THE 18TH CENTURY: THE ENLIGHTENMENT, DESPOTISM AND PARLIAMENTARIANISM

Great technological and scientific developments can be achieved simply through observation and experimentation.

MAKE IT! Choose a key figure, male or female, of the Enlightenment, whether it be a philosopher, an artist or a scientist. Research the person’s life and write a short biography that includes this figure’s important contribution to this movement and how it differed from traditional ideas. As a class, create a timeline mural with images and biographies of all the people you have chosen.
The 18th century was a time full of innovation. In groups, research one of the main inventions developed during this period. You are travelling vendors at the time and want to sell this new idea. Design an advertisement that includes a diagram of the invention and label its components. Describe how the invention works and explain why it is so unique. Post your final product on the class blog.

FUNDING IN RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT HAS LED TO GREAT BREAKTHROUGHS THAT HAVE IMPROVED EVERYDAY LIFE AND INCREASED LIFE EXPECTANCY.

Governments can play a large role in supporting innovation by financing the development of new ideas in science and technology. However, spending in this area is usually limited.

In pairs, choose a role. Student A is a government advisor who wants to limit funding in research and development and believes that using the money elsewhere is the best path in the near future. Student B is a researcher who believes that an investment in the development of science and technology is an investment in a brighter future. Develop your arguments. Then, present and defend your points of view to the class.
1 THE ANTHROPOCENTRIC CULTURE IN THE MODERN AGE

Economic and social progress were not the only advances made in Europe in the Modern Age. From the Renaissance to the 18th century, thought and culture underwent a process of constant change, moving away from the theocentrism of the medieval period and the cultural hegemony of the Catholic Church.

**Humanism** was the first cultural movement to develop an anthropocentric worldview, compared to medieval Christian thought. Human beings, their intelligence and their love of knowledge were some of the main concerns of humanists, even though they were at the service of the Christian faith.

The importance of humanism grew with the invention of the **movable-type printing press**, which allowed ideas to spread more quickly than they had before. The emphasis of this cultural movement on humans and on the individual also encouraged personal religiosity, and favoured the individual interpretation of the Bible. These features were very important in the appearance and spread of the **Protestant Reformation** in the 16th century.

2 THE SCIENTIFIC REVOLUTION

Modern science emerged during these centuries. In the 16th century, Nicolaus Copernicus formulated his heliocentric theory, which refuted the geocentric theory. The scientists and philosophers in the following century based their work on his theories.

These scientists laid the foundations of the **scientific method**, a research method based on observation and experimentation. Advances in science in the 17th century took place within an intellectual context and developed due to philosophical currents like empiricism and rationalism.

- **Empiricism** claimed that we should not accept reasoning that could not be empirically validated through observation and experimentation. The Englishman Francis Bacon was its main representative.

- **Rationalism** stated that the truths established by authority and tradition should be criticised, and that reason was the only valid criterion. The Frenchman René Descartes was its main representative.

3 TECHNOLOGICAL AND SCIENTIFIC ADVANCES IN THE 18TH CENTURY

Many disciplines benefited from advances in science and technology throughout the 18th century. **Science** is knowledge obtained through observation and reasoning, with a systematic structure from which we deduce general principles and laws that can be verified experimentally. In comparison, **technique** is a set of procedures that allow scientists to put their knowledge of science into practice.

**NICOLAUS COPERNICUS**

(1473–1543)

Renaissance scientists, such as Nicolaus Copernicus, recovered the study of nature based on observation and experimentation for the West. Copernicus formulated the heliocentric theory, in which the Earth and the planets revolve around the Sun at the centre of the universe.
TECHNOLOGICAL ADVANCES

They were made to meet the demands of a changing economy. Great Britain was the most pioneering country. James Watt invented the **steam engine** that Edmund Cartwright began using in power looms in 1785. Another important technological advance was a new method for obtaining iron using coke (a solid, grey fuel). This produced cast iron, a very strong material. The first single-arch cast-iron bridge was built in 1779, and the first iron boat was built in 1787.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>JAMES WATT’S MACHINE</th>
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<td>The steam engine, designed by James Watt, was the first engine powered by steam. It meant that power provided by animals or nature was no longer required for certain industrial activities.</td>
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<th>IRONBRIDGE</th>
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<td>A bridge was built over the River Severn at Coalbrookdale (England) in 1779. It was the first cast-iron arch bridge, marking the start of the use of cast iron in large civil engineering projects.</td>
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IT’S A FACT!

IN 1785, TWO MEN SUCCESSFULLY CROSSED THE ENGLISH CHANNEL IN A BALLOON. This was an important milestone in scientific research and travel.

SCIENTIFIC ADVANCES

Some of these included the invention of the **mercury thermometer** by Daniel Fahrenheit in 1714, and the creation of the **centigrade temperature scale** by Anders Celsius in 1742. Carl Linnaeus classified plants using a binomial nomenclature, the **Linnaean taxonomy**, giving each plant a scientific name in Latin consisting of a genus and species.

OTHER ADVANCES

Other important advances were made by Benjamin Franklin, who invented the **lightning rod**, Antoine Lavoisier, who analysed the **composition of air** and **isolated oxygen**, and Alessandro Volta, who invented the **battery**.

SPEAK

Which technological or scientific advance in the 18th century had the biggest impact on our lives today? With your partner, discuss the question and give reasons to support your ideas.

**KEY STRUCTURES:** I think the invention of the ... has had the biggest impact on ...; One of the reasons is that today we still use ...; Can you imagine life today without ...?

**KEY VOCABULARY:** brilliant, game-changing, innovative, long-lasting, revolutionary
CHARACTERISTICS OF ENLIGHTENMENT

The scientific and intellectual advances that took place during the European Modern Age were not accepted by everybody. On many occasions there was resistance from political and religious powers. Furthermore, society in the 16th to 18th centuries was still largely illiterate, which made it extremely difficult to universalise and understand ideas and discoveries.

However, a new intellectual movement appeared among the educated elites of the 18th century that would develop until the end of the century, the Enlightenment. This was a European phenomenon with France as its main epicentre. It also spread to America. Enlightenment thinkers were noblemen, the bourgeoisie and clergymen alike.

The Enlightenment brought together the ideas of the main cultural and philosophical movements of the previous centuries. Like humanism, empiricism and rationalism, it called on the individual, reason and experience as ways to overcome humanity’s problems. It was an optimistic intellectual movement that expressed hope in the future through different ideas:

- **Reason** was understood as human rationality that could illuminate the darkness and society’s errors. Reason was the way to overcome biased notions and religious dogmas. This led some Enlightenment thinkers to challenge all religious beliefs.

- **Progress** was thought of as the development of knowledge so that civilisation could control nature and create well-being and wealth.

- **Happiness** was considered an individual right and a societal aspiration that leaders were obligated to provide.

GOTTFRIED LEIBNIZ (1646–1716)

The German philosopher, who was the forerunner of the Enlightenment, stated that:  
*Nothing is more useful in achieving happiness than the light of the intellect.*

IMMANUEL KANT (1724–1804)

Kant was a Prussian philosopher born in the modern Russian city of Kaliningrad. In his essay *Answering the Question: What is Enlightenment?* he answers the question in the first sentence of the essay:  
‘Enlightenment is man’s emergence from his self-incurred immaturity. This minority is self-incurred [...]. Have courage to make use of your own understanding! is thus the motto of Enlightenment.’
2 THE EVOLUTION OF THE ENLIGHTENMENT

The Enlightenment was mostly a reformist movement; it defended its aims through reforms of politics, society, the economy and culture. For example, most Enlightenment thinkers were monarchists, but they supported reforming monarchies to guarantee individual rights and moderate the power of absolute kings.

They placed a lot of importance on education and pedagogy. Enlightenment thinkers supported extending education to the people and ensuring that the Church did not monopolise it. But, in general, they wanted to limit it to basic knowledge, reserving the most important knowledge for the intellectual elites. In turn, the Enlightenment led to different scientific and technical innovations.

The development of the Enlightenment caused the Church and absolutism to lose part of their influence, and there was a more critical intellectual attitude. It also encouraged certain improvements. For example, some progress was made in literacy within society, notably in Prussia, which established the world’s first regulated primary education system for boys and girls.

As these were important achievements, some Enlightenment thinkers understood that they were insufficient to achieve the triumph of lights, progress and happiness, so a more radical critique of the political and social system emerged. Therefore, thinkers like Diderot, Montesquieu, Voltaire and Rousseau were the intellectual link that united the Enlightenment with the major changes that began to take place in the last third of the 18th century.

**JOHN LOCKE (1632–1704)**

The political theory of British philosopher John Locke had a key influence on the most critical Enlightenment thinkers. He was the first to defend the existence of three individual rights common to all people: the right to life, liberty and property.

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**MONTESQUIEU (1689–1755)**

The Baron of Montesquieu was a French magistrate who criticised absolute monarchies where the king held all fundamental powers.

He proposed a moderate monarchy with separation of the executive, legislative and judicial powers.

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**VOLTAIRE (1694–1778)**

Voltaire was a wealthy, middle-class property owner who criticised religious fanaticism and the structure of the Church. He was an advocate of freedom of religion.

Although he was in favour of enlightened despotism, he fought for civil rights and judicial reform.

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**ROUSSEAU (1712–1778)**

Rousseau was from a middle-class background. He proposed a model of society where sovereignty was in the hands of the people and not of the king. Rousseau believed that society should be guided by the general will expressed directly by the sovereign people. In short, he supported democracy.
3 THE SPREAD OF ENLIGHTENMENT IDEAS

The new Enlightenment ideas were printed in the press and in books. Above all, they were spread by the Encyclopédie, the most important book of the Age of Enlightenment. Edited by French Enlightenment thinkers Diderot and D’Alembert, the 28 volumes of the Encyclopédie were published between 1751 and 1772, to summarise the knowledge of the era. Topics and ideas were organised alphabetically, a new development at the time. About 25,000 people subscribed to it.

• At the end of the 18th century, newspapers were published daily, weekly and on Sundays. The first Spanish newspaper was Diario noticioso, curioso, erudito, comercial y político, published in 1758.

• Enlightenment ideas were not spread where social life had formerly taken place, in churches, families and guilds. They were spread by word of mouth in gatherings of the nobility and upper middle class, in coffee houses, taverns and salons. These salons were usually known by the name of the people that organised them. Guests enjoyed conversation with well-known philosophers and writers, and discussed the most outstanding readings of the time.

• Reading societies were also established. These acted as the first public libraries from which books could be borrowed. The number of books published therefore increased significantly during the Age of Enlightenment. In England, for example, the number of titles published increased from 21,000, in 1710 to 65,000, in 1790. Books on religion were replaced by books on science, the arts, philosophy and literature.

• Scientists and intellectuals gathered in academies, where lectures were given, scientific and literary works were read and, above all, practical work was carried out: topographical, agricultural and climate studies; dictionaries and statistics on population, professions and income; scientific and archaeological expeditions; industrial projects, etc. These studies were usually supported by monarchs, who were interested in implementing government reforms. The monarchs therefore created important academies, such as the academies of sciences in Paris (France), St. Petersburg (Russia) and Berlin (Prussia).

THE SPANISH-FRENCH GEODESIC MISSION

Between 1735 and 1744, the French Academy of Sciences in Paris organised an expedition to Quito, in the Viceroyalty of Peru, to measure the length of a degree of latitude at the Equator. Spanish scientists Jorge Juan y Santacilia and Antonio de Ulloa took part in the expedition. Another group travelled to Lapland, in the Arctic Circle, to take the same measurement. The scientists proved that the Earth was flatter at the poles.

Jorge Juan y Santacilia
WOMEN IN THE ENLIGHTENMENT

Compared to men, women experienced inequality and subordination. Some of these women, usually wealthy ones, protested about women’s social situation and tried to improve it, based on Enlightenment ideas of progress and reasoning.

SALONS: MARIE-THÉRÈSE RODET

The Enlightenment promoted the exchange of ideas for the progress of knowledge. From an early age, Marie-Thérèse Rodet (1699–1777) attended the literary salons of Paris. Eventually, Marie-Thérèse Rodet became famous for starting her own salon. Her guests included D’Alembert, Diderot, Benjamin Franklin, Montesquieu, Voltaire, Suzanne Curchod, known as Madame Necker, and Gustav III of Sweden.

SCIENCE, LITERATURE AND ART

As well as organising salons, more and more women began to work in professions previously only worked in by men. They therefore became visible in activities previously denied to them. Women made important scientific and cultural contributions during the Age of Enlightenment.

ÉMILIE DU CHÂTELET (1706–1749)

A mathematician, physicist and writer, she helped disseminate the theories of Newton by translating his works into French. Her translation was a very important step in the dissemination of Newton’s work in France. Châtelet regularly met with important scientists of the period and worked with Voltaire.

MARÍA GAETANA AGNESI (1718–1799)

A teacher, linguist and mathematician, she spoke several languages and published a number of books on calculus that were used in teaching for a long time. She taught at the University of Bologna.

MARY WOLLSTONECRAFT (1759–1797)

One of the first women to become known as a feminist. As well as working as a translator, she wrote tales and short stories and an important treatise on women’s rights, entitled A Vindication of the Rights of Woman (1792).
Enlightenment ideas also had an influence in Spain. 18th-century kings promoted the publication of books and protected some Enlightenment authors, such as Augustinian monk Jerónimo Feijoo, who wrote two books criticising the prejudices of traditional society: *Teatro crítico universal* and *Cartas eruditas y curiosas*.

The Crown also sponsored various scientific expeditions, such as the ones by Félix de Azara and Alejandro Malaspina in South America, to gather geographical and botanical data. However, the Church still imposed censorship, and some advances made in the scientific revolution, such as Copernicus’s heliocentric theory, were still not known by the wider public. They were only discussed in certain intellectual circles, such as amongst the novatores in Valencia. They wanted to renew Spanish thinking and science, so Spain could catch up with other countries.

The main Enlightenment thinkers formed part of the political and cultural elite. Some were given important positions, such as Campomanes, Floridablanca and Jovellanos, who became ministers. They believed that Spain’s backwardness was the result of its historic lack of development of sciences with practical applications. They therefore also wanted to modernise the education system with new schools in addition to traditional universities.

**NEW EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS**

The monarchs created or sponsored various types of educational institutions to renew education.

- **Academies.** They were important institutions, protected by the king in defence of certain aspects of culture. Examples include the Academia de la Lengua Española and the Academia de Bellas Artes de San Fernando, both in Madrid, and the Academia de Matemáticas, in Barcelona.

- **Sociedades Económicas de Amigos del País** (Economic Societies of Friends of the Country). The aim of these societies was to stimulate study and experimentation to improve agriculture and artisan industries in the kingdoms and territories of the Hispanic Monarchy. The Aragonese and the Bascongada societies were particularly important.

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**GASPAR MELCHOR DE JOVELLANOS (1744–1811)**

He was a minister and friend of Goya’s. Jovellanos was an Enlightenment thinker made famous for his *Report on Agrarian Law* (1793), in which he criticised the mayorazgos, described the problems in the Spanish farming sector and proposed solutions.

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**SPEAK**

Academies for different fields were set up in the 18th century. If you could set up some new academies to benefit society today, what would they be? Which fields would they explore? Discuss ideas in pairs or small groups.

**KEY STRUCTURES:** I would set up an academy to ...; I think the field of ... deserves more research and investment because ...; It would be useful to have an academy dedicated to ...
The farming sector was the first to undergo significant changes. Some improvements had already been made throughout the Modern Age, such as improvements to machinery in some European countries. However, new methods first became widely used in Great Britain at the beginning of the 18th century, where the innovations of the last two centuries intensified.

**AGRICULTURAL INNOVATIONS**

- The fallow method, in which some of the land was left uncultivated to allow the soil to regenerate, was eliminated.
- Continuous crop rotation was implemented instead, with species such as legumes.
- Continuous rotation was based on introducing crops that replenished the soil even though the field was not left fallow and that could be used as food for livestock.
- Many products from the Americas were grown, such as tomatoes, potatoes and corn, and the shoeing of draft horses was improved.

In the British countryside, the productivity of the land also continued to increase thanks to the first experiences in the mechanisation of agricultural work (iron ploughs, seed drills and new harvesting techniques). These innovations appeared within the context of the technical advances of the 18th century and quickly spread to some European and American countries. However, modernisation did not take place in Southern and Eastern Europe for several decades.

Nevertheless, not only technical improvements helped increase British agricultural productivity. There were also decisive changes in the laws that changed the distribution of land ownership among the social classes. Between 1760 and 1840, common land for communal use was gradually enclosed by the British parliament, and became privately owned. The new owners introduced new farming methods and cultivated their land in order to supply urban markets.

The Agricultural Revolution had many consequences. On the one hand, the large increase in food production made it possible to increase the population. On the other hand, iron tools and machines were needed, which stimulated industrial development over the following decades.

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**SPEAK** You are an environmental activist. The government has asked you to submit some ideas to result in an Agricultural Revolution in the 21st century. What changes should take place in farming to help us sustain and protect our planet? In pairs, agree on two ideas to present to the government.

- **KEY STRUCTURES:** I would reduce ...; I would introduce ...; One measure could be to ...
- **KEY VOCABULARY:** cattle, crops, intensive farming, production, pesticides, predators, recycle waste, rotate crops, replant

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**ENCLOSURES**

Enclosures were farms expropriated from communal land in English towns by landowners. Their name comes from enclosing plots with fences or hedges.
The 18th century marks the end of the Modern Age and the beginning of the Contemporary Age. From a political point of view, absolute monarchies and parliamentary monarchies, which were political models since the 17th century, ended between the first years of the century and its final decades.

**ABSOLUTE MONARCHIES**

Absolute monarchies were legitimised by an ideology that supported the superiority of the king’s power over all others: the nobility, the clergy, parliaments, guilds, etc.

Some characteristics of absolute monarchies also included a growing centralisation of political and administrative decisions in the royal courts and the monarchy’s government bodies; a permanent army under the orders of the king; a royal treasury able to raise revenue and the marginalisation of the courts and parliaments structured in estates.

**PARLIAMENTARY MONARCHIES**

Parliamentary monarchies developed institutional and legal systems that controlled the monarch’s power through the action of the courts and parliaments made up of major landowners, local corporations and the wealthy classes.

England was the main example. After the Glorious Revolution in 1688, in which the absolutist claims of the Stuart dynasty were defeated, the parliament chose Mary II and her husband William III of Orange as the new monarchs. They were selected on the condition that they sign the Bill of Rights, which limited the monarch’s power and recognised the rights of the individual.

This parliamentary model remained stable throughout the 18th century. The major economic and social changes that took place in that century in England, and the whole of Great Britain, were based on this political context.

**PARLIAMENTARY REPUBLICAN POLITICAL SYSTEMS**

Parliamentary republican political systems remained in place in some parts of Europe. They were governed by members of the nobility and wealthy middle class elected by local assemblies.

These republics were common in the Holy Empire and on the Italian Peninsula. They achieved high levels of economic and cultural development, and their inhabitants enjoyed certain individual freedoms. However, as they did not make up large states, they were weak against the military power of the great monarchies. The exception was the United Provinces, which formed its own colonial empire.
2 ENLIGHTENED DESPOTISM

Enlightened despotism was a variant of absolutism that incorporated ‘trickledown’ reforms inspired by the Enlightenment. However, these reforms did not decrease the absolute power of the monarchs.

This model was implemented in various European countries starting from the middle of the 18th century. Important Enlightenment thinkers worked as government advisers or ministers under absolutist monarchs in France, Prussia, Spain and Russia, amongst others. Their job was to rationalise how monarchies functioned to improve their administrative and institutional bodies and make them more efficient.

Monarchs thought that the Enlightenment ideas of universal progress and happiness would help them govern more efficiently and legitimise their power. Academies were in charge of carrying out studies and projects that were in the interests of despotic governments. The sciences and arts were therefore promoted in the courts of Europe’s monarchs.

ADDITIONAL REFORMS

There were other common reforms to improve the functioning of monarchies within Enlightened despotism.

- **Economic reforms.** Their aim was to increase income from the royal estate. Improvements in communication routes, agriculture, crafts and commerce were introduced, and manual workers were taught skills.
- **Political reforms.** Parliaments or courts were no longer convened; the provincial government was also reorganised to strengthen the territorial power of the kings.
- **Regalist reforms.** Within political reforms, the regalists had their own entity. These reforms were designed to gain privileges within the Church, such as the appointment of high positions like bishops and abbots, and the tax exemptions enjoyed by the clergy.

Some of the monarchs who represented enlightened despotism were Louis XV of France, Frederick II of Prussia, Catherine II of Russia, Christian VII of Denmark, Gustav III of Sweden and Joseph II of Austria.

CATHERINE ‘THE GREAT’ (1729–1796)

Catherine II, known as Catherine ‘the Great’, empress of Russia between 1762 and 1796, was an example of enlightened despotism. She was in contact with the most important Enlightenment thinkers of the period: Diderot, Voltaire and D’Alembert.

However, she only implemented the reformist ideas that strengthened her power. She implemented reforms in central and provincial government, but created different courts for noblemen, the middle class and free peasants. Serfs were administered justice by their masters. Her harsh policies for peasants led to popular uprisings.
1 THE WAR OF SUCCESSION AND ITS CONSEQUENCES

When Carlos II of Habsburg died without children, there were two pretenders to the throne: the emperor’s son Carlos of Habsburg, archduke of Austria, and Prince Felipe of Bourbon, grandson of Louis XIV of France. Carlos II chose the Bourbon prince as his heir. Felipe V was sworn in as king of the monarchy’s different kingdoms between 1701 and 1702. Some European powers were suspicious of the power held by an alliance between the French and Spanish monarchies ruled by Bourbon kings.

Several kingdoms within the Hague Alliance declared war on France and on Felipe V, causing an international war to break out in 1701. Meanwhile, in the Hispanic Monarchy a civil war broke out in 1705 between supporters of the Habsburgs and the Bourbons. Felipe V had more supporters in the Crown of Castilla and the archduke in the Crown of Aragón, where there were uprisings in his favour.

The European war ended with the signing of the Peace of Utrecht in 1713. This treaty meant that Felipe V renounced his claim to the French throne and all commercial and territorial concessions to the Alliance powers. The Hispanic Monarchy lost its European territories, in exchange for being recognised as king of Spain and the Indies.

TERRITORIAL CONSEQUENCES OF THE TREATIES OF UTRECHT AND RASTATT

The civil war lasted until 1715. Felipe V punished the territories of the Crown of Aragón as he believed they had betrayed him, and he invoked the right of conquest. He used the Nueva Planta decrees (1707, 1711 and 1715) to abolish the courts, fueros, diputaciones generales, customs and fiscal systems of the kingdoms of the Crown of Aragón. However, the civil and commercial law of Aragón, Cataluña and Mallorca was maintained.
2 POLITICAL REFORMS

The Spanish Bourbons imposed a model of absolute monarchy inspired by the French absolutist system. In the middle of the 18th century, it began evolving towards the model of enlightened despotism. Felipe V and his successors tried to turn the royal court into the single centre of political decision-making, although their actions were limited. They needed the support of the elites.

The old Habsburg model of government, with councils and validos acting as prime ministers, was replaced by cabinets. These were formed by ministers or secretarios de despacho, who were responsible for the main matters of government: the state, the navy and the treasury.

In terms of territory, after the imposition of the Nueva Planta decrees, the Aragonese institutions that had been abolished were mostly replaced by new ones. However, the fueros, laws, institutions, tax regimes and customs of Navarra and the Basque provinces remained. In America, the viceroyalties of New Granada and Río de la Plata were created, and were segregated from that of Peru.

Regalist policies were carried out in the Church. The Count of Floridablanca, a member of the Council of Castilla with Carlos III and a great defender of regalism, persuaded the pope to dissolve the Society of Jesus (the Jesuits) in 1773. It had been persecuted by the king for being anti-reformist.

THE BOURBONS PALACES

The Spanish Bourbons wished to demonstrate an image of power, so they ordered the construction or restoration of palaces, one of which, La Granja de San Ildefonso, is based on the classical design of the Palace of Versailles.

Royal Palace of Madrid
Royal Palace of Aranjuez, Madrid
Royal Palace of Riofrío, Segovia
Royal Palace of La Granja de San Ildefonso, Segovia

FELIPE V (1683–1746)

To ensure that decisions made in the royal court were effective in the monarchy’s territories, Felipe V needed the support of the elites.

portrait of Felipe V by Jean Ranc
3 FOREIGN POLICY

The dynastic affinity with the French Bourbons and the Atlantic expansion of Great Britain, in addition to the British claims on the American dominions of the Hispanic Monarchy, led the Spanish kings to ally themselves with France in what are known as ‘Family Compacts’, and to take part in the Seven Years’ War (1756–1763). When the war ended, the Treaty of Paris confirmed British hegemony in the world, and Spain had to cede Florida to Great Britain; in exchange it received Louisiana from France.

SPANISH POSSESSIONS DURING THE REIGN OF CARLOS III

BOURBON MONARCHS IN THE 18TH CENTURY

FELIPE V (1700–1724)
He had to win in the War of Succession to take the throne. He abdicated in favour of his son Luis in 1724.

FERNANDO VI (1746–1759)
He had no children, so on his death he was succeeded by one of his stepbrothers, Carlos III.

LUIS I (1724)
He was on the throne for just over six months due to his early death. He was succeeded by his own father, Felipe V.

CARLOS III (1759–1788)
He was crowned in 1759 after abdicating as king of Naples and Sicily. He is the main example of enlightened despotism in Spain.

FELIPE V (1724–1746)
He returned to the throne on the death of his first-born son (Luis I) in the same year as his abdication, and reigned until his own death.

CARLOS IV (1788–1808)
His reign began in 1788 and saw the transitional period between two eras. He ruled until 1808, when he was forced to abdicate.
4 ECONOMIC REFORMS: FARMING

Society continued to be mainly rural and dedicated to farm work. Most Spanish agriculture continued to be rainfed cereals. The polycultures in the Cantabrian coast and the Levante area were exceptions. Problems caused by the poor distribution of land ownership, especially in the southern half of the Peninsula, added to the general conditions in Spanish agriculture, which consisted of a dry climate and lack of fertile land because of uneven relief.

- The largest landowners were the privileged estates, the clergy and the nobility.
  - Manos muertas were lands owned by the Church and religious orders that could not be sold.
  - Mayorazgos were lands owned by noble families that would be inherited entirely by the first-born son.

- Clergymen and noblemen exploited a very small part of their large amount of land. The rest was given to peasants with lease contracts, and they worked the land for a specified time in exchange for rent.

  In the territories of the Crown of Aragón there were long-term lease contracts that encouraged people to improve their farms to increase their productivity. An example of this is rabassa morta in Catalan vineyards.

- The old town councils owned land that could not be sold either. These were common lands of pastures and forest that the local people exploited for free. They were a very important addition to the local economy.

Besides that, there were personal assets, real estates, agricultural land and pastures that were rented to local people in exchange for rent. The money was used to pay for the expenses of the town council: schools, salaries, public works like fountains and roads, etc.

- It is estimated that in the 18th century around 70% of the land was included within entails or assets that could not be sold, that is, manos muertas, mayorazgos, common lands and personal assets.

The theory of physiocracy, by which agriculture was the main source of a country’s wealth, and Enlightenment ideas influenced Spanish ministers. They criticised communal and personal assets because, in their opinion, they were not very productive as they were mostly pasture and wooded areas, not agricultural land. They also criticised the entails because renters with short contracts had no incentive to improve their farms as they could lose the lease when it ended, meaning that productivity on this land did not improve.

In 1767, King Carlos III gave realengo land, which was the property of the king, in Sierra Morena to be exploited by settlers. His intention was to encourage farmers who wanted their land to be productive.

Irrigation was also promoted, with some canals and other public works being built. However, no more consistent measures were taken to change the distribution of ownership.
**5 ECONOMIC REFORMS: TRADE**

Domestic trade was difficult due to the rugged Spanish terrain and the poor conditions of the roads, so most commercial transactions were local. The Bourbons promoted public works, which helped improve the situation in certain areas, but communication in inland Spain remained difficult.

Foreign trade was more important, in particular with America. The West Indies fleet that the Hispanic Monarchy used to organise its commercial monopoly with its colonies disappeared. Between 1765 and 1778, Carlos III signed decrees approving free trade in various ports in the Iberian Peninsula and others from Spanish America. Carlos III decreed the liberalisation of the grain trade in 1765. Buying and selling these goods was usually regulated as this was essential to avoid famine. Establishing the free trade of grain alongside poor harvests caused the price of bread to rise. This was the cause of popular revolts in 1766, such as the well-known ‘Esquilache Riots’.

**6 ECONOMIC REFORMS: CRAFT**

Enlightened governments favoured the popular or domestic craft industry, especially the textile industry, and created trade schools. There was a very robust new textile sector in the Barcelona area dedicated to producing printed cotton fabrics.

The governments of the Hispanic Monarchy set up Royal manufacturers. They were factories created to make either luxury or basic products. Although they created many jobs, they were not profitable in the long term because the country’s level of consumption, excluding the court’s needs, was very low.

**ROYAL MANUFACTURERS**

Royal manufacturers included:

- **Real Fábrica de Tapices de Santa Bárbara** (Madrid)
- **Real Fábrica de Paños de San Fernando de Henares** (Madrid)
- **Real Fábrica de Porcelanas del Buen Retiro** (Madrid)
- **Real Fábrica de Cristales de La Granja** (Segovia)
- **Real Fábrica de Paños de Brihuega** (Guadalajara)
- **Real Fábrica de Sedas de Talavera de la Reina** (Toledo)
- **Real Fábrica de Hilados y Tejidos de Algodón** (Ávila)

**EARLY ATTEMPTS AT TRADE LIBERALISATION**

During poor harvests, the authorities usually limited cereal exports and put a limit on bread prices. This stopped the poor from going hungry. However, some Enlightenment thinkers believed that these measures were wrong and should be abolished as they harmed commercial freedom. Putting these ideas into practice in 18th-century Spain created problems, as one merchant said in 1789:

‘I am a friend of freedom to sell wheat, but experience has made me see that the advantages that they claim result from the state are diminished by the annihilation and misery of the farmers who never gain any benefit from free trade, as they are required to sell their crops after harvesting them and then buy them for their subsistence.’

*El Conde de Aranda y su tiempo, IFC, 2000 (translated and adapted)*

A tourist wants to buy typical handicrafts made in Spain. With your partner, talk about the goods you would recommend and from which regions.

**SPEAK**

**KEY STRUCTURES:** I would recommend ... made in ...; I think this comes from the ... region.; I’d suggest they buy ...

**KEY VOCABULARY:** guitars, lace, leather (bags, belts, shoes), pottery, steel (swords), tiles, wicker (baskets, furniture)
7 POPULATION AND WEALTH

We have to look at population growth in the 18th century to understand how the economy evolved. During the 1700s, the Spanish population grew from 7.5 to 10.5 million inhabitants. In parallel, there was major wealth inequality.

One of the reasons for this inequality was that people were treated differently when paying taxes. There were several attempts to modify tax collection to make it fairer, as the privileged classes, the nobility and the clergy were still exempt from paying direct taxes or taxes on properties.

THE REFORM OF THE ROYAL TREASURY (1749): THE MARQUESS OF ENSENADA

Plans to reorganise the Castilian tax system involved taking censuses of the population and the assets owned by families to calculate how much tax could be collected. These censuses of people and their wealth were called catastros. Several were carried out, but the biggest was that of the marquess of Ensenada, who collected a large amount of information in the Crown of Castilla.

The marquess of Ensenada planned the reform of the Royal Treasury in 1749. The taxes collected in the Crown of Castilla would be simplified into a single direct contribution, the catastro. Two exceptions were Navarra and the Basque provinces, which had their own tax systems. In turn, the marquess of Ensenada wanted tax to be proportional to wealth, so those who had more money paid more tax. This meant that the nobility and the clergy would have to pay in proportion to their fortunes, as already happened with the members of the third estate or commoners.

In the end, the marquess of Ensenada’s tax reform was not implemented due to opposition from clergymen and noblemen. They did not accept a scheme that would have helped reduce economic inequality. This failure showed that the privileged estates continued to hold onto power and proved that actions by the government of the absolute monarchy were limited.

Although the fiscal regimes in the kingdoms of the Crown of Aragón were modified after the Nueva Planta decrees, these reforms did not introduce tax systems that were more proportional to wealth. The tax privileges of the nobility and the clergy did not end at all. Actually, they were favoured by the Bourbon tax system.

Indirect taxes were placed on consumption and not wealth, and were not sufficient to cover the needs of the Royal Treasury. Therefore, the price of basic products (salt, wine, paper and candles) was inflated to increase the amount of taxes collected on them.

ECONOMIC INEQUALITY

In general, there was more economic inequality in cities than in small towns, in the south of the Iberian Peninsula and in some coastal areas, than in the north and the mountainous and inland areas.
1 BAROQUE AND ROCOCO

Baroque art spread throughout Europe and America during the 17th century at a time of great religious exaltation and affirmation of the power of absolute monarchies. Painters and sculptors aimed to represent reality directly, just as it was perceived by the senses. There was great freedom in composition, movement, light and colour. In architecture, curved lines and decorative profusion were dominant.

The Rococo style was a decorative style that influenced sculpture and painting, as well as minor art forms such as porcelain, mirrors, glass, pottery, furniture, etc. However, it did not develop its own architectural style. The name Rococo is derived from the words baroque and rocaille, a style of ornamentation that uses stone and shell motifs.

The Rococo style spread during the first half of the 18th century, when absolutist monarchies and class societies predominated. France was the most important artistic centre in Europe.

**PAINTING**

The preferred themes of Rococo painters were daily life, the countryside, life’s pleasures and games. Their works had outstanding brightness and delicate pastel colours.

- The Embarkation for Cythera by Jean-Antoine Watteau
- The Swing by Jean-Honoré Fragonard

**SCULPTURE**

Sculptors depicted themes of love in porcelain and marble.

- Pygmalion and Galatea by Étienne-Maurice Falconet, who was director of the Sèvres porcelain factory.

**ARCHITECTURE**

Characterised by ornate decoration with curved lines.

- Entrance to the Palacio of Marqués de Dos Aguas (Valencia) by Ignacio Vergara
Neoclassicism was a return to the simpler, more functional and practical forms of classical Ancient Greek and Roman art. It developed in the second half of the 18th century as a reaction against the excesses of the Rococo style, and became the art of the enlightened middle class. Neoclassical architecture, sculpture and painting were characterised by balanced forms and no ornamentation.

**SCULPTURE**

Neoclassical sculpture was characterised by technical perfection and the use of proportion, reminiscent of the works of the sculptors of Ancient Greece and Rome.

The main theme was the human figure, often naked. The funerary sculpture was also developed. Marble was the preferred material.

**PAINTING**

Neoclassical painting developed primarily in France. History paintings, where form was more important than colour, were an important genre.

Jacques-Louis David was the greatest exponent of pictorial Neoclassicism. His work shows themes from classical antiquity.

**ARCHITECTURE**

Architecture was one of the main focuses of Neoclassical artists. Taking their inspiration from classical models, they created public buildings characteristic of the Enlightenment (banks, libraries, museums, etc.).
3 SPANISH ART DURING THE 18TH CENTURY

For most of the 18th century, Spain continued with the same artistic style as the previous century: Baroque. It was promoted particularly by the Church and city councils. Spanish Baroque architecture was characterised by external elements such as volutes, oriental or Chinese-style plant motifs, and estipite columns (in the shape of an inverted obelisk). The style was similar to the French Rococo style.

The Obradoiro façade protects the original Romanesque façade of the Cathedral of Santiago de Compostela. This work, started in 1738, brings together several common elements of 18th century Baroque, with plant forms and curvilinear decoration.

The façade of the Museo de Historia de Madrid, formerly the Hospicio de Madrid, was designed by architect Pedro de Ribera. It is an example of the continuation of the highly ornamental Spanish Baroque style in the first half of the 18th century.

The Churriguerean style, developed by the Churriguera brothers, was an important variant of the Spanish Baroque primarily developed in central parts of the Iberian Peninsula.

When Carlos III arrived in Spain, he brought artists and intellectuals from Naples who had been influenced by a new artistic trend: Neoclassicism. They included painter Anton Raphael Mengs and architect Francesco Sabatini, who built the Puerta de Alcalá. They were both opposed to the excessive ornamentation of the Baroque style and preferred the simplicity of the classical Greek and Roman styles.

The Fall of the Giants Besieging Olympus (1764) by neoclassical Aragonese artist Francisco Bayeu y Subias. It is an oil painting commissioned to decorate the new Royal Palace of Madrid.

The Fountain of Hercules and Antaeus (1793) by neoclassical Aragonese artist Juan Adán. It is located in the gardens of the Royal Palace of Aranjuez.

SPEAK

You are an architect. You have been asked to design a new façade for a town hall in neoclassical style. In pairs, discuss materials, features and possible influences from the past in order to create your design.

**KEY STRUCTURES**
- The pillars could be made of ... because ...; I think we should have statues of ancient Greek / Roman ...;
- Why don’t we ...?

**KEY VOCABULARY**
- arches, columns, decorations, dome, pediment, stone, symmetry
01 THE SCIENTIFIC REVOLUTION AND TECHNOLOGICAL ADVANCES

1 What is the name of the first cultural movement to develop an anthropocentric worldview?

2 Read the description and identify the invention.
   • It contributed to the Protestant Reformation in the 16th century.
   • It allowed ideas to spread more quickly than they had before.
   • It favoured the individual interpretation of the Bible.

3 In your notebook, copy and complete the table about 17th-century philosophical currents using the information below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EMPIRICISM</th>
<th>RATIONALISM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.....</td>
<td>.....</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

   • Francis Bacon
   • Reason must be validated through observation and experimentation.
   • René Descartes
   • Reason is the only valid criterion.
   • Truths established by authority and tradition should be criticised.

4 In your notebook, match the 18th-century advances to the inventors and creators.

   a the mercury thermometer
   b binomial nomenclature
   c the analysis of the composition of air
   d the invention of the battery
   e the lightning rod
   1 Carl Linnaeus
   2 Daniel Fahrenheit
   3 Benjamin Franklin
   4 Antoine Lavoisier
   5 Alessandro Volta

5 Listen to a radio interview about steam engines and complete the sentences in your notebook.
   a Kimberly says a steam engine works like a ..... .
   b Apart from coal, you can also use ..... and ..... as fuel.
   c To burn the fuel, a temperature of ..... degrees Celsius is required.
   d Coal mines had steam engines to pump out ..... .
   e Vehicles like cars, ..... trains and boats were powered by steam.
   f ..... kilometres an hour is the quickest speed a locomotive can travel.

02 THE ENLIGHTENMENT: THE CULTURE OF OPTIMISM

6 Name the beliefs that were central to the 18th-century movement called the Enlightenment.

7 Decide if the sentences about the Enlightenment are true or false. Correct the false ones in your notebook.

   a The Enlightenment was mostly a reformist movement.
   b The Enlightenment led to scientific and technical stagnation.
   c The development of the Enlightenment caused the Church and absolutism to increase their influence.

8 In your notebook, copy and complete the sentences about Enlightenment thinkers with the words in the box.

   despotism, judicial, Montesquieu, fanaticism, Voltaire, absolute, Rousseau, religion, sovereignty, democracy

   • (a) ..... proposed a model of society where (b) ..... was in the hands of the people and not of the king. A society guided by the general will, he supported (c) ..... .
   • (d) ..... criticised (e) ..... monarchies and proposed a moderate monarchy, separating executive, legislative and (f) ..... powers.
   • (g) ..... criticised religious (h) ..... . He was an advocate of freedom of (i) ..... . He was in favour of enlightened (j) ..... , but fought for civil rights and judicial reform.
9. Listen to a conversation between two students about their history projects. Decide if the sentences are true or false. Correct the false ones in your notebook.

a. Carl’s project is on a German philosopher.
b. Kant thought war would be the result of democracy and international relations.
c. Kant published works on ethics, law, astrology and geography.
d. The works that Carl mentions were written in the later part of the 18th century.
e. Sandra’s project is about a person who was important in the development of human rights.
f. Sandra has almost finished her project.

10. In your notebook, answer these questions about the Encyclopédie.

a. Which French Enlightenment figures edited the Encyclopédie?
b. How many volumes was it made up of?
c. When was it published?
d. What did it try to summarise?

11. Who was Marie Thérèse Rodet? What was she famous for?

12. Name three other female Enlightenment figures and describe their accomplishments in your notebook.

03. THE ENLIGHTENMENT IN SPAIN

13. What activities did the Spanish kings sponsor that were favourable to the Enlightenment?

14. What limitations did the Enlightenment face in Spain?

15. Listen to a tour guide talk about a building and choose the correct option.

1. The academy was founded in ..... .
   a. 1748  b. 1714  c. 1744
2. The building was originally a ..... .
   a. house  b. palace  c. church
3. The conversion of the building for academic purposes was commissioned by ..... .
   a. Carlos III  b. San Fernando  c. Diego de Villanueva

04. THE AGRICULTURAL REVOLUTION OF THE 18TH CENTURY

16. Read and explain what the difference between the two agricultural methods is in your notebook.

In Great Britain, in the early 18th century, the fallow method of agriculture was replaced by the continuous crop rotation method.

17. In your notebook, give three examples of the mechanisation of agricultural work in Britain in the 18th century.

18. Study the graph and answer the questions in your notebook.

a. Which two crops increased their yield the greatest from the middle of the 16th century to the end of the 18th century?
b. Explain what happened to yields in Great Britain in the second half of the 18th century and any possible reasons for it.
c. With a partner, discuss any other important data worthy of investigation that can be obtained from the graph.

19. Listen to an interview about the Agricultural Revolution and complete the sentences in your notebook.

a. The ..... of land and its use were the result of the Agricultural Revolution.
b. New ..... was introduced as well as other technological advances.
c. Farms were made smaller and more ..... .
d. ..... were introduced to breed cattle.
e. Crop rotation cycles in Norfolk were ..... years long.
f. In the last year of the cycle, the land was left to ..... .
05 PARLIAMENTARIANISM AND ENLIGHTENED DESPOTISM

20 Read the texts below and describe the differences between parliamentarianism and despotism in your notebook.

The alleged power of royal authority to suspend laws without the consent of Parliament is contrary to the law. Tax collection for the Crown without being agreed by Parliament is contrary to the law. Elections of members of Parliament must be free. Parliament must meet frequently.

Sovereign authority resides only in my person; justice and the authority of my courts emanates from me; I am the sole holder of legislative power, without dependencies or distributions. Public order emanates from me, and the rights and interests of the nation are necessarily united to mine and rest in my hands.

Louis XV (1766) (translated and adapted)

21 Work in pairs. Name six European monarchs who represented 18th-century enlightened despotism.

22 Listen to a conversation between two students. Decide if the sentences are true or false. Correct the false ones in your notebook.

- a The person was a well-known English monarch.
- b He was an absolute monarch.
- c He was a modest and antisocial person.
- d An American state is named after him.
- e A star was used to show his power.
- f He built a palace based on Versailles.

06 SPAIN: THE BOURBON REFORMS AND THEIR LIMITS

23 Read about the War of Succession and choose the correct option.

1 When Carlos II of Habsburg died without children, there were two pretenders to the throne: ..... and ..... .
   - a Louis XV of France / Prince Felipe of Bourbon
   - b Carlos of Habsburg / Prince Felipe of Bourbon
   - c Joseph II of Austria / Carlos of Habsburg

2 Felipe V was sworn in as king of the monarchy’s different kingdoms between ..... .
   - a 1700 and 1701
   - b 1750 and 1751
   - c 1701 and 1702

3 Felipe V had the biggest number of supporters in ..... .
   - a Castilla
   - b Aragón
   - c Mallorca

24 In your notebook, complete the events related to the War of Succession with the correct dates.

- a The Hague Alliance declared war on France and on Felipe V, causing an international war to break out in ..... .
- b A civil war broke out in the Spanish kingdoms between supporters of the Habsburgs and the Bourbons in ..... .
- c The European war ended with the signing of the Peace of Utrecht in ..... .
- d The civil war between the Spanish kingdoms lasted until ..... .
- e The *Nueva Planta* decrees were used to abolish the courts, *fueros*, *diputaciones generales*, customs and fiscal systems of the kingdoms of the Crown of Aragón in 1707, ..... and 1715.

25 What was the old Habsburg model of government (with councils and *validos* acting as prime ministers) replaced with?

26 What circumstances led to Spain ceding Florida to Great Britain?

27 In your notebook, make a timeline on the Bourbon kings of the 18th century.

28 Which of the Bourbon kings is the main example of enlightened despotism in Spain?

29 In your notebook, explain what the following terms mean. What do they all have in common?

- a *manos muertas*
- b *mayorazgos*
- c common lands
- d personal assets

30 Listen to a conversation about a family holiday to the Imperial Canal of Aragón. Copy and complete the table in your notebook.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THE IMPERIAL CANAL OF ARAGÓN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>duration of bike trip</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>era in which the canal was built</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>purpose of the canal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>what the canal did not connect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>length of canal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

31 What economic reforms did the Bourbons promote to improve domestic and foreign trade?

32 As the Spanish population grew during the 1700s, was there more wealth equality? Explain your answer in your notebook.
UNIT 1

UNIT REVISION

1. In your notebook, draw a concept map about the evolution of science and thought between the 16th and 18th centuries.

2. In your notebook, write a short essay on the Enlightenment. Include where and when it took place, its central concept, any resistance it faced and name some of its most important protagonists and advances.

3. What changes to the law impacted the distribution of land ownership in Great Britain between 1760 and 1840?

4. Define the term enlightened despotism and explain its connection to Enlightenment ideas in your notebook.

5. In your notebook, write a brief biography on Catherine ‘the Great’ listing her contribution to the promotion and diffusion of Enlightenment ideas.

6. Compare the map on page 18 to the one below. In your notebook, list the territories that Felipe V lost after the signing of the Peace of Utrecht which ended the international war about the succession of the Hispanic Monarchy.

7. Identify the Spanish building in the photo. Why were these types of palaces built? Which one is it a replica of?

8. In your notebook, explain the differences between the 18th-century artistic styles: Baroque, Rococo and Neoclassical.

07 ART IN THE 18TH CENTURY: FROM BAROQUE TO NEOCLASSICAL

33. Prepare a presentation on the 18th-century painting below. Include:
   - information about the artist and the period
   - the style and characteristics of the painting
   - the subject and how it reflects the culture of the period
   - the composition

   "The Embarkation for Cythera" by Jean-Antoine Watteau

34. Give an example of a piece of 18th-century neoclassical sculpture and explain why it is considered to be reminiscent of the works of the sculptors of Ancient Greece and Rome.

35. Look at the painting of Oath of the Horatii on page 25. Listen to an audio guide for an art gallery and answer the questions in your notebook.
   a. In which art gallery is the painting?
   b. What style of painting is it?
   c. What type of legend is it based on?
   d. Who was the war between?
   e. Who holds the swords?
   f. Which characters are crying?

36. Baroque architecture was the dominant style in Spain throughout the 18th century. What is the name of the important variant of the Spanish Baroque found primarily in the centre of the Iberian Peninsula?

37. Work in pairs. Identify and describe the two examples of 18th-century Spanish architecture. Talk about the styles, the architects and the purpose of the buildings.
READ AND REFLECT

LITERACY AND LIBRARIES

In the 18th century, people did not search the internet or check their mobile phones to read the latest news or post a message. However, they were just as interested in finding out about the world and sharing ideas as we are today. One of the most important developments of the Enlightenment was the increase in literacy and the beginning of public libraries.

For centuries, books had been so scarce and expensive that only the nobility, the Church or the wealthy had private libraries. During the Enlightenment, however, print shops run by tradesmen using more modern equipment were able to produce books, newspapers and other print material in less time for less money. This made it possible for more authors to get their works published and for many more people to read. As a result, the ideas of the Enlightenment began to reach the general public.

Before the Enlightenment, a library was a private collection of books and artefacts only the nobility, the Church or the extremely wealthy could enjoy. Many of the largest collections were affiliated with the Church and were not open to the public. The books and artefacts they contained could not be removed. In the 18th century, however, many private collections were opened to the wealthy and emerging middle class to serve as centres of learning.

Perhaps the most interesting development was the appearance of subscription libraries which made books available to many more people. Members paid an annual fee to have access to a shared collection of books. Subscription libraries contained books that members were interested in reading. There were fewer books published about religion and more about science, philosophy, history and travel, as well as novels. Subscription libraries allowed people to educate themselves despite not having received a formal education.

Women, who were excluded from schools, were now able to read books privately in their own homes. Subscription libraries paved the way for modern public libraries.

Answer It!

1. UNESCO’s Institute for Statistics has calculated that about 84% of the world’s adults are literate, but that means that around 774 million adults still cannot read or write. Discuss with a partner the consequences of illiteracy.

2. How often do you visit your public library? Do you read with an e-book reader? In pairs, talk about the advantages and disadvantages of each and explain your preferences.

3. In the recent past, when you had to do research for a project, you would visit the library to find information. Today, we have the World Wide Web, endless amounts of information at our fingertips. As a class, discuss the importance of knowing the source of your information and how to judge the good from the bad.

4. Find the words in the text that mean the following.
   a. not enough
   b. regardless of
   c. associated

Before the Enlightenment, libraries, such as the library in the palace monastery of Mafra National Palace (Portugal), were private. They belonged to the nobility or the Church.