

and a chamber of deputies. The senate is composed of members of three classes:—(1) members by right of birth or office—princes, the wealthier nobles holding the rank of grandee (*grande*), a dignity conferred by the king either for life or as an hereditary honour, and the highest state officials; (2) members nominated by the king for life; and (3) members elected by the state corporations and by the most highly taxed subjects of the state for a period of five years. The members belonging to the first two classes must not exceed 180 in number, and there may be the same number of members of the third class. The chamber of deputies consists of members elected for five years, in the proportion of one deputy for every 50,000 of the population. The electors must be twenty-five years of age and must have paid land-tax of twenty-five pesetas (£1) for one year, or an industrial tax of fifty pesetas for two years.

The executive administration is entrusted to a responsible ministry (*consejo de ministros*), in which the presidency belongs either to one of the ministers or to a president without portfolio. There are eight ministerial departments—the first secretaryship of state, to which belongs the management of foreign affairs, the secretaryships of great and justice, finance, and the interior, the department for the promotion of material and intellectual interests (*secretaría de fomento*), and the secretaryships of war, marine, and the colonies. The civil administration is under the secretary for the interior. In each province is a civil governor nominated by the crown, and the governor presides over a council, the members of which are elected by the representatives of each commune (*ayuntamiento*).

Law and Justice.—Spanish law is founded on the Roman law, the Gothic common law, and the national code proclaimed at the meeting of the cortes at Toro in 1501 (the *leyes de Toro*). There is a court of first instance in each of the 501 *partidos judiciales* into which the kingdom is divided; and a court of second instance in each of 15 *audiencias territoriales* into which the *partidos judiciales* are grouped; and there sits at Madrid a supreme court modelled on the French *cour de cassation*. The administration of justice is public. Except in commercial cases the parties to a suit must always be represented by sworn counsel (*abogados fiscales*).

Finance.—The following statement (Table XI.) shows the equivalent in English money of the budget estimates for the years noted; it should be explained, however, that these estimates have only a limited value, inasmuch as the public accounts of Spain have not been audited since 1870, and have not been passed by the cortes since 1867:—

Years.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Years.	Revenue.	Expenditure.
1860-61	£18,923,440	£18,773,698	1881-82	£31,492,920	£32,554,598
1870-71	27,901,746	32,819,424	1882-83	31,253,769	31,573,083
1874-75	21,792,000	29,821,000	1883-84	32,095,075	32,053,999
1877-78	29,433,000	29,430,000	1884-85	31,444,682	31,003,969
1880-81	31,666,031	33,466,047	1885-86	34,900,575	35,885,869

The chief heads of revenue, according to the budget estimates of 1885-86, were—excise (including stamp duties and government monopolies), £10,534,480; direct taxes on land, trade, mines, &c., £10,393,920; taxes on Government salaries, registration, &c., £5,362,000; customs, £5,360,000. The chief items of expenditure were—the charges of the public debt, £10,966,937; the charges of the ministry of war, £6,050,944; those connected with the administration of state property, £5,748,593; the charges belonging to the *ministerio de fomento*, £4,177,983; those of grace and justice, £2,237,844; those of marine, £1,756,022.

The expenses of quelling the insurrection in Cuba of 1868-73, and those subsequently arising out of a civil war in the Peninsula,

raised the total amount of the Spanish debt on the 1st of January 1881 to about £512,000,000; but, as it was by that time manifest that Spain was unable to meet the obligations thus incurred, an arrangement was come to by which the capital and interest of the debt were reduced. The bulk of the debt now bears interest at the rate of 4 per cent., and on the 1st of October 1884 the capital stood at 6356 million pesetas, or £254,250,000, and the total annual charge was 238 million pesetas, or £9,522,857. The principal items are the perpetual foreign debt, amounting in October 1884 to £78,840,000, a perpetual internal debt, amounting in October 1884 to £77,840,000, and a redeemable debt (internal and external) amounting to £70,480,000.

Currency, Weights, and Measures.—The French monetary system and the metric system of weights and measures have been introduced—the latter in 1859, the former in 1871. In the case of the weights and measures the French names also have been adopted, with only the necessary linguistic changes. In the case of the currency the old Spanish name of *peseta* was retained for the unit (the franc), and the *peseta* is divided into 100 *centimos*. According to the present value of the *peseta*, therefore, 25 *centimos* may be taken as about equal to £1. Previously to the introduction of the French monetary system the *peseta* was the fifth part of a *peso duro*, which was equal to 20 *reales de vellon*, or rather more than a five-franc piece. The only paper money in Spain consists of the notes of the Banco de España.

Bibliography.—The most comprehensive work on the geography of Spain is the *Diccionario Geográfico-Histórico e Estadístico de las Provincias de España* of Madariaga, 16 vols., 1848-50. A more summary account is contained in the *Reseña Geográfica, Geológica, y Agrícola de España*, by D. Fr. Coello, &c., Madrid, 1859; and in *Die Pyrenäische Halbinsel*, by Dr. Moritz Willkomm, Leipzig, 3 vols., 1854-56. Numerous notices regarding the geography of Spain are to be found in the *Boletín de la Sociedad Geográfica de Madrid*. See also F. Garrido, *La España Contemporánea*, Barcelona, 2 vols., 1865-67 (the French edition, Brussels, 1862, is comparatively meagre); Davillier, *L'Espagne*, Paris, 1873; A. J. C. Hare, *Wanderings in Spain*; A. Gallenga, *Iberian Reminiscences*, London, 1883; Webster, *Spain*, London, 1882; Harrison, *Spain*, Boston, 1882; Higgin, *Commercial and Industrial Spain*, London, 1886; together with the guide-books of Ford (Murray) and O'Shea (Black).

The botany of Spain is very fully treated in various works by Willkomm. Besides the *Prodromus Floræ Hispaniæ*, Stuttgart, 3 vols. 4to, 1861-80, the most important are *Illustrationes Floræ Hispaniæ*, Stuttgart, 1881, &c., fol. and *Die Strand- und Steppengebiete der Iber. Halbinsel*, Leipzig, 1862, 8vo. Of another flora by Don M. Colmeiro, entitled *Enumeración de las Plantas de la Península Hispano-Lucitana e Islas Baleares*, one volume has been published (Madrid, 1885). It is expected to be completed in 4 vols.

There is no recent general work on the zoology of Spain. The geology of the Iberian Peninsula is treated in a series of articles, illustrated by several maps, by D. Federico de Botella, in the above-mentioned *Boletín*, vol. II., 1877. See also Macpherson, *Succession Estratigráfica de los Terrenos Arcáticos de España*; W. K. Sullivan, *Notes on the Geology and Mineralogy of the Spanish Provinces of Santander and Madrid*. The geological maps of Spain already completed are those of De Verneuil and Colcomb, Paris, 1864, 2d ed. (now out of print) 1868, and De Botella y de Hornos, Madrid, 1879. A geological survey of the provinces of Spain is now in progress, and on the conclusion of the survey a map will be published in sixteen sheets on the scale of 1:400,000.

Among the more important annual or periodical official statistical publications are the *Estadística General del Comercio Exterior de España*; *Boletín Mensual de Estadística Demográfico-Sanitaria*; *Situación de los Ferrocarriles*; and *Estadística Minera de España*.

The best topographical map of Spain is that of C. Vogel, in four sheets, in Stieler's *Hand Atlas*, on the scale of 1:1,500,000. Among other maps that may be referred to are that of D. Fr. Coello, scale 1:1,000,000, Madrid, 1861, and the *Mapa Itinerario Militar de España Formado por el Cuerpo de Estado Mayor del Ejército en 1865*, scale 1:500,000. An excellent map, on the scale of 1:50,000, indicating the elevations by means of contour lines at intervals of 20 metres, and by figures for particular spots (the elevations reduced to the mean level of the Mediterranean at the port of Alicante), and distinguishing cultivated and uncultivated ground, and in the former distinguishing huertas, gardens, oliveyards, vineyards, orange groves, &c., where they exceed an area of 10 hectares, is now being published by the Instituto Geográfico y Estadístico de Madrid. Of this map, however, only about 20 out of 1080 sheets have as yet been issued. Among those which have already appeared is that containing Madrid. (G. G. C.)

PART II.—HISTORY.

SECTION I.—ANCIENT HISTORY.

Hispania was the name by which the Romans called the great peninsula made up of Spain and Portugal, but we know nothing certain as to the origin of the name, or whether it was in general use among the ancient inhabitants of the country.¹

To the Greeks Spain, or rather its coast-line on the Mediterranean, was known vaguely as Iberia, a name we meet with in Herodotus (i. 163) in connexion with the Phœnician Tartessus, which is generally understood to have been the country about the mouth of the Guadalquivir and to be the Tarshish of Scripture. It was the Phœceans, a branch of the Ionian Greeks settled in Asia Minor, who according to Herodotus first opened up to the

¹ Humboldt derives it from the Basque *espana* (border), as signifying the part of Europe bordering on the ocean, but his conjecture seems strained and fanciful.

Greek world this remote region of the extreme West, which had hitherto been a land of mystery and enchantment, imagined to be the home of the setting sun, and known only by the reports of adventurous Phœnician mariners. The hero-god Hercules, it was fabled, had left traces of his presence and mighty working here, and the twin rocks at the entrance of the Mediterranean were called by his name, "the Pillars of Hercules,"—the "world's end" to the Greeks, nothing but the all-encircling ocean-river lying beyond. The Greeks seem to have planted no colonies in Spain, with the exception of Emporium, on the coast just under the eastern spur of the Pyrenees, founded probably from Massilia (Marseilles) by the Phœceans, and perhaps of Saguntum. In fact they had but very hazy notions about the country, and Iberia, as they called it, was to them little more than a name for an indefinite extent of territory in the Far West, in the occupation of



barbarous Celts and Iberians, with some Phœnician settlements for the purposes of trade on its southern coasts. Several of these places were just known to them by name; but even of Gades, rich and populous as it seems to have been in quite early days, nothing but vague hearsay had reached them, and Herodotus, who mentions it as Gadeira (iv. 8), merely defines its position as "on the ocean outside of (beyond) the Pillars of Hercules." Tarraco, one of the oldest and most important of the cities of Spain, and one of which we hear continually in the subsequent history of the country, was also in all probability a Phœnician colony. There are still here remains of very ancient walls, possibly Phœnician work. Gades, Tartessus, Tarraco, all seem to have been of Phœnician origin¹ and of unknown antiquity, and they were flourishing places in the 7th century B.C., when the Greeks first made a slight acquaintance with them,—an acquaintance, however, which they did not follow up. The result is that we really know nothing about Spain till the first war between Rome and Carthage (264–241 B.C.). There was indeed, in the 4th century B.C., an embassy to Alexander the Great from the remote West, of Gauls and Iberians, and from that time learned Greeks began to discuss the geography of Spain. But again the country drops out of sight till the 3d century B.C., when we find a close connexion established between it and Carthage, which, being itself a Phœnician colony, would feel itself almost at home on the southern shores of Spain. According to Polybius, Carthage (before the First Punic War) had acquired at least something like a protectorate over the Iberian tribes as far as the Pyrenees, the then recognized boundary between the Iberians and Celts,—between, in fact, Spain and Gaul. Spanish troops served as volunteers in Carthaginian armies. There must have been a good deal of Phœnician blood in the south of Spain for many centuries, and this no doubt prepared the way for Carthaginian ascendancy in the country. Not, however, till after the First Punic War and the loss of Sicily was there anything that could be called a Carthaginian empire in Spain. It was in 237 B.C. that Hamilcar Barca, the father of Hannibal, crossed the Straits of Gibraltar and set foot in Spain, not, however, with any commission from the home Government at Carthage, but with the deliberately formed design of making the country, with its warlike population and great mineral wealth, into a Carthaginian province, and ultimately into a basis of operations in a future war with Rome (see HAMILCAR, HASDRUBAL, HANNIBAL). There were rich mines in the mountains, which had drawn the Phœnicians some way into the interior, and among the native tribes there were the elements of a brave and hardy soldiery. A good army might very well be organized and paid out of the resources of Spain. All this Hamilcar clearly saw, and in the true spirit of a statesman he set himself to the work, not merely of subjugating the country, but of making the Spaniards into loyal subjects of Carthage. He encouraged marriages between his officers and soldiers and the native women: his own son Hannibal married a Spanish woman. He showed them how to work their gold and silver mines to the best advantage; in every way, in short, he made them feel that he was their friend. The great work of which he had laid the foundation was carried on after his death in 228 by his son-in-law Hasdrubal, under whom New Carthage, with its fine harbour, founded probably by Hamilcar, became the capital of the country. It would seem that by this time the Carthaginian empire in Spain was as firmly established over the southern half of the country as the fickle and uncertain temper of the native tribes would admit. The

¹ For the Phœnician colonization of Spain, see PHŒNICIA, vol. xviii. p. 806.

Spaniard of that day, as indeed more or less throughout his whole history, was particularly amenable to personal influence, and an Hamilcar or a Hannibal could sway him as he pleased. From 228 to 221 Hasdrubal was extending and strengthening the Carthaginian rule in Spain, while the Romans were fighting in Cisalpine Gaul. One precaution, indeed, they had taken, an understanding with Hasdrubal, which might be regarded as a treaty, that the Carthaginian conquests were not to be pushed east of the Ebro. West of that river there was one town, Saguntum, a Greek colony, in alliance with Rome; this Hasdrubal had spared. His successor, Hannibal, after two years' continuous fighting, which resulted in the submission of hitherto unconquered tribes and the undisputed supremacy of Carthage throughout almost all Spain, attacked and took the place in 218.

This was the beginning of the Second Punic War. Spain was now for the first time entered by Roman armies, under the command of the two Scipios,—the brothers Cneius and Publius. Six years of hard fighting ended in the defeat and death of these two brave men, but in 210 the son of Publius, the elder Africanus, struck a decisive blow at the Carthaginian power in Spain by the sudden capture of New Carthage. The war, however, still dragged on till 205, in which year it may be said that Spain, or at least that part of it which had been under Carthage, was fairly conquered by the arms of Rome. Andalusia, Granada, Murcia, Valencia, Catalonia, Aragon, may be said to have become Roman territory, Rome had now to deal simply with the native Spaniards, without the fear of any foreign interference. Hence from 205 the reduction of the country into a Roman province was only a matter of time. It proved, however, to be a tedious and troublesome work, and more than once Rome's hold on Spain was seriously imperilled. An oppressive governor, or a governor without tact and sympathy, was sure to unsettle the restless and impressionable tribes, and to stir up all manner of dangerous jealousies and heart-burnings. The Scipios, the elder Africanus especially, knew how to manage the people, and yet even in 205, the year of those brilliant successes of Africanus, there was a great rising of several of the tribes, headed by a local chieftain, against the dominion of Rome. It was quelled after a sharp engagement; there was a general submission on the part of the Spaniards, and many of them became Roman tributaries. It was some time, however, before the country, or even the southern half of it, was really subdued into complete peace and order. The mountains and the forests were a formidable obstacle to the Roman legions, and favoured that guerilla warfare which makes conquest slow and laborious. For a long period many of the tribes were rather the allies and dependants of Rome than her subjects, and might at any moment be roused into war. In fact, Rome's dominion west of the Ebro—Further Spain (Hispania Ulterior), as the province was called—must for very many years have been little more than nominal. Rome's policy was to keep the native tribes disunited, and to have as many of them as possible under a friendly protectorate. There seem to have been wide differences between these tribes,—some, especially those in the interior and in the north, being fierce and utterly barbarous, and others in the south and south-west comparatively mild and civilized. The Celtiberi, in the interior, were a group of warlike tribes, and were always uncertain and intractable. At one time they would fight for Rome; at another they would serve as mercenaries for Rome's bitter foe, the Carthaginian. Continually were they breaking out into revolt and defying the arms of Rome. The "Celtiberian War" often figures in the pages of Roman histories, and it generally meant a war

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