in the second half of the 19th century.(SEE UNIT “THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION”).

UNIT 3: THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

Lesson plan:

INTRODUCTION.

1.-THE CAUSES OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION. WHY ENGLAND?

2.-KEY INDUSTRIAL SECTORS: TEXTILE, IRON AND STEEL, TRANSPORT

3.-THE SPREAD OF INDUSTRIALISATION.

4.- ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL CONSEQUENCES: WORKING CLASS MOVEMENTS.

5.- ART DURING THE INDUSTRIAL PERIOD

INTRODUCTION: THE CONCEPT OF “INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION”

The Industrial Revolution refers to a long process of deep economic and social transformations that started in England and spread to Western Europe and the world through different waves.

It is one of the sides of the “double revolution” that shaped the Western world in a new way, making up the Contemporary period: the political revolutions and the economic revolution, both led by the emerging class, the bourgeoisie.

The First Industrial Revolution started in England in the end of the 18th century and soon expanded to Europe and North America throughout the 19th century. In the last third of the 19th century a new period of industrialisation began, called the Second Industrial Revolution, affecting more countries, such as Japan. There is also a Third I. R. in the 20th century, so it can be considered an ongoing process, slow and constant.

1. THE CAUSES OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION IN ENGLAND.

The I. R began in Great Britain due to a combination of factors:

- The **demographic revolution** caused by the decrease in mortality, which was driven by improvements in nutrition, hygiene and medicine. As birth rate remained high, the consequence was a great population growth. Consequently, demand in food and manufactured goods increased. There was also a surplus work-force in the countryside that will encourage the rural exodus (migration to cities).
- The **agricultural revolution** refers to the technical innovations and changes in the property ownership that were introduced in Great Britain, bringing about an increase in both production and productivity.
 - Triennial rotation (where the land was divided into three parts and one of them was left in *fallow (barbecho)*) was substituted by *four-crop rotation system (Norfolk system)*, where they rotated wheat, turnips, oats or barley and crops for grazing (normally clover). There was not more fallow land.
 - **New crops** were introduced, such as maize and potato.
 - Use of **fertilisers** and pesticides
 - Common lands were turned into private lands due to the Enclosure Acts. The **enclosures** provided more land to be cultivated, reinforced private property but poor peasants were forced to emigrate, as they were deprived of common lands that had provided them with resources (wood, fruits...). Agricultural income increased and profits were invested in the rising industry.
 - **Technical innovations** were applied to both industry and agriculture.
 - **Steam** was one of the main inventions since it was mostly applied to every industrial sector: textile, iron and steel, transport...It replaced water as the main source of energy for industry. **James Watt** perfected the steam machine made by Thomas Newcomen and invented the first **steam machine** in 1769, which could be applied in most of the industrial sectors: mining, textile, agriculture and transport.

- A **favoured political and social structure** enabled these changes in Great Britain, as the parliamentary monarchy backed the landowners' interests, promoting measures that enhanced private property and free trade (*enclosures acts*, for example).
- The **growth of financial means**, as agriculture and commerce provided profits that were used to finance prosperous industrial sectors (mining, steel and textile).

ACTIVITY 1

2.- KEY INDUSTRIAL SECTORS

2.1.- THE TEXTILE INDUSTRY

Many inventions*** were used for weaving, providing more and better fabric and using cotton coming from India as the main raw material.

The first one was the Flying Shuttle (*lanzadera volante*) invented by John Kay in 1733, followed by the Power Loom by Cartwright (1785), the Spinning Jenny (1764) by Hargreaves and the Water Frame invented by Richard Arkwright (1769) which was a mechanic spinning machine, it did not need a person to spin in order to get the thread. The Mule Jenny (1774) was invented by Samuel Crompton to improve the existent spinning machines. It is a hybrid of Hargreaves' spinning Jenny and Arkwright's water frame. Finally, water was replaced by steam as a new source of energy with the Steam mule Jenny (1785) by Matthew Boulton.



...y (1764) provided more thread thanks to its many spindles

2.2.- THE IRON INDUSTRY.

Before the I.R, iron was melted in ovens, using wood and manual or hydraulic bellows (*fuelles*), so the production was limited. Wood was replaced by coal (initially charcoal -*carbón vegetal*- and afterwards coal -*carbón mineral*-) fuel. Higher temperatures were obtained with this new fuel. Metal quality was much better thanks to the higher temperatures.

Blast furnaces (*altos hornos*) were invented to get more temperature and better metal. New machines were created in order to inject air into the furnace and to make them more productive. Henry Colt invented puddling (*pudelado*) and rolling (*laminado*) in 1784, which were systems that managed to make a more resistant type of iron.

The **steam engine** was also introduced into iron and steel industry to make this process quicker. As a result of these innovations, quality and productivity increased in British iron and steel industry.

2.3.- TRANSPORT

The steam engine was soon applied in transport, leading to the creation of the **steamboat** (ROBERT FULTON, 1807). The steamboat involved the improvement and updating of most of the world's harbours. Additionally, the **locomotive** (STEPHENSON, 1829), brought about the development of the railway. The first passenger line was the Manchester-Liverpool line. The railway opened markets in the countries and stimulated other industries (such as iron and steel...).

3.- THE SPREAD OF THE INDUSTRIALISATION (see [MAP](#))

After UK, the first countries to industrialise were **Belgium** and **France**, then **Switzerland** and **Prussia** thanks to its natural resources (coal mines in the regions of the Rhur, Saarland (*region del Sarre*) and Upper Silesia. After its unification, **Germany** will become the greatest industrial power in the continent after Britain.

The **USA's** industry developed a lot after the Civil War (1861-65).

The lack of natural resources, little demand or investment delayed the industrialisation of the Southern European countries (**Portugal, Spain or Greece**) or the Eastern countries (**Austria-Hungary or Russia**).

Japan started a quick industrialisation process after the *Meiji Revolution*, in 1868. It will soon become a great economic power in Asia.

4.- ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL CONSEQUENCES

4.1.- ECONOMIC CONSEQUENCES

Domestic and foreign trade benefited from the development of the means of transport and the increase of demand. A new stage of Capitalism was born: the industrial capitalism which soon replaced the previous commercial Capitalism. Industrial Capitalism aimed to produce profits that could be reinvested. The concentration of capital led to the creation of large banks, which gave credits to the companies. The banks also invested in businesses and in the growing stock market (*la Bolsa o el Mercado de valores*), in which shares (*acciones*) were bought and sold. After some time, the industrial capitalism led to the financial capitalism, based on gaining profits by buying and selling shares, financial products...

This economic system was supported by the ideas of **Adam Smith**, "father" of economic Liberalism, based on free competition, free trade and no-intervention of the State in the economy, as it defended that economy depended on supply and demand.

4.2.- SOCIAL CONSEQUENCES: LABOUR CLASS MOVEMENTS.

The Industrial Revolution was part of the "double revolution" that led to the birth of the class system, where social differences were based on personal merit, measured by wealth. The bourgeoisie was empowered by economic and political power. Upper bourgeoisie's wealth came from manufacturing, businesses, banks, speculation and agricultural exploitation. Petite bourgeoisie or middle class was made up of small merchants, civil servants and members of liberal professions (doctors, lawyers...).

The working class or proletariat was made up of people who moved from the countryside to the cities to work in the factories. Both living and working conditions were harsh: they lived in buildings with poor sanitation: no ventilation or hygienic conditions and frequent illnesses.

In the factories they worked up to 16 hours with low wages and no protection or no right to go on strike. Women and children worked and received lower wages.

This situation encouraged the proletariat to organise themselves and fight for their rights.

The first response was the destruction of the machines, (**Luddisme**) as they were seen as the origin of their situation. They also created **friendly societies** giving financial help to workers in need. Afterwards, they started to fight to improve their working conditions creating **tradeunions** (*sindicatos*) demanding better wages, accident insurance, right of strike and association.... Finally, they fought for their political rights with the **Chartism**. This term comes from the *People's Chart*, a document that was sent to the Parliament (1838) demanding political issues, such as secret ballots and universal male suffrage.

The working conditions started to improve slowly thanks to the *Factory Acts****, which limited children's work in the underground or at night, imposing a minimum age to work in factories and mines. However, many working parents were desperate for money and lied about their children's age. As a result, these laws were very difficult to enforce.

Soon the labour movement developed **left-wing ideologies** aiming for a social change. They didn't just asked for an improvement in social conditions but attacked Capitalism and the class-based society, offering an alternative system. Initially, the **utopian socialism***** defended some principles that will after be developed by Marxism and anarchism, but were still far from revolution. Some of these utopian socialists were **Robert Owen,, Henri de Saint-Simon,, Charles Fourier, or Proudhon**.

The next step would be Marxism and Anarchism, two revolutionary ideologies that strongly criticised Capitalism, the class-based society, the bourgeoisie and private property.

Marxism also called scientific socialism, was theorised by **Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels** after publishing their main treatises: *The Communist Manifesto* (1848) and *The Capital* (1864). Their philosophy (the dialectic materialism) explained the human relations throughout history based on **class struggle** (*lucha de clases*) between the owners of the means of production and the workers. According to Marx, the struggle between the bourgeoisie and the proletariat would lead to the **dictatorship of the proletariat**, meaning that the proletariat would lead a revolution and get the power from the bourgeoisie's hands in order to establish a new society with no classes, no private property and no State, where everyone would be equal. As a transitory step, the dictatorship of the proletariat will need first to reinforce the State, implementing common ownership, regulating the production and the working conditions. It had to be led by the workers.

Soon many political parties were founded with these principles, such as the SPD or Social Democratic Workers Party in Germany (1875) or the PSOE in Spain (1879).

KARL MARX



MIKHAIL BAKUNIN

Anarchism was inspired in Proudhon's ideas and developed by **Mijail Bakunin** and Kropotkin as an ideology that defended **individual freedom**. Consequently, it rejected any kind of authority (the state, the Church, the army...). They proposed a new society with no institutions, formed by agrarian communes where all the decisions would be taken by popular assemblies and where profits would be shared by all the members. It also rejected political parties, advocating for abstention in the elections as soon as universal male suffrage allowed workers to vote. Hence, there were no anarchist political parties. However, the lack of organisation led to an original solution, the anarco-sindicalism. In Spain, the CNT (Confederación Nacional de Trabajadores) was founded in 1910, bringing about a revival of a movement that had been almost eliminated through repression in the previous years

To some extent, Anarchism stood up for direct action, meaning through violence or even terrorism, although the term Anarchism is so large that involves a great diversity.

The desire to join all the workers' movements against Capitalism gave rise to the **International Workers' Association (IWA)** – *Asociación Internacional de Trabajadores* o AIT- founded in London in 1864. It was also known as the First International. Despite their common interest in most of the objectives, disputes between marxists and anarchists. Marx and Bakunin did not agree in several concepts: history, the leaders of the revolution, and the political results of that revolution. The International was disbanded in the International Convention of Philadelphia (1876) due to those internal disputes and the blaming of causing the **revolution of Paris in 1870*** (the Commune)**.

A **Second International** only attended by socialists met in Paris in 1889 and lasted until the outbreak of World War I in 1914. They initiated the 8-hour working day campaign. In 1889 they elected 1 May as the day to claim for the workers' rights (International Workers' Day). In 1910 they also fixed 8 March as the International Women's Day.

5.- ART DURING THE INDUSTRIAL PERIOD

The artistic movement that expressed its concern for the working class situation was **Realism**. Painters represented peasants' daily life (**François Millet**, *The Angelus*), the harsh reality of workers (Gustave **Courbet** in *The Stone Breakers* or **Honoré Daumier** in the *Third-Class Carriage*)

In architecture, technical progress enabled masterpieces as the **Crystal palace** in London or the **Eiffel Tower** in Paris, focusing in the possibilities of new materials like glass or iron . Both were made during the Great Exhibition in London (1851) and Paris (1889).

ACTIVITIES

INTRODUCTION

Activity 1: Provide a definition of the term “Industrial Revolution “ completing the diagram in the ppt (“W” questions).

TOPIC 1: CAUSES OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

Activity 2: Make a diagram about the causes and consequences of the demographic revolution.

Activity 3: Make a diagram about the innovations that made the agrarian revolution possible (causes and consequences).

Activity 4: define: *enclosures*, *Norfolk system*

Activity 5: Make a complete mind map with all the causes of the industrial Revolution IN A COMPLETE WORKSHEET.

Activity 6 “England, the cradle of the I.R”: mention/explain the conditions that brought about the Ind. Rev in England in a well structured paragraph. Start with an introduction and end with a strong conclusion advancing further developments in England that stem from industrialisation (key term: colonial empire). In addition to the unit, research about the topic (focus on one question: *why England?*)

TOPIC 2: KEY SECTORS

Activity 7: List 3 consequences of technological innovations in the **textile sector**

Activity 8: What is the significance of the **iron and steel** innovations? List the economic activities that were benefited by these innovations.

TOPIC 3: THE SPREAD OF INDUSTRIALISATION

Activity 10: What countries were first industrialised? Which one were delayed in terms of industrialisation? Why?

Activity 11: Research about Spain industrialisation: areas, sectors, factors that hindered or delayed industrialisation. Represent this subtopic in a diagram.

TOPIC 4: ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL CONSEQUENCES OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

Activity 12: Define economic liberalism and Capitalism, and explain how these 2 terms differ.

Activity 13: Make an outline of the labour movement:

-working class living conditions...

-working class working conditions...

-Responses:

1.....

2.....

3.....

4 Utopian socialism

5: Communism and Anarchism.

Activity 14: Make a chart with the similarities and differences of Communism and Anarchism.

TOPIC 4: ART DURING THE INDUSTRIAL PERIOD

Activity 15: (VOLONTARY) write a report about one piece of art during the industrial period. It can be a painting, a sculpture or a building. Follow the instructions given by your teacher and avoid plagiarism.

UNIT 4: SPAIN DURING THE 19TH CENTURY

PART I:

- 1- THE FALL OF THE ANCIEN REGIME 1808-1814
- 2- THE REIGN OF FERNANDO VII 1814-33
- 3- THE INDEPENDENCE OF AMERICAN COLONIES
- 4- THE REIGN OF ISABEL II (1843-68)

PART II

- 5- THE SIX REVOLUTIONARY YEARS 1868-74
- 6- THE BOURBON RESTORATION 1874-1902
- 7- SPANISH SOCIETY AT THE TURN OF THE CENTURY

1. **THE FALL OF THE ANCIEN REGIME** :

1.1.-The reign of Charles IV (1788-1808)

Charles IV succeeded his father Charles III and his reign was marked by the French Revolution. The enlightened ideas were suddenly stopped in order not to suffer any revolutionary spread. The main decisions were taken by **Manuel Godoy**, Charles IV's prime minister. During his government, Spain declared war on France after Louis XVI's execution and during the Directory it was confirmed the Spanish dependency on French international policy.

The Franco-Spanish alliance was sealed in the signing of the *Treaties of San Ildefonso* (1795, 1800), which led to fight against Great Britain in **the battle of Trafalgar** (1805), which involved a major defeat of the Franco-Spanish navy by the Britons led by the Admiral Nelson.

In 1807 he signed the **Treaty of Fontainebleau** with Napoleon, where he was allowed to cross Spain in order to invade Portugal, which rejected to accept the Continental Blockade imposed by Napoleon to Great Britain. This plan actually involved the invasion of Spain.

Charles IV's son, the prince Ferdinand, instigated a riot against Godoy's government and his own father. It was the so-called **Mutiny of Aranjuez** (17 March 1808). Consequently, Godoy was dismissed from his charges and Charles IV abdicated in favour of his son Ferdinand VII, although Napoleon made some manoeuvres in order to control the situation in Spain by moving the royal family to France.

1.2.- The Peninsular War 1808-1814

Charles IV and Ferdinand VII met Napoleon in the French town of Bayonne. Napoleon persuaded Charles IV to cede him his royal rights of the Spanish crown and the former king (Charles IV) accepted. Shortly after, Napoleon persuaded Ferdinand VII to give back the crown to his father Charles IV, which he accepted too. Due to his previous action the new Spanish king would be Napoleon himself, who ceded the crown to his brother **Joseph I Bonaparte**. These actions are known as the **Abdications of Bayonne (5-12 May 1808)**.

During his reign **Joseph I** was supported by the *afrancesados* and drafted and passed the *Constitution of Bayonne* (1808), where some rights and liberties were guaranteed. None the less most of the people rejected his reign and authority. Meanwhile, the people of Madrid rose up against the French invasion (2 May 1808), whose example was followed in the rest of Spain, it was the beginning of the Peninsular War.

The leaders of the uprising in Madrid were the military **Daoíz, Velarde**, and Ruiz in the Barracks of Montealeón. The French managed to put down the revolt and the rebels were executed by a firing squad on 3 May 1808. These shootings were portrayed by Goya in *Los fusilamientos del 2 de mayo*.

In the rest of Spain 13 provincial **juntas** were constituted in order not to accept the French rule. All of them were coordinated by the Junta Suprema Central. The French army meant to control the situation and went southwards to invade Andalusia. General Castaños managed to defeat the French General Dupont and his troops in the **battle of Bailén** (19 July 1808). It was the first time that Napoleon's army was defeated in a land battle.

Napoleon could not tolerate this defeat and he himself led the second invasion of Spain in November 1808 with other 300,000 soldiers of the *Grande Armée*. After some victories, Napoleon could enter Madrid and went back to France. There were few cities which could resist the new invasion and they were severely besieged, such as Zaragoza (defended by Palafox) and Gerona (defended by Álvarez de Castro). Soon all Spain was conquered by the French. Only Cádiz resisted, helped by the British from Gibraltar.

The Spanish reacted by creating **guerrillas**, which were paramilitary forces which were composed by former soldiers and peasants, aimed at cutting the French supplies and to ambush the Napoleonic army. Some of the main guerrilla leaders were El Empecinado and the cura Merino.

Great Britain sent an army led by the Duke of Wellington, which would be the only regular army to fight against the French. They entered from Portugal and meant to re-conquer Spain from the southwest to the northeast. As many French soldiers were transferred to fight in Russia, Wellington finally defeated the French in the **battle of Arapiles** (1812), Vitoria and San Marcial (1813)

Napoleon signed the **Treaty of Valençay (1814)**, where he acknowledged the independence of Spain and gave back the throne to Ferdinand VII.

1.3.- The Cortes de Cádiz

Besides the military conflict, there is a political process as the juntas were established in order to rule on their regions. All of them would be coordinated by the Junta Suprema Central, directed by Floridablanca. He would summon Cortes in order to appoint a regent during the king's absence. The members of the Cortes were elected by universal suffrage. The Cortes finally met in Cádiz, which was protected by the British navy. The first meeting took place on 24 September 1810 where they proclaimed the national sovereignty and the division of powers. The main task of the Cortes was the drafting of a Constitution, which was passed on **19 March 1812**. Hence it was known as *La Pepa*. It is the longest Spanish constitution, since it has 384 articles.

- It consecrated the division of powers: Legislative. It was shared between the King and the Cortes. The king could just veto the acts twice. Executive. It was held by the King himself. Judicial. It was composed of the judges.
- It established the national sovereignty although with limited suffrage.
- The regime that was established was the constitutional monarchy.
- It acknowledged the liberties of the citizens, where everybody was equal before the law.
- Catholicism was considered the official Spanish religion.
- The Mesta was also suppressed due to its privileges

The work done in the Cortes de Cádiz is considered a **liberal revolution in Spain**. None the less, the Spanish people saw these measures very French-like, so they did not like them. Ferdinand VII invalidated all these reforms once he returned to Spain from France, restoring absolutism.

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1. What was the position of Godoy towards Napoleon?
 2. What happened in the battle of Trafalgar?
 3. What was the outcome of the Treaty of Fontainebleau?
 4. What happened in the mutiny of Aranjuez ("motín de Aranjuez")?
 5. How did Joseph Bonaparte become king of Spain?
 6. What were the two processes that took place during the War of Independence?
 7. How did the war evolve as a military conflict?
 8. Who helped the Spanish to fight against Napoleon?
 9. What were the political institutions that ruled in Spain from 1808 to 1814?
 10. Define: guerrilla, afrancesados, Bayonne Constitution.
 11. When was the first Constitution approved? Name its main principles.

2. **THE REIGN OF FERNANDO VII** 1814-33

There are three periods under his reign:

a) **Absolutist Sexennium** (*Sexenio absolutista*) 1814-21

Once Ferdinand VII returned in Spain he was received by a group of absolutist parliamentarians who asked him to restore absolutism in Spain (*Manifiesto de los persas*). Ferdinand VII annulled all the decisions adopted in the Cortes de Cádiz and restored absolutism. There were many internal problems, such as several liberal coup d'états which didn't succeed. . On 1 January 1820 the Colonel **Riego** staged a coup d'état in Cabezas de San Juan (Seville) demanding the reestablishment of the Constitution of 1812. It was the beginning of the Liberal Triennium (1820-1823)

b) **Liberal Triennium** (1820-21)

Ferdinand VII could not control the new situation and accepted to establish a liberal regime. There were two different liberal groups: moderate liberals (*doceañistas*), and progressive liberals (*veinteañistas*). The moderate liberals led the first part of the Triennium, and were soon replaced by the progressive group. Ferdinand VII demanded then the aid of the international powers, which sent to *Hundred Thousand Sons of Saint Louis*, led by the Duke of Angoulême. The international army entered Spain in April 1823. They did not find too much resistance but in Cádiz. It was the end of the Liberal Triennium.

c) **The Ominous Decade** *Década Ominosa* (1823-1833).

The liberals were hardly repressed and persecuted in this period and many of them were executed, such as Riego himself, General Torrijos or Mariana Pineda (blamed for embroidering a liberal flag). However, some measures were implemented in this period in order to enhance the national situation: Creation of the National Police (Policía Nacional) in 1824. Education was reformed and only 9 universities were allowed in the whole country. Creation of the Banco de San Fernando (1829), which was the origin of the future Banco de España. Opening of the Madrid Stock Exchange Market (1831).

None the less Ferdinand VII's main problem was related to his succession: The **Salic Law** (established by Philip V) prohibited that a woman may reign in Spain. Ferdinand didn't have a male heir but two daughters. He enacted the **Pragmatic Sanction** in 1803, where he abolished the Salic Law in Spain. Thanks to this new law, Isabella could be crowned as new queen of Spain. Nevertheless, Carlos M^a Isidro (Ferdinand's brother) did not accept this legal change and created a faction in order to get the crown for himself, the **Carlists**. Once Ferdinand VII died in 1833 the First Carlist War broke out because Carlos M^a Isidro claimed the crown for himself.

QUESTIONS:

1. *What factors (internal & international) helped Fernando VII to restore Absolutism?*
2. *Why did Fernando VII accept a liberal regime in 1820?*
3. *How did he restore his power again in 1823?*
4. *What was the main problem in the end of his reign?*

3.- THE INDEPENDENCE OF THE AMERICAN COLONIES

Most of the American colonies gained their independence during Ferdinand VII's reign.

3.1.- Causes: The enlightened ideas, the political ambition of the creoles, and the model of the independence of the USA and the French Revolution were the main factors that instigated the secession of the Indies. The Napoleonic invasion of Spain helped the creoles fight for their independence.

3.2.- Development: There were two major steps for the independence of the Indies: The first stage took place during the Peninsular War (1808-1814). The colonies reacted against the French invasion of Spain by proclaiming their independence from Napoleon in order not to be part of his empire. Some of those initial independences were definitive, like in Paraguay (1811), where no wars were suffered to gain its independence. The second stage once Ferdinand VII returned and refused to give autonomy to the colonies (1815-1825). The main pro-independence leaders were:

- **Simón Bolívar.** His works for independence focused on Venezuela, Colombia, and Ecuador. In addition, he also took part in the independence of Peru and Bolivia with San Martín's aid.
- **José de San Martín.** He was the main leader in the south of America and was vital in Argentina. He also helped in Bolivia and Peru with Bolívar.

Ferdinand VII could not tolerate these secessionist movements and sent the Army to the Indies. The secessionist armies were assisted by Great Britain and the USA. The Spanish army was defeated in several major battles which granted the final independence for some regions: The last battle was the **Battle of Ayacucho (1824)**. It eventually guaranteed the independence of Peru and Bolivia. This area had been the most loyalist part of the Indies to Spain.

3.3.-Consequences. Spain lost most of his empire. After all the independences Spain just retained some colonies in the Indies and in the Pacific, such as Cuba, Puerto Rico, the Philippines, Guam, the Mariana Islands, and the Caroline Islands. Most of the new states were strongly influenced in politics and economy by the USA and Great Britain.

4. THE REIGN OF ISABEL II (Minorities 1833-43; personal reign 1843-68)**4.1.- The minorities: the Regencies of Maria Christina and Espartero (1833-1843)**

Isabella II was just three years old when Ferdinand VII died. Hence, her mother Maria Christina of Bourbon was her regent between 1833 and 1840. The main event in Maria Christina's regency was the outbreak of the **First Carlist War (1833-1840)**: Carlos M^a Isidro did not accept his niece's coronation and declared war on her. He defended the absolutism as the political system. Most of his supporters could be found in the Basque Provinces, Navarre, and some areas of Aragon, and Catalonia. The Carlist motto was *Dios Patria, Rey*. The main Carlist generals were Zumalacárregui and Maroto (in the Basque-Navarrese area).

Maria Christina sought support in the liberals, who would govern in Spain from then on. After many years, the Carlist general Maroto and the Isabellan Espartero reached an agreement in the so-called Embrace of Vergara *Abrazo de Vergara* (1839): Isabella II was acknowledged as the queen of Spain. The Basque and Navarrese charters of privileges (*fueros*) were respected. The Carlist soldiers could join the national army and they would be granted the amnesty. None the less there were two other Carlist wars: the 2nd Carlist War (1846-1849) and the 3rd Carlist War (1872-1876).

The liberals governed in Spain during Maria Christina's regency: The regent preferred the moderate liberals, who governed with Cea Bermúdez and Martínez de la Rosa. Important achievements were enacted a kind of Constitution: the *Estatuto Real* (1834), a kind of constitution where the Queen and Cortes shared the sovereignty, and the provincial division of Spain in 1833 made by minister Javier de Burgos.

The progressive liberals seized the power after some revolts. Their leaders were Mendizábal, and Calatrava. Important achievements were a **new Constitution in 1837** (national sovereignty and a real division of powers) and the Confiscation of ecclesiastical goods established by Mendizábal in 1835 (*Desamortización de Mendizábal*). The religious orders were suppressed and all their goods may be nationalised and subsequently auctioned. The financial problems were to be solved by the income obtained from the auction of those ecclesiastical goods. These benefits were not fulfilled, yet, and the money that the bourgeoisie invested in the lands was not invested in the industrialisation.

Maria Christina had to leave Spain after a revolt (1840) and the **General Espartero** was appointed a Isabella II's new regent (1840-1843): There were many internal revolts in order to control Isabella II. He declared the free trade, which caused many uprisings in Catalonia due to the arrival of many British products: Espartero bombed Barcelona (November 1842) in order to put down the revolt. He lost all the support the Catalans had given him before. Finally, the regent left Spain in June 1843 and Isabella II was declared legally of age with just 13 years of age.

1. *RESEARCH: the Carlist War in <http://www.spanishwars.net/19th-century-first-carlist-war.html> and make a table comparing CARLOS AND ISABEL SUPPORTERS concerning principles, social support, international support and geographical areas*
2. *State the historical significance of the reign of Isabel II.*
3. *Who governed Spain during Isabel's minority (1833-43). List the most important achievements of this period.*

4.2.- Isabel II's personal reign 1843-68

Her reign was quite instable and there were some government changes and revolutions.

The first period of her reign is the so-called **Moderate Decade (1844-1854)**. Isabella II appointed the moderate liberals for the government of Spain. The main moderate leader was the **General Narváez**, who led the first moderate government. Important achievements during this period were the moderate **Constitution of 1845**, the creation of the Guardia Civil, the Concordat with the Holy See (1851): the relations of Spain with the Holy See were re-established after the confiscations decreed in the 1830s. Some religious orders returned in Spain.

The 2nd Carlist War broke out in 1846 and lasted until 1849.

The progressive liberals replaced the moderates after a military uprising in 1854, which led to the **Progressive Biennium (1854-1856)**. The main revolutionary leaders were the General O'Donnell and Cánovas del Castillo. Some achievements were: a new Confiscation by minister Madoz in 1855, which was deeper than Mendizábal's: It included the auction of the municipal goods as well as the ecclesiastical lands which had not been previously auctioned. Its effects were quite negative since most of the local councils got ruined; a new Constitution was drafted in 1856 but it was never passed; the Railway Act was passed in 1855 and it meant the international investment in the Spanish railways.

During the last years of Isabel II reign Leopoldo O'Donnell (progressive) and Ramón María Narváez (moderate) alternated in the government, until O'Donnell created the Liberal Union in order to join all the liberals in a single centrist party. When the queen's main supporters (O'Donnell and Narváez) died in the mid-1860s, the opposition signed the **Ostende Pact** (1866) in order to dethrone the queen and to create a real liberal government through universal suffrage. The result will be the **Glorious Revolution in 1868**, which will lead to the exile of Isabel and the beginning of a period called *Sexenio Revolucionario*.

- 1.- Which political parties supported Isabel II? Which one was most prone to limiting the royal authority?
- 2.- Which political parties were critical to the monarchy?
- 3.- What was the political role of the military during Isabel II's reign? RESEARCH some important militaries during this period .Look at the map of the Barrio de Salamanca of Madrid, and find out how many of these militaries have their names in the streets of Madrid.
- 4.- Name the main political and economic measures that were adopted under her reign.
- 5.- Which social groups were benefited from the expropriation and sale of lands? Which ones were the worst affected?
- 6.- How did her reign end up?