

The New Encyclopædia Britannica

Volume 28

MACROPÆDIA

Knowledge in Depth

FOUNDED 1768

15 TH EDITION



Encyclopædia Britannica, Inc.

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The *Encyclopædia Britannica* is published with the editorial advice
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Fraser University (Can.); and the State University of Leiden (Neth.).

First Edition	1768-1771
Second Edition	1777-1784
Third Edition	1788-1797
Supplement	1801
Fourth Edition	1801-1809
Fifth Edition	1815
Sixth Edition	1820-1823
Supplement	1815-1824
Seventh Edition	1830-1842
Eighth Edition	1852-1860
Ninth Edition	1875-1889
Tenth Edition	1902-1903

Eleventh Edition
© 1911
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Twelfth Edition
© 1922
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Thirteenth Edition
© 1926
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Fourteenth Edition
© 1929, 1930, 1932, 1933, 1936, 1937, 1938, 1939, 1940, 1941, 1942, 1943,
1944, 1945, 1946, 1947, 1948, 1949, 1950, 1951, 1952, 1953, 1954,
1955, 1956, 1957, 1958, 1959, 1960, 1961, 1962, 1963, 1964,
1965, 1966, 1967, 1968, 1969, 1970, 1971, 1972, 1973
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Fifteenth Edition
© 1974, 1975, 1976, 1977, 1978, 1979, 1980, 1981, 1982, 1983, 1984, 1985,
1986, 1987, 1988, 1989, 1990, 1991, 1992
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Printed in U.S.A.

Library of Congress Catalog Card Number: 90-84190
International Standard Book Number: 0-85229-553-7

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Spain

Lying at the southwestern end of the European continent, Spain (España), or the Spanish State (Estado Español), occupies about 85 percent of the Iberian Peninsula. With Portugal, which forms its western boundary, it is shaped like the hide of a bull, the neck pointing toward Africa in the south and a large base formed by the Pyrenees Mountains and the Bay of Biscay in the north. It is separated from France by the small principality of Andorra and by the Pyrenees; and in the far south lies the small peninsula of Gibraltar, which has been under British sovereignty since 1713. Off Spain's eastern coast lie the Balearic Islands; the Canary Islands, in the Atlantic Ocean off the coast of Africa, are also a part of Spain. The cities of Ceuta and Melilla, in northern Morocco, have belonged to Spain for several centuries and are considered by Spain to be an integral part of that country, despite Moroccan claims to their suzerainty. The total area of the national territory of Spain is 194,900 square miles (504,782 square kilometres).

One of the most ancient countries in Europe, Spain was also long one of the most powerful and, from the 16th to the 19th century, ruled a large empire. Evidence of that empire is the continuing use of the Spanish language in 18 Latin-American states, Puerto Rico, and the Republic of

Equatorial Guinea. Lying at the crossroads of Africa and Europe, and holding the key to the Mediterranean from the Atlantic, Spain retains traces of European, African, Mediterranean, and Atlantic cultures that make of it a distinctive country within western Europe.

Under the constitution adopted in 1978, Spain is a constitutional monarchy in which the king assumes a ceremonial position. Its economy is fully integrated in the Western world, with large-scale foreign investments, tourism, and trade relations with other countries of the Atlantic area. Spain is a member of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) and maintains a close relationship with that organization through bilateral agreements with the United States. Spain is a member of the United Nations and its specialized agencies and belongs to the Council of Europe and most technical organizations of western Europe. It is tied to the European Economic Community (EEC) with a commercial agreement. Close diplomatic, cultural, and economic links are maintained with most Latin-American countries and international organizations, such as the Andean Pact, the Inter-American Development Bank, and the Organization of American States.

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Physical and human geography

THE LAND

Relief. With the exception of the southern triangle closing toward the Strait of Gibraltar, the Iberian Peninsula forms an irregular quadrangle, bordered on the east and southeast by the Mediterranean and on the west, southwest, and most of the north by the Atlantic Ocean. Most of the peninsula is occupied by the Meseta, a large plateau with approximately the same boundaries as the historical Kingdom of Castile (Castilla). The average height of the plateau is 2,000 feet (610 metres), although its northern part is slightly higher than the southern section. The Meseta is almost completely surrounded by mountain ranges: the Cordillera Cantábrica (Cantabrian Mountains) in the north; the Sistema Ibérico (Iberian System) from the Cantábrica to the southeast; the Sierra Morena in the south; and the lower mountains on the border with Portugal in the northwest. The southern plateau descends gently in the direction of Portugal, whereas the transition from the northern plateau to Portugal is marked by rugged terrain and mountain ranges. The Meseta is divided by the Cordillera Carpetovetónica (also called the Sistema Central), which extends across the plateau to the north of Madrid and runs all the way from the Sistema Ibérico to Portugal.

Around the central plateau, five natural regions can be identified. First, in northeastern Spain, there is the valley of the Río Ebro, enclosed by the Sistema Ibérico in the west and southwest, the Pyrenees and the Cordillera Cantábrica in the north, and the mountains of Catalonia (Cataluña) and other coastal ranges in the east. Second, there is the valley of the Guadalquivir River in the south, which is separated from the plateau by the Sierra Morena and from the Mediterranean by the Sistema Penibético (Baetic Cordillera), including the Sierra Nevada in the southeast, but which has unimpeded passage to the Atlantic in the southwest. Third, there is the region of the coastal area of Valencia, in the east, descending from the southern Iberian ranges toward the Mediterranean. Catalonia, a mountainous region between the valley of the Ebro, the eastern Pyrenees, and the Mediterranean, forms the fourth natural region. Finally, there is northern Spain from the Pyrenees to the west, a rugged, mountainous country comprising several small regions separated from each other by high mountains.

Geologically, the peninsula forms a great massif (not to be confused with the Meseta, which it partly overlaps), bordered on the north, east, and south by mountain folds. This massif is a fragment of the former Hercynian continent, which formed across Europe at the close of the Carboniferous Period (about 345,000,000 to 280,000,000 years ago). During the Mesozoic Era (between 225,000,000 and 65,000,000 years ago), the Hercynian system was shattered, and large portions sank below the sea. During the Tertiary Period (between 65,000,000 and 2,500,000 years ago), deposits of the Jurassic and Cretaceous seas, together with the earlier Tertiary beds, were crushed against the old massif to form the ranges bordering the Meseta. Later movements contorted and fractured the peninsula to give it its present general shape.

The Balearic Islands in the Mediterranean are composed of mountain ranges of moderate altitude, not exceeding 5,000 feet. The Canary Islands in the Atlantic, however,

are of volcanic origin and contain the highest peak among the Spanish territories, the Teide (12,198 feet [3,718 metres]), located on the island of Tenerife.

Drainage and soils. The most important drainage systems are found in the plateau and the two large valleys of the Ebro and the Guadalquivir. The plateau has three main drainage systems, all flowing into the Atlantic: the Río Duero (Douro) in the northern plateau and the Tagus (Tajo) and Guadiana in the southern plateau. While the Duero and the Tagus follow an almost parallel course from the Iberian range to the west coast of Portugal, the Guadiana turns south at the border with Portugal and empties into the Gulf of Cadiz (Golfo de Cádiz) on the southern Atlantic coast. The Ebro, which has the greatest outflow of the peninsula's rivers, follows an almost straight course from the northern mountains to the Mediterranean, collecting waters from the Pyrenees and the Sistema Ibérico. The Guadalquivir flows from the east to the southwest, gathering waters from the Sierra Morena and the Sierra Nevada. In the southeastern region, the two most important rivers are the Júcar and the Segura.

Three main mineralogical regions can be distinguished in Spain. Crystalline rocks predominate in the central and peripheral basins, whereas the east and north have an abundance of limestones. The soils may be described as generally acid-humid in the northwest, calcareous in eastern and southern Spain, and siliceous in the Cantábrica, northern Iberian, Carpetovetónica, and Sierra Morena ranges as well as in the Duero Valley and the mountains of Zamora and Salamanca. As in most of the western Mediterranean, erosion has played a very important role in the degradation of the soils, especially in the high areas of the plateau and the eastern and southern zones. In addition to natural erosion, humans have contributed considerably through the destruction of forests. Since the 1920s, however, the government has carried out important projects to forestall further erosion.

Climate. Spain is located in the temperate zone of the Northern Hemisphere, between the latitudes of 27° (for the Canary Islands) and 44° N. In general, Spain belongs climatically to the western Mediterranean. The peninsula is exposed both to the westerly North Atlantic winds, which dominate during most of the year, and to the warm, dry airstream that blows less frequently from the Sahara. The Pyrenees and the Cordillera Cantábrica, however, play an important role in the Spanish climate, for they constitute the northern boundary of the subtropical airstream during the summer months, thereby maintaining dry weather conditions over most of the country.

Three basic types of climate predominate within the peninsula: the coastal climate of the Atlantic and Mediterranean seaboard; the continental climate of the plateau and the valleys of the Ebro and the Guadalquivir; and the mountain climate of areas above 3,000 feet. Northern Spain, from Galicia to northern Catalonia, is characterized by moderate, even temperatures and high rainfall. Thus, La Coruña, in the northwest, ranges from 48° F (9° C) in winter to 64° F (18° C) in summer, while the annual rainfall is about 38 inches (965 millimetres). The plateau has a continental climate, with lower rainfall and greater temperature variations. Thus Albacete, in the southeast of the plateau, varies between 40° F (4° C) in the winter and 75° F (24° C) in the summer, while the annual rainfall is less than 15 inches (380 millimetres). The valleys

The
Meseta

The
Hercynian
massif

Soil
erosion

of the Ebro and the Guadalquivir also have a continental climate, drier and colder in the Ebro and warmer and more humid in the Guadalquivir. Catalonia, Valencia, and the Balearic Islands enjoy more temperate weather, with higher rainfall in Catalonia, while the Canary Islands have a subtropical, Atlantic climate.

Plant and animal life. *Vegetation.* There are four main vegetation areas: north, centre, south, and southeast. Northern Spain, enjoying humid weather, is covered with deciduous forests and meadows. It is basically a green country, good for forestry and pastures, as well as the cultivation of corn (maize), apples, and other products that thrive in humid areas. The northern plateau and the Ebro Valley, with low levels of humidity and extreme temperatures, mainly produce grains. The upper Ebro Valley, the southern plateau, Andalusia, and the eastern regions produce olives and grapes. Valencia and the irrigated areas of Murcia are noted for their citrus fruits, particularly oranges, but rice is also grown in Valencia, and the production of fruits and vegetables in Murcia has been diversified. Semi-desert areas occur in the valley of the Ebro, around the city of Zaragoza, and in southeastern Spain in the province of Almería, where irrigation projects support the cultivation of flowers, early fruits, and vegetables.

Livestock. Cattle are raised in the north and in the mountainous areas of central and southern Spain. Sheep are the most common stock animals in the plateau region. Pigs are raised in most of Spain, particularly in the west and northwest. Goats are mostly raised in the south of the peninsula and in the islands. Mules and donkeys, once a part of the Spanish landscape, were vanishing in the late 20th century as a consequence of the mechanization of harvesting and transportation. Spanish-Arabian horses are raised on large estates in Andalusia (Andalucía), and fighting bulls are raised for profit in Andalusia and Castile. Camels are used for tourist purposes in some of the Canary Islands.

Wildlife. Its close links with Africa give Spain more African species than exist in the other Mediterranean peninsulas, while the Pyrenean barrier and extent of the country explains the number of indigenous species. The larger species of wildlife are almost extinct in Spain, although bears and wolves can still be found in the Pyrenees and some of the northern mountain areas. The Spanish ibex (*Capra pyrenaica*) is threatened with extinction, and most are found within preserves. Other types of wildlife, such as deer or wild pigs, can be found in preserves all over Spain. Minor game, such as partridge, grouse, duck, and rabbit or hare, abound throughout Spain. At Gibraltar is confined the Barbary ape, thought either to be indigenous or to have been imported by the Romans or Arabs; it is also present across the strait.

Fish. The Spanish coasts were once rich in fish and shellfish, particularly in the Atlantic and the Bay of Biscay. Overexploitation led, however, to the exhaustion of coastal fisheries within the Spanish territorial waters. This induced the government to adopt a 200-mile offshore fishing zone in 1978, within which Spain claimed the right to manage and exploit fisheries. Trout, lute, carp, and other inland fishes are still found in the rivers and water reservoirs protected by the state.

Settlement patterns. *Traditional regions.* Because of the geographical diversity and the great variety of climates and vegetation, as well as for historical reasons, regional differences are very important in Spain. Their political relevance increased with the approval in 1978 of a new constitution that foresaw a reorganization of the state on the basis of autonomous communities. The country is divided into 14 traditional regions, two of which are the Balearic Islands and the Canary Islands. The old Kingdom of Castile, which covered most of the plateau, included three regions that are still considered to be Castilian: León and Old Castile, in the northern plateau, and New Castile, in the southern plateau. (The province of Santander, located between the Cordillera Cantábrica and the Bay of Biscay, was historically part of Old Castile, although it differs widely from inland Castile in location, climate, and economic structure.) The former kingdom also included six other regions that are no longer considered to be

Castilian: the Basque Provinces, Asturias, and Galicia, in the north; Extremadura, in the southern plateau, bordering Portugal; and Murcia and Andalusia in the south. The old Kingdom of Aragón, located on the eastern half of the peninsula, encompassed the four regions of Navarre, bordering France and the Basque country; Aragón, covering the lower course of the Ebro River and extending from the Pyrenees to the Sistema Ibérico; Catalonia, in the north-eastern corner of Spain; and Valencia, in the coastal plains between the Sistema Ibérico and the Mediterranean Sea.

The coastal regions differ markedly from each other and from inland Spain. Differences in geography, history, social and economic structures, and especially language have all contributed to a variety of regional identities. Regional nationalism—even regional separatism—has developed wherever a native language other than Spanish is spoken, as in Catalonia, Galicia, and, above all, the Basque country (Vascongadas). And in regions in which only Spanish is spoken, such as Andalusia, the Canary Islands, and Aragón, an acute sense of social and cultural identity has been acquired. Consequently, a movement developed all over Spain to transform the traditionally centralized political system into a decentralized one with an almost federal structure. Thus, traditional regions became the basis for the political reorganization of the country.

One of the most sensitive issues in Spanish politics in the late 20th century was the apportionment of powers between the central government and the new autonomous communities recognized by the constitution of 1978. The regionalist trend that had prevailed during the 1970s had become counterbalanced by centralist forces that opposed any further transfer of powers to the regional governments. Thus, a tug-of-war between national and regional identities developed, threatening the stability of democratic institutions and putting in question the nature of the state itself. The strain was particularly noticeable in the Basque country, but was also apparent in Catalonia and other regional communities.

Human settlement. Spain is now a predominantly industrial country, with less than 20 percent of the economically active population involved in agriculture, forestry, or fishing. There has been a sharp movement from the country to the cities in the last 50 years. In 1930, only one-quarter of the population lived in cities, whereas more than half of the Spanish population was settled in an urban environment by the late 20th century. The economic and structural changes that took place in that period are of paramount importance to an understanding of modern Spain.

Traditional rural settlements vary widely from one region to the next. Northern and Mediterranean Spain and the islands follow a pattern of small settlements surrounded by agricultural land. On the other hand, the plateau and the valleys of the Ebro and the Guadalquivir are characterized by highly concentrated rural populations inhabiting large towns. These differences are connected with the history and the landscape of the different regions.

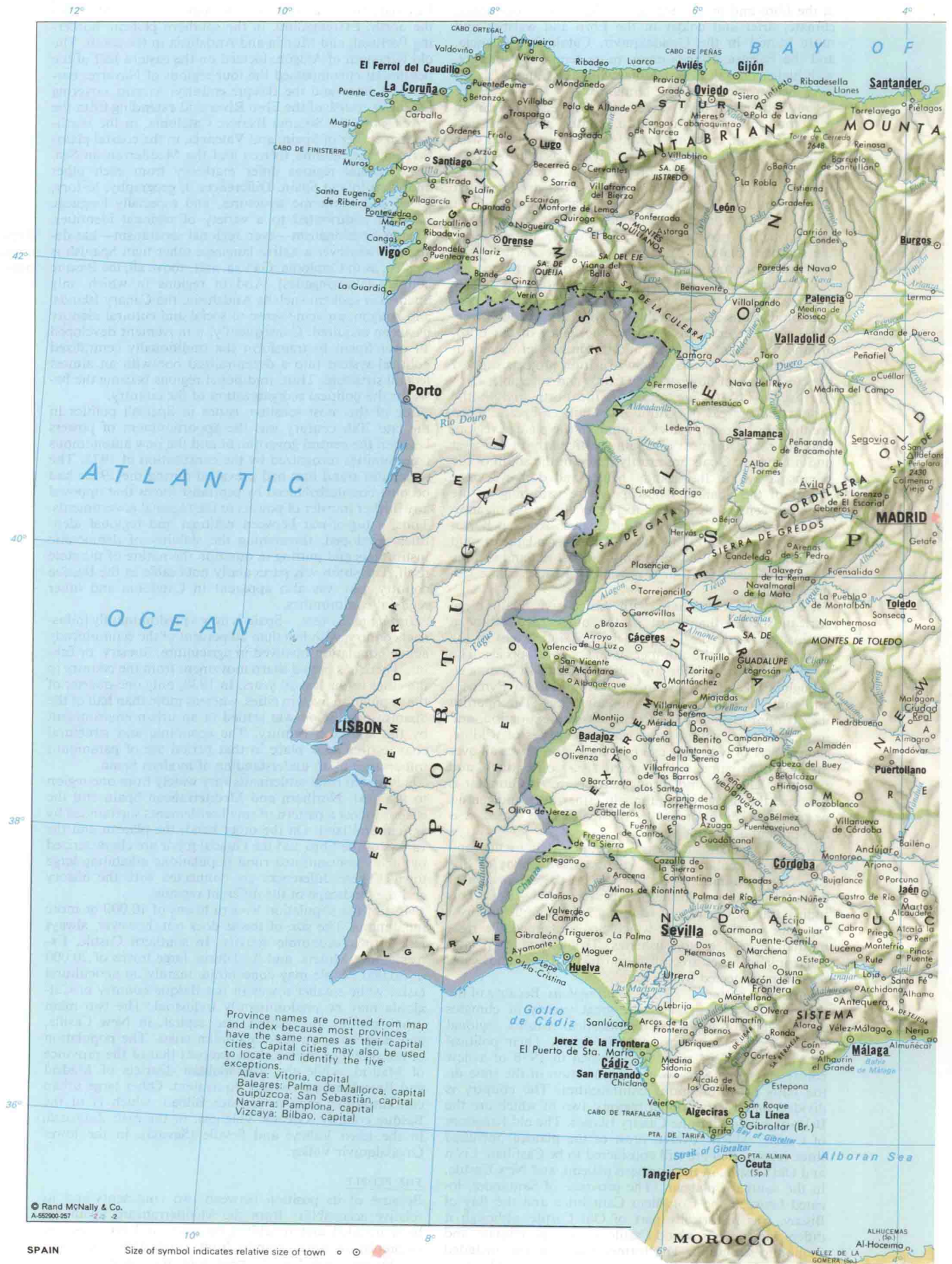
Most of the population lives in towns of 10,000 or more inhabitants. The size of towns does not, however, always reflect their economic activity. In southern Castile, Extremadura, Murcia, and Andalusia, large towns of 20,000 or 30,000 people may concentrate mainly on agricultural tasks, while smaller towns in the Basque country or Catalonia may be predominantly industrial. The two main urban centres are Madrid, the capital, in New Castile, and Barcelona, on the Catalan coast. The population of the province of Barcelona exceeds that of the province of Madrid, while the metropolitan districts of Madrid and Barcelona are roughly equivalent. Other large urban concentrations include Greater Bilbao, which is in the Basque country; Greater Valencia, in the east; Zaragoza, in the Ebro Valley; and Seville (Sevilla), in the lower Guadalquivir Valley.

THE PEOPLE

Because of its position between two continents and its relative accessibility from the Mediterranean, Spain has been invaded and inhabited by many different peoples. In prehistoric times, peoples from North Africa and western Europe settled in the peninsula, including the Celts,

Fruit-growing regions

Regional consciousness





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Tomelloso.....	39-10n	3-01w				Gállego, river.....	41-39n	(Castilla		
Toro.....	41-31n	5-24w				Gallo, river.....	40-48n	la Nueva),		
Torrejoncillo.....	39-54n	6-28w				Gata, Cabo de,		historic region.....	40-00n	3-45w
Torrelavega.....	43-21n	4-03w				cape.....	36-43n	Noguera		
Torre.....	39-26n	0-28w				Gata, Sierra de,		Pallaresa, river.....	42-15n	0-54e
Torre-Pacheco.....	37-44n	0-57w				mountains.....	40-14n	Odiel, river.....	37-10n	6-54w
Torrevelilla.....	37-59n	0-41w				Genil, river.....	37-42n	Old Castile		
Tortosa.....	40-48n	0-31e				Gibraltar, Bay of		(Castilla la Vieja),		
Totana.....	37-46n	1-30w				(Bahía de		historic region.....	41-30n	4-00w
Trasparga.....	43-11n	7-51w				Algeciras).....	36-09n	Orbigo, river.....	41-58n	5-40w
Trigueros.....	37-23n	6-50w				Gibraltar,		Orellana,		
Trujillo.....	39-28n	5-53w				Strait of.....	35-57n	reservoir.....	39-00n	5-30w
Tudela.....	42-05n	1-36w				Gigüela, river.....	39-08n	Ortega, Cabo,		
Ubeda.....	38-01n	3-22w				Gredos, Sierra de,		cape.....	43-45n	7-53w
Ubrique.....	36-41n	5-27w				mountains.....	40-18n	Palma, Bahía de,		
Utiel.....	39-34n	1-12w				Guadalete, river.....	36-35n	bay.....	39-27n	2-35e
Utrera.....	37-11n	5-47w				Guadalquivir,		Palos, Cabo de,		
Valdepeñas.....	38-46n	3-23w				river.....	36-41n	cape.....	37-38n	0-41w

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Queija, Sierra de, mountains.....42-15n	7-18w	Tortosa, Cabo de, cape.....40-43n	0-55e
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The Roman conquest

in the north. The Mediterranean coast appears to have been settled by North Africans, whereas the Basques probably occupied a considerably larger area than the present Basque country. Ancient Greek and Phoenician settlements were established on the eastern and southern coasts, and Carthaginians founded large colonies in the southeast (around what is now Cartagena); but only the Romans were able to conquer the entire area, subjecting it to intensive Romanization. After the fall of the Roman Empire, Suebi, Vandals, and Alani razed the country. The Suebi consolidated a small kingdom in the northwest corner of the peninsula, but the whole peninsula eventually fell to the Visigoths. The Arabs invaded the peninsula in 711 and were not driven out of Spain until as late as 1492. These eight centuries of Arab influence, together with the prolonged Roman colonization, left a permanent imprint on the Spanish population. European influences dominate over non-European influences, however, and Spain is above all a Mediterranean European country that has many similarities to neighbouring countries such as France, Italy, and Portugal.

After almost five centuries of consolidation of the Spanish state, the population has become unified racially; and, with the possible exception of the wandering Gypsies, there are no recognizable racial minorities. Somehow, the Spanish population has incorporated into its genetic pool something from each of the succeeding invaders.

Linguistic groups. *Castilian.* Modern standard Spanish, or Castilian, is spoken throughout Spain. It is basically a Romance language, with some traces of other languages spoken in Spain before and after the Roman conquest, such as Celtic and Arabic. There are, however, important linguistic minorities within Spain—in the Mediterranean regions, in Galicia, and in the Basque country. Within the Castilian-speaking areas, there are some dialects spoken in remote places, such as the Bable of Asturias. There are also minor dialectal differences in Castilian vocabulary and pronunciation in the different regions. The best Castilian is reputed to be spoken in Old Castile, especially in the provinces of Burgos and Valladolid. The language spoken in southern Spain and the Canary Islands bears similarities to the Castilian of Latin America. Regional intonation and dialectal expressions can also be identified in the Castilian spoken in Catalonia, Galicia, and the Basque country. Castilian-speaking immigrants and their descendants living in Catalonia constitute a large and relatively underprivileged minority, particularly in the metropolitan area of Barcelona.

Catalan. Catalan is a Romance language closely related to the Provençal, or Occitan, language of southern France. It is spoken by a majority of the population in Catalonia, the Balearic Islands, and Valencia. The Valen-

cian dialect of Catalan, however, has a strong Castilian influence. Catalan is a highly developed language, with a wealth of literary tradition in the areas of poetry, the novel, and drama. A strong revival of the language in recent years resulted in the naming of Catalan and Spanish as the official languages of Catalonia in the constitution of 1978.

Galician. Modern Portuguese originated in Galician (or Gallego), a Romance language that is still spoken in the Spanish region of Galicia. During the 13th century, Galician was used by the Castilian king Alfonso X the Wise as the literary language of his court, but it later lost its importance and was widely influenced by Castilian. Galician is now rarely spoken in the cities of Galicia, although it survives in the countryside and also among the Galician fishermen. Nonetheless, a revival of literary Galician began in the late 1800s, and the constitution of 1978 recognized Galician as an official language to be taught in local schools.

Basque. The most distinctive of the non-Castilian languages is found in the Basque country. Basque is neither of Romance nor of Indo-European derivation. Its origins are uncertain, but it was spoken in the peninsula before the Romans conquered Spain. Over the centuries, the Basque-speaking area shrank, and it is now spoken mostly in the countryside, in fishing villages, and in the small towns of the Basque country and Navarre and is rarely heard in the cities. The language was a vehicle for the assertion of Basque identity in the 1960s and '70s, however, and there was a revival of the language at the popular level and among intellectual circles. Basque became a local official language in 1978.

Ethnic groups. The Spanish population is basically homogeneous in race and culture, and the only true racial minority within Spain is that of the Gypsies. While a large number of Gypsies have been integrated with the general populace, there still remain a substantial number who lead a nomadic life and who can be seen on Spain's roads and streets, driving carts, begging, or peddling. Although there are no reliable statistics, they are estimated to number a few hundred thousand. The larger Gypsy communities are to be found in the cities of Granada, Madrid, Barcelona, and Murcia. Many of them have regular jobs and send their children to public or private schools, but, in general, they are considered to be a deprived minority, who are discriminated against and unable to achieve full integration in Spanish society.

Unique ethnic features have been claimed for the populations of some of the Spanish regions, such as the Basque country and Andalusia. While some differences in the style of life and cultural traditions remain, the process of assimilation of the Spanish population has gone so far for so long a time that identification of ethnic groups can now be based only on language. Some of the most extreme Basque nationalists claim that there is a definite ethnic identity for the Basques, but exchanges between the Basque country and other parts of Spain have been so intense during the last two centuries that any original ethnic purity of the Basque population should now be considered to be much diluted.

Religious groups. *Roman Catholicism.* The majority of the Spanish population is Roman Catholic. Most Spaniards are baptized, married, and buried within the church. The process of industrialization and urbanization, however, has influenced the religious habits of the Spanish population, with a marked decrease in the church's influence upon everyday life. Under the constitution of 1978, the Catholic Church is no longer recognized as the established church of the state, although it still enjoys the government's financial support.

After the death in 1975 of Gen. Francisco Franco, who had been Spain's head of state from 1936, the Catholic Church supported the new democratic regime and thereby contributed greatly to an attitude of tolerance within Spanish society in general. The problem of relations between church and state, however, remained sensitive. Traditional anti-clerical attitudes became channelled during the late 20th century into the issues of divorce, abortion, and state financial support to private schools. The church's

The Gypsies

opposition to a proposed divorce law, and the general conservatism of Spanish bishops after the election of Pope John Paul II in 1978, led to a revival of old frictions between the church and liberal politicians, which reached its climax shortly before an unsuccessful coup d'état was attempted in February 1981. The dangerous constitutional situation provoked by the attempted coup in turn led the church and the political parties to search for new formulas of compromise between religious liberalization and the maintenance of traditional church privileges. By June 1981, divorce was legalized, and state support of private schools was barely challenged.

Religious minorities. Most of the non-Catholic minority population is Protestant. Among traditional Protestant churches, the most important are the Church of the Brethren and the Evangelical Baptist Church, with a few thousand members each. Since the middle decades of the 20th century, however, other groups have grown rapidly, and the Jehovah's Witnesses have become the most important Protestant sect. The Seventh-day Adventists claim a few thousand baptized members and several thousand additional adherents, and the Mormons claim about 1,000 members.

Eastern Orthodox and non-Christian groups are small. Among the non-Christians, the Jewish community is the most important.

Birth and mortality. The birth rate is about equal to the European average but is less than the figure for most developing countries. The long-range trend of the birth rate has been one of decline, especially since the mid-20th century, with a marked preference for small families. The natural rate of growth varies throughout the country, however, with the higher rates in the Canary Islands, Andalusia, Murcia, and the Basque country. The lowest birth rates are found in the plateau, especially in Old and New Castile.

Immigration and emigration. The traditional Spanish pattern of emigration to Latin America ended after the Spanish Civil War and World War II. During the 1950s and '60s, hundreds of thousands of Spaniards moved to western Europe, taking advantage of the economic boom. In the late 1970s, however, most of these emigrants returned to Spain, while western Europeans and Latin Americans settled in Spain, some temporarily, others permanently. Spain has granted asylum to many Latin-American political refugees. There are a few hundred thousand official foreign residents in Spain, and many others live in Spain without an official residence permit. Spaniards working in western Europe are estimated at between 250,000 and 500,000.

Internal migration became particularly important after the Civil War, showing the familiar industrial pattern of movement from the countryside to the cities. This has caused most Spanish cities to triple their population since the mid-1930s, whereas the population as a whole has grown by only 50 percent. Many small villages, especially those in the central plateau, became almost uninhabited and in a few cases were completely deserted. The main centres of attraction for internal migration were the cities of Madrid and Barcelona. Madrid attracted immigrants who had lived mostly in the centre and the northwest, while Barcelona drew its migrants from the east and the south. Other large cities, such as Bilbao, Valencia, Zaragoza, and Seville, also attracted large numbers of immigrants, as did most provincial capitals. The development of tourism drew migrants to the resort areas of the Costa Brava (Catalonia), Costa del Sol (Andalusia), the southeast (Alicante), and the Balearic and Canary islands. The economic slump of the late 20th century, however, brought internal migration to a halt, and in some cases the trend was reversed, with migrants returning to their places of origin in the countryside. The escalation of violence in the separatist movement pushed many non-Basques out of the Basque country.

Distribution of the population. About two-thirds of the population of Spain is found in the coastal regions, while only about one-third inhabits the plateau and the valley of the Ebro, which are regions that account for more than half of the national territory. Thus, the distribution of

the population is not evenly spread throughout the country. The coastal regions of the Basque country, Galicia, Catalonia, Valencia, and the Balearic and Canary islands have population densities that approach those of industrial western Europe, while the northern plateau, Navarre, and Aragón are almost deserted compared to western European standards. One-third of the inland population is concentrated in Madrid, accentuating the semi-deserted character of the central areas. The population within the coastal regions is more evenly distributed, although a substantial proportion is concentrated in the metropolitan area of Barcelona. Among the coastal regions only some areas of eastern Andalusia and Murcia approach the low densities of the plateau.

Most of Spain's population now inhabits cities with populations of 10,000 or more. Within the larger metropolitan areas, most people live in high-rise apartments in the cores of the cities, but suburbs developed during the 1960s and '70s, especially within the metropolitan districts of Madrid, Barcelona, and Bilbao.

General considerations. Because of its open spaces and moderately decreasing birth rate, Spain is not facing a population explosion. Industrialization and urbanization, however, have caused overpopulation and economic imbalance in Madrid, Barcelona, Bilbao, and other industrial areas, where pollution has become acute. The contamination of Spain's rivers and coastal waters threatens the nation's freshwater supplies and fish resources. A peculiar problem is posed by the massive influx of more than 30,000,000 tourists a year, especially during the summer months when the space available to Spaniards for recreation is reduced and public utilities are used to capacity. A decrease in tourism in the late 1970s and early '80s, and the consequent reduction in foreign currency revenues, led the government to develop new programs to improve the quality of life and to preserve natural resources in urban and industrial developments.

The Spanish economy was hard hit by the worldwide economic crisis of the 1970s. The crisis affected all aspects of Spanish life, including population growth, industrialization, and urbanization. The most immediate effect was a reduction in the exponential growth of production, which entailed a slowdown in industrial growth and an increase of the urban population.

The economic crisis appeared to have affected the growth of the population as well. The cumulative effects of inflation and unemployment, which were coupled with more permissive rules regarding contraception and a number of changes in social attitudes, led to a decrease in the birth rate. The increase of life expectancy, combined with the reduction of the birth rate, is expected to change Spain's demographic pyramid, bringing it more in line with those of other European countries; i.e., a pyramid marked by a larger number of older people than younger people.

(M.Me.)

THE ECONOMY

In the 1960s and early 1970s Spain had one of the fastest growing economies in Europe and was in the process of transformation from an underdeveloped to a developed country. By the end of the 1970s, the country's gross national product per capita was almost as high as that of Italy. Since about the mid-1950s, when Spain emerged from a period of economic and political isolation, its development, especially in trade with other countries, has been notable. In 1958 it joined the International Monetary Fund, in 1959 the Organization for European Economic Cooperation (now the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, or OECD), and in 1963 the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade. Spain became an associate member of the European Economic Community (EEC) in 1970 and applied for full membership in the EEC in 1977. Despite this rapid growth, Spain still needs increasing industrial investment and modernization of equipment.

Resources. Spain has one of western Europe's largest coal-mining industries. Pits are situated chiefly in Asturias, but there are also some in the lower hills of the Sierra

Coal
mining

Internal
migration

Uneven
population
distribution

Morena. Coal imports are mainly of coking coal, although the import of steam-raising coal is increasing. In the mid-1960s a radical reorganization of the industry was begun; uneconomic pits were closed, while investment was diverted to those having the greatest potential.

Discoveries of petroleum have so far proved disappointing, and the potential for commercial production from two natural gas fields—one in the Gulf of Cádiz and one at Jaca—is uncertain. The originally rich veins of hematite (rubious iron ore) of Bilbao are now nearly worked out, but Spain is relatively rich in other minerals, most of which are exported. Mercury is obtained from the ancient mines of Almadén in Ciudad Real, and there is also a good supply of tungsten, lead, zinc, potash, pyrites, and some uranium oxides.

Although Spain is a mountainous country in which, it might be thought, considerable hydroelectric power could be produced, the relatively low rainfall restricts capacity, and all profitable hydroelectric potential had been developed by the late 20th century. Spain is heavily dependent on imported petroleum.

Agriculture, forestry, and fishing. Although Spain is one of western Europe's largest agricultural producers, the barrenness of much of the countryside has always made agriculture and cattle rearing difficult. With the recent rapid increase of the manufacturing industry, it is not surprising that the proportion of national income provided by agriculture has steadily declined. Yet, despite the relative decline, agriculture has maintained a small real growth rate, the more notable in that the proportion of agricultural labourers is constantly diminishing.

The two main problems confronting Spanish agriculture are social and environmental; these involve, respectively, the *latifundia*, large estates owned by absentee landlords, and the still more intractable difficulty springing from the uncertain climatic conditions and the general infertility of the land. The *latifundia* are mainly in the south, in Extremadura and Andalusia, and although some attempt at division of them was begun in 1939, progress has not been great. More success has been achieved, however, in the amalgamation of small holdings into viable farm units.

Uncertain rainfall has a serious effect on crops, and land is mostly poor, with widespread soil erosion as a result of years of overtiling and overgrazing. Frost is frequently a formidable threat to the Valencian orange crop. With periodic widespread drought, irrigation has been an obvious necessity, and the earliest large canals and dams for this purpose, such as the Canal Imperial de Aragón on the Ebro, were built in the 18th century. Major irrigation projects have been carried out in the 20th century.

Barley and wheat are the two most important cereal crops in terms of land use and production. Despite government incentives for greater domestic production of corn (maize) and oil seeds, these are still imported in substantial quantities. Barley is grown in the southeast, while the wheat-producing areas are mainly in Old Castile, Aragón, New Castile, and Extremadura. The cereal lands, those which are less well irrigated, are farmed according to traditional practice, with a two-year rotation of crops. Pulses are a staple crop of the Meseta, while rice is grown in Valencia and the Ebro Delta. Potatoes, beans, and onions are also produced.

Spain's most successful adaptation to its difficult Mediterranean climate has been in citrus fruit production. Citrus fruit is grown mainly in Valencia and Castellón. Other areas specialize in other fruits; apples and pears are grown in the north and northwest, figs and almonds in Castellón and Alicante, and peaches and apricots in Murcia. The main crop of the *latifundia* is olives, almost the whole yield of which is made into oil. Grapes are grown especially in La Mancha, La Rioja, and the hills of Catalonia, Valencia, and Málaga. As the third largest wine-producing country in Europe, Spain has suffered from an overproduction of inferior wines. Brandy and sherry from Cádiz and Jerez de la Frontera and dessert wines from Valencia and Málaga remain in demand. Hemp, cotton, and tobacco are also grown, in comparatively small quantities.

Sheep and cattle rearing is very important, and Spain has one of Europe's largest sheep and goat populations. More

than half the cattle are concentrated in the humid north, especially dairy cows in the Cordillera Cantábrica. Sheep, concentrated on the Meseta, are of three main breeds: the long-wooled churro, the short-wooled merino, and the manchegan. Goats are best suited to the arid conditions of the southeast, and pigs are reared in the Holm-oak woodlands of Extremadura.

Some afforestation is practiced to counter soil erosion. Fishing is concentrated mainly on the northern and western Atlantic coasts and is particularly important in Galicia, where Vigo is the main fishing port. The catch comprises mainly sardines, anchovies, hake, cod, tunny, bream, mollusks, and crustaceans.

Industry. Although historical inertia and traditionalism long hampered the development of Spanish industry, the country's industrial growth rate since the mid-1950s has been one of the fastest in the world, and, in the late 20th century industry and construction contributed more than one-third of the total national output. Some manufacturing industries are long established and are supported by protectionist policies. The historical regional location of light industries still pertains: Manises, in Valencia province, is a centre for ceramic works; paper has been manufactured since Moorish times at Játiva, in the same province; Béjar, Segovia, Soria, and Burgos have long been woollen centres; and cotton manufactures are concentrated around Barcelona. Other light industries include a variety of textiles, clothing and footwear, food processing, liqueurs and wine, and light engineering. Chemical industries include the production of nitrogen fertilizers. During the late 20th century, massive investment was made in newer, high-technology industries.

Heavy industries are largely centred in the north, where metallurgical works are found in Santander and the Basque country. Bilbao has been a steel centre since the Middle Ages. Madrid has engineering and metalworks, in addition to a range of light industry. One of the most successful and competitive of Spain's heavy industries in the 1960s and early 1970s was shipbuilding. As in other countries, shipbuilding was adversely affected by the recession of the mid-1970s, but a restructuring of that industry, and of the steel and textile industries, was undertaken.

Financial services. The central bank is the Banco de España, in the profits of which the government has participated since 1922. Many dealings of the commercial and savings banks are government regulated, although there has been some loosening of controls. The majority of corporate borrowers, both public and private, have recourse either to these banks or to the state-owned holding corporation created in 1941, the Instituto Nacional de Industria (INI). Largely because the public prefers to keep its savings on deposit rather than invest in securities, the banks control a large part of the issued capital of Spanish limited-liability companies. A considerable amount of private investment is also financed from abroad, and the Spanish stock market has thus remained relatively undeveloped. The most important sources are the United States, West Germany, Switzerland, the United Kingdom, and France. The most important sectors of the economy thus affected have been chemicals, the automobile industry, and real estate.

Trade. Importing considerably more than it exports, Spain has traditionally had a visible trade deficit. The deficits have been attributed to Spain's dependence on crude-oil imports for energy requirements. Trade is most frequent with member countries of the EEC, the United States, and Saudi Arabia. There is also some trade with Latin America. Food and agricultural exports, mainly citrus fruit, wines, fish products, and olive oil, account for about one-fifth of the total bulk of exports. Raw materials exported are mainly iron ores and pyrites, while cotton goods, textiles, and clothing also have a steady market. Engineering and heavy industrial exports, such as ships, automobiles, and electrical goods, are increasingly important. Some agricultural products have to be imported, notably cereals, animal products, and vegetable oils. Spain also imports raw cotton as well as textile products; petroleum and its products account for about one-third of the cost of imports. Engineering goods are also brought in.

Sheep,
goats,
and
cattle

Industrial
growth

Citrus fruit
and wine
produc-
tion

Spain's rapid growth in the 1960s and early 1970s was made possible because imports were allowed to outstrip exports so greatly. The resultant gap was mainly financed in two striking ways. First, in the mid-1960s Spain became one of the world's most popular centres of tourism. Secondly, until the rise of unemployment in Europe began in 1973, Spain exported labour to other European countries, and workers' remittances sent home contributed substantially to the country's balance of payments.

Administration of the economy. *Private enterprise and the role of government.* Government influence over the economy is very strong in Spain. A large number of concerns are state-owned, including the railways, telephone services, and radio and television. The state also has large holdings of ordinary shares in a wide range of industrial companies, mostly through the medium of the INI. This corporation, run by the Ministry of Industry, owns wholly or in part some companies representing all facets of the industrial economy. In some industries, such as coal, basic steel, petroleum and petrochemicals, and automobile manufacture, INI's participation in individual firms has exerted an influence on the development of the sector as a whole.

Taxation and public spending. The collection of revenue by means of taxation was one of the least efficient features of the Spanish economy in the 1960s. Although incomes rose rapidly during the period, central government tax revenue did not rise proportionately. Legislation was introduced to enlarge the tax base and to improve the efficiency of collection. This led to a wholesale revision of the taxation structure.

Industrial development in the middle and late 20th century was stimulated by central government subsidies to certain designated regional development areas and by tax and other subsidies to favoured sectors of the economy, such as mining and automobile manufacturing. Social, health, and educational services were neglected until the late 1970s, when central government expenditure in these areas was substantially increased.

Trade unions and employers' associations. Spain's trade-union structure, the syndicalist system, was an integral feature of the country's political development since the end of the Civil War. Broadly speaking, most organized economic concerns, comprising mainly the manufacturing and service industries and a substantial section of agriculture, were covered by "syndicates." In theory, these syndicates represented simultaneously the interests of employers, workers, and the state, and their formal structure reflected the Fascist preoccupations of the 1930s and 1940s.

Early in 1971 the Spanish Parliament approved a new, government-sponsored basic law for trade-union activities. Although the vertical and comprehensive structure of the syndicates was retained—under the control of a Cabinet minister, the minister for syndical relations—the new law allowed management, technicians, and workers to set up independent associations. Workers could hold meetings and would be able to appeal in the courts against certain types of government decisions. But even in its new form, Spanish industrial and trade-union organization was still far from even approximating that of the countries of the European Economic Community.

In 1977, independent trade unions were legally recognized, and by 1981 there were three main trade unions—the Confederación Sindical de Comisiones Obreras, which has connections with the Communist Party; the Unión General de Trabajadores de España, which is linked with the major Socialist party; and the Unión Sindical Obrera. After 1977, labour legislation provided the basis for a new framework for labour relations and in 1980 a Workers Statute was enacted that covered a variety of labour issues.

Contemporary economic policies. From the late 1950s a group that came to be known as the technocrats tried to modernize and internationalize the Spanish economy. The convictions underlying their policies were that adjustment would be easier and more successful in the context of rapid, overall growth and that this would be stimulated by encouraging competition. The technocrats, whose power base was originally in the planning departments, were so

successful that it became fashionable to believe that they had effective control of the economy, but their appearance of success stemmed partly from the fact that the overall performance of the economy was at that time reasonably satisfactory. Their influence on individual sections of the economy was often apparent rather than real, and their successful manipulation of overall policy did not mean that they had managed to reform particular monetary institutions and practices. They failed adequately to effect the reduction or elimination of subsidies, and particular business decisions remained subjected to far greater government regulation in Spain than in other Western industrialized economies.

Government economic policy statements have increasingly emphasized the need for lessening government intervention in the economy. Some progress in that direction was made. Industrial planning, for example, became subject to fewer regulations, and the number of prices controlled by the government was made much smaller than it had been. Greater liberalization of the financial system was also envisaged; in 1978, legislation was passed allowing foreign banks to operate in Spain, and, in 1981, banks were permitted to set their own interest rates on most credits.

In common with other European countries, Spain has had to contend with recession, inflation, unemployment, and balance of payments. Priority was initially given to curbing the rate of inflation. With unemployment figures very high, however, the government placed far greater emphasis on the need for incentives and investment that would result in the creation of more jobs.

(E.I.U.)

Transportation. The first system of communications established on the Iberian Peninsula dates back to Roman times, and traces of the extensive Roman road network still remain. A new system of highways was not built until the 18th century, during the reign of the first Bourbon kings. Since their capital, Madrid, was situated in the heart of the country, the new system took the form of radial highways extending to the periphery of the peninsula. During the 19th century and into the 20th, efforts were made to consolidate the system of public works. The maintenance and improvement of highways has been one of the chief features of successive plans for economic and social development that have been undertaken.

Roads. Of the national highway network, several thousand miles are classified as basic and complementary highways, and the remaining highways are regional. Additional public roads include municipal roads, rural roads, forestry roads, and roads leading to industrial and other projects.

The Red de Itinerarios Asfálticos (Redia; Network of Asphalt-Paved Roads) program was approved in 1967. Under this plan several thousand miles of frequently travelled state highways were given a coating of asphalt over coal brick and were widened for at least two lanes of traffic. In the late 20th century, the plan was expanded to include all basic highways. Construction of a motorway (expressway) network was initiated in 1967 to build several thousand miles of modern roadways.

Spain's highways carry some of the heaviest traffic in the world. Traffic congestion is especially critical along the coasts. The autonomous regions of Spain were granted the authority to manage the roads within their boundaries, the national government reserving control over certain national network roads.

Railroads. Spain was only the ninth European nation to undertake the construction of railroads, beginning with the lines between Barcelona and Mataró (1848) and between Madrid and Aranjuez (1851). During the second half of the 19th century, the national railroad system was gradually expanded, with Madrid as its centre. The legal arrangement under which the Spanish railroads operated was one of indirect government ownership, whereby the state granted concessions to private companies or individuals for the construction and management of the railroads during a 99-year period, after which the railroads with all their installations and rolling stock would become the perpetual property of the state. This arrangement was radically changed in 1941 by the passage of the law that established

Tax
revision

The
trade
unions

The
Roman
heritage

The
Redia
program

the Red Nacional de los Ferrocarriles Españoles (Renfe; National Network of Spanish Railroads). The Civil War of 1936–39 had done considerable damage to the railroads, and it was said that only the takeover of operations by the state could save them from economic disaster. The greater part of the rolling stock belonging to the railroads consisted of outmoded equipment. In 1964 a major long-term modernization plan was initiated. Outstanding among the new equipment introduced were the Talgo and the Talgo Pendular, light trains of Spanish design. The Renfe lines total several thousand miles of track, a substantial proportion of which is electrified. Madrid, Barcelona, and Seville have metropolitan subway networks.

Ports and maritime transportation. Spain's narrow and mountainous isthmus makes the country almost an island in terms of international trade, with the overwhelming majority of the country's imports and exports being carried by sea. Although the domestic transport of goods is done mainly by land, international trade is carried on by sea. Spain's merchant marine (not including the fishing fleet) was 13th in the world in total tonnage in 1980.

Spain's maritime traffic includes that of the fishing fleet, scheduled and unscheduled coastal shipping, the "Sovereignty Lines," and international lines that carry passengers and cargo. Before 1977, the "Sovereignty Lines" were national shipping concerns that provided coastal shipping, under government concessions, between the peninsula and the Balearic and Canary islands and the provinces of Ceuta and Melilla. The Transmediterranean Corporation had been granted an exclusive concession in 1922, but because of its need for heavy government subsidies despite the poor service given, the corporation was placed under government management and in 1977 became public property under the management of the National Institute of Industry. The most important international passenger and cargo lines are those that operate between Spain and Central and South America and the United States.

Spain has many major ports that carry on a well-developed and coordinated regional maritime trade. The most important ports are those of Bilbao, Tarragona, Barcelona, Santa Cruz de Tenerife, Algeciras, Cartagena, Gijón, Las Palmas, Valencia, Huelva, Málaga, and Coruña. There are numerous smaller ports that carry on a large coastal trade in the peninsula and the islands. They are an important factor in Spain's socioeconomic structure, providing facilities for fishing, passenger transport, and aquatic sports.

The four autonomous ports of Barcelona, Bilbao, Huelva, and Valencia are run independently except for planning and finance. The other major ports are managed by autonomous government councils with more limited powers. The smaller ports are grouped into 20 administrative units. The coordination of the port system in Spain is the responsibility of the Dirección General de Puertos y Costas (General Administration of Ports and Coasts) of the Ministry of Public Works and Urbanism. Port facilities are financed by anchorage charges and government financing.

Air transport. The two national airlines of Spain, Iberia and Aviaco, are stock companies of which the National Institute of Industry holds the majority of shares. Several other airlines, which conduct unscheduled flights between cities, have tended in the late 20th century toward the creation of regional passenger and cargo services. Iberia, the company that best represents the country, employs many thousands of persons; its fleet of airplanes includes propeller planes used for small airports and short flights and jet aircraft.

Spain has many civil airports and military air bases that are open to civil aviation. International services are available at the majority of the civil airports and at the Reus military air base. Among the newest airports are the Foronda airport in Vitoria, serving the provinces of Navarra, Burgos, and Logroño, and the Queen Sofia airport in Tenerife-Sur. The Foronda airport functions as a regional airport, receiving all the air traffic of the region and channelling it to the others. The Madrid airport handles the greatest percentage of the total volume of passenger traffic; Palma de Mallorca is second, and Barcelona is third.

ADMINISTRATIVE AND SOCIAL CONDITIONS

Between 1938 and 1978, Spain had what was characterized as an open constitutional system in which a series of Fundamental Laws regulated all matters traditionally included in national constitutions. The Fundamental Laws were replaced by a new constitution that came into effect on December 29, 1978. The new document describes Spain's political system as a constitutional monarchy based on democracy, a respect for law, and a mercantile economy. The historical tension in Spain between a centralized government and regional autonomy was addressed by the constitution, which recognizes both the "indissoluble unity of the Spanish nation" and "the right to self-government of the nationalities and regions of which it is composed and solidarity among them all."

Government. *The Crown.* The king is the head of state and the highest representative of the government in international affairs. Among his domestic powers, he may ratify and promote new laws, summon or dissolve the legislature, call for general elections or referendums, propose candidates for the office of president of the government (prime minister), appoint or dismiss the president, and appoint or dismiss members of the Cabinet. The king is also the head of the armed forces; he has the power to declare war and to sign peace treaties.

The Cortes. The bicameral legislature of Spain, called the Cortes Generales, represents the Spanish people and guards their sovereignty. It is comprised of two houses—the Congress of Deputies, or Lower Chamber (Cámara Baja), and the Senate, or Upper Chamber (Cámara Alta). The members of the Congress are elected every four years by universal suffrage in provincial elections. The Senate is composed of four members from each of Spain's autonomous communities and insular provinces; they are also elected every four years.

Both houses, the members of which have parliamentary inviolability and immunity, have the power of legislative initiative, which they share with the executive branch, the assemblies of the autonomous communities, and the people (a popular initiative requiring 500,000 signatures). The Congress, however, has the greatest legislative power. The period of time during which a bill initiated in the Congress can be modified by the Senate is limited to two months, or 20 days in case of emergency. Should the Congress not approve changes called for by the Senate, the bill, as written in the Congress, may be approved and promulgated by the king. Bills proposed by the Senate are sent to the Congress for the usual debate.

The Cortes must approve any international treaty, any law regarding personal rights, and any repeal or reform of any internal law. Either chamber may ask the executive branch for information or help and may demand that members of the executive branch attend their meetings and answer their questions.

The executive branch. The executive branch consists of the president, the vice presidents, and the heads of the various ministries. Through the exercise of its executive and regulatory powers, the executive branch directs international and national policies, civil and military administration, and the defense of the nation.

A candidate for the presidency, usually put forth by the majority party in the Cortes, is proposed to the Cortes by the king. After receiving the approval of the Congress, he is named to the presidency by the king. The president and the members of his cabinet are responsible to the Congress and to the Supreme Court.

Members of the executive branch, though not necessarily part of the legislature, have access to meetings of the Cortes and its committees. The executive branch may ask Congress for a vote of confidence, which is granted by a simple majority vote. A motion of censure, requiring an absolute majority vote, results in the downfall of the government and the automatic appointment of the presidential candidate mentioned in the motion. The president may dissolve the Cortes and call for elections if a motion to censure his government is not pending.

Individual rights and liberties. The acknowledgement and protection of individual rights and liberties are as important to the definition of a state as a division of power

Powers
of the
legislature

The
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Spain's
ports

and the principle that all power comes from the people. The Spanish constitution of 1978 recognizes these rights and freedoms, incorporating them into the law and providing channels for their guarantee and protection. The rights recognized include those to equality before the law, to life, to religious and ideological freedom, to personal freedom, to privacy, to the inviolability of a person's home, to freedom of residence and of movement, and to freedom of expression and education. They also include the freedom to meet and participate in associations, strikes, and petitions and the right to own property and to attain a good quality of life.

During a state of emergency, the government may suspend certain rights and liberties for a period of 30 to 60 days in all or part of the country. During a state of siege, the period of suspension is to be determined by the Congress. This suspension of rights does not decrease the government's political or legal responsibility for acts committed by its agents during normal or abnormal circumstances.

Autonomous communities. In the late 1970s and early 1980s Spain was in the process of developing a new system of local government. Under Title VIII of the constitution of 1978, "bordering provinces with common historic, cultural, and economic characteristics" may group together in autonomous communities. Each of these communities is to be given the power to govern itself, but this power must not violate the interests of Spain as a whole. The constitution allows for variation within the autonomous communities in accordance with a particular region's historical relationship with the central government. The central government, however, regulates the amount of autonomy to be granted to any particular community.

Autonomous status is granted following negotiations between the central government and the future community. These negotiations are initiated by the administrations of the provinces that will eventually comprise the new community. Two-thirds of the municipalities within the provinces, representing the majority of the population concerned, must agree to seek autonomous status. During the transition period, all levels of administrative and legislative action are maintained by the central government. By 1984, autonomous status had been granted to 17 "autonomous communities."

The provinces. The old provincial unit of local government, first introduced into Spain in 1883, was defined by the constitution of 1978 as a grouping of municipalities for the purpose of carrying out central government programs. Within each province is a Provincial Delegation of 24 to 51 members; the membership of a delegation is elected from among that province's municipal officials.

The municipalities. A municipality is a unit of local government, the autonomy and local jurisdiction of which are guaranteed by the constitution of 1978. Each municipality is governed by a municipal council, the members of which are elected by universal, direct suffrage by the inhabitants of the municipality. The municipal council elects a mayor, who is president of the council and chief administrator of the municipality, as well as the representative of the central government.

Large cities, such as Madrid and Barcelona, have special municipal governments in which the administrative and fiscal systems are strengthened, thereby making possible the administration and execution of such matters as urban planning.

The political process. Democratic plurality and universal suffrage are guaranteed in the constitution of 1978. The mosaic of peoples that makes up Spain is the basis for decentralized political participation, or autonomy.

Political parties are described in the constitution as expressing political pluralism, contributing to the formation and manifestation of the will of the people, and serving as the fundamental instrument of political participation.

There were four major political parties in Spain in the early 1980s. The Unión de Centro Democrático (Democratic Centre Union; UCD), led by Adolfo Suárez, was a moderate coalition that took the parliamentary majority in the Cortes in 1977 and 1979. The Partido Socialista Obrero Español (Socialist Workers Party of Spain; PSOE),

led by Felipe González, was the successor of the Partido Socialista (Socialist Party), founded by Pablo Iglesias 100 years ago; after the elections of 1977, it absorbed the Partido Socialista Popular (Popular Socialist Party), led by Tierno Galván. The PSOE was the opposition party until 1982, upholding the concept of socialist reform within the democratic framework. In the 1982 national elections the PSOE won a solid majority in the Cortes Generales and 46 percent of the popular vote, becoming the party in power. The Partido Comunista de España (Communist Party of Spain; PCE), led by Santiago Carrillo, was founded in 1921. Since 1968, it has moved away from the Soviet Union and attached itself to the concept of Eurocommunism. The Coalición Democrática (Democratic Coalition; CD), led by Manuel Fraga Iribarne, is basically a successor of the Alianza Popular; it was the most important conservative force in the 1977 election, representing the traditional right.

In addition to the countrywide parties, there are local nationalist parties in the autonomous communities of the Basque country, Catalonia, and Andalusia.

Justice. Spanish judicial structures alone possess the faculty of passing judgment and applying laws. Justice comes from the people and is administered in the name of the king through judges and magistrates who together form the independent judiciary.

The Supreme Court, with jurisdiction over the entire country, is the final arbiter in every question of justice except for matters relating to the constitution, which are referred to the Constitutional Tribunal. The president of the Supreme Court is proposed by the Consejo General del Poder Judicial (General Council of Judicial Power) and named by the king. The Supreme Court is comprised of six courts: the civil court, the penal court, three courts for administrative litigation, and one court for social and labour issues.

The National High Court, also with jurisdiction over the entire nation, is supplemental to the Supreme Court and the Territorial High Courts. It consists of tribunals for criminal matters and for administrative litigation.

The Supreme Courts of the autonomous communities, in which the local High Courts are integrated, are the highest courts within their communities. Their jurisdiction is subordinate to that of the national Supreme Court.

The Territorial High Courts are located in the country's 15 juridical districts. Each high court has a criminal and a civil tribunal, as do each of the Provincial High Courts.

There are more than 500 petty courts (*juzgados*) throughout Spain. Although some of them have separate criminal and civil jurisdictions, most have powers in both areas of the law. District courts hear civil and criminal cases in one or more municipalities; they are also responsible for the Civil Registry, which keeps a record of the civil status of local citizens. There are also courts for labour disputes and for juveniles.

Armed forces. The military forces of Spain include the army, the navy, and the air force, with reservists in each branch. The king is the commander in chief of the military forces; the president, in conjunction with the National Defense Board, is the national leader in times of war. The military forces are part of the Ministry of Defense, which formulates and executes national military policy. The supreme command of all the military forces includes the chiefs of staff of the army, navy, and air force; it is responsible for the regular maintenance and care of the armed forces.

Military service is compulsory for all Spanish males, except for those exempt by law. The length of service is between 15 and 18 months.

The national police corps is structurally and organizationally a military body. It is not part of the military forces, however, but is responsible to the Ministry of the Interior. It is charged with the prevention and repression of criminal acts committed in cities and other important urban areas. The civil guard (Guardia Civil), founded in 1844, is one of the oldest and most typical of Spain's police forces. It is part of the military forces, but in times of peace it is also responsible to the Ministry of the Interior. It is responsible for enforcing regulations regarding

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