Colonial New Spain Overview

**Habsburg Mexico**

 Conquest correlated with proximity and civilization

 Spanish colonial society was more developed among more central and centralized societies

 Caciques served the Spanish as military auxiliaries and as intermediaries between the Spanish and the Indians

 They governed, taxed, and administered Indian populations

 **Social Institutions of Colonial Habsburg Mexico**

 ***Encomienda*, *repartimiento, congregación*, and *hacienda***

 Feudalism

 The basis of colonial New Spain

 The concept of *hidalguía* or nobility

 Orginates from "*fijo (hijo) de algo*" ("son of something")

 *Encomienda*:

 Indians assigned to Spanish *encomenderos* who were required to protect their charges; in return Indians would provide labor and tribute

 Indian caciques played an important role in organizing the *ecomienda*

 The *encomienda* often became a license for robbery, extortion, and slavery

 Church, crown, and demographic collapse contributed to decline of the *encomienda*

 Church opposed

 Denounced the *encomienda* as an instrument of conquistador exploitation

 Crown opposed the creation of new feudal lords

 New Laws of 1542 attempted to limit *encomienda* grants to a single lifetime

 Demographic collapse deprived *encomenderos* of subjects

 *Repartimiento*:

 When conquistadors resisted the New Laws, the crown compromised and created the *repartimiento*

 A compromise between the crown and *encomenderos*

This was also a response to the declining Indian population

 Crown controlled labor and fixed wages

 Indians were congregated in settlements as part of a policy called *congregación*

 *Congregación* sought to better control and convert the Indians

 Contributed to de-tribalization

 *Hacienda*:

 The Crown encouraged private landholdings through grants (*mercedes*) in order to dismantle the *encomienda* and take pressure off the Indians

 This gave rise to large estates known as *haciendas*

 Knight make the point that the establishment of the *hacienda* did not imply a Spanish commitment to manual labor

 Indians and later black slaves would continue to provide labor for the *hacienda*

 The *hacienda* also contributed greatly to the acculturation of Indians to Spanish colonial society

 Under the *hacienda* system wheat, sugar, and other cash crops were cultivated by Indian labor

 Livestock especially became an important commodity produced on the *haciendas*

 The hacienda came to dominate central Mexico, the Baj$í$o and the far north

 On the other hand Indian villages survived in southern Mexico, Oaxaca, and the Yucatan where mining and urbanization was weak

 Indian acculturation occurred rapidly in the hacienda as Indians were congregated among various other Indians of varying ethnicities and they adopted Spanish practices associated with agricultural labor, society and religion

 **Government, religion, economics, and society**

 **Religion**

 Church was a crusading institution that imposed a spiritual conquest on Mexico

 Associated with Late Medieval developments (Reconquista)

 Regular clergy active in the success of spiritual conquest

 Franciscans (center, west, and north), Dominicans (south), Augustinians

 Rapid conversion (4 million by 1540)

 Mesoamerican religion encouraged the acceptance of a triumphant faith

 The conversion of caciques and youth led to mass conversions

 Similarities between Mesoamerican and Catholic religions

 The Virgin of Guadalupe and Juan Diego at the shrine of Tonantzin at Tepeyac

 Priests educated and protected Indians

 They set up *cofradías*, or religious organizations, in Indian villages

 These organizations allowed for local common rituals, and local religious leadership that helped solidify communities made up of various Indian ethnicities

 As a result of these associations with traditional religion, Mexican Christianity was heavily influenced by Indian traditions

 The Regular Orders were brought under Secular authority of the bishops which allowed the crown to consolidate its authority over the missionaries

 The Regular and Secular priests fought over control of the Indians

 Inquisition was active in Mexico, but Indians were exempted in 1571

 **Royalist government**

 Power struggle between royal government and subjects

 Consolidation of royal government through administrative bureaucracy

 Viceroy, Audencias, ayuntamientos or cabildos (corregidores and alcaldes mayores)

 The Audiencias (a royal court) were the first institutions of authority in Mexico

 They were made up of a panel of judges called *oidores*

 The Audiencias and *oidores* whittled away conquistador power through the appointment of local officials called *corregidores*

 By the 1530s, the first Viceroy was appointed to New Spain

 The Viceroy presided over the administrative structure of colonial bureaucracy and represented the interest of the crown in New Spain

 Basically the structure was the Crown, the Council of the Indies, the Viceroy, the Audiencia, the various captains general, the *corregidores*, and the *alcaldes*

 Heavy bureaucratization undermined efficiency and contributed to corruption

 Knight says the system was a creaking cumbersome engine, which consumed quantities of paper (bureaucracy), energy, specious legal reasoning, and cash payoffs

 Bribes and sales of offices and titles were necessary for the system to run

 Corruption lubricated and was integral to the system

 This system economically benefitted office holders

 **Economics**

 The economy was highly centrally managed by royal authorities for the benefit of Spain

 The pillars of Spanish colonial society and economics were the mine, city, village, and hacienda

 Knight says that the hacienda and village were the central pillars that the economy was based on

 The *hacienda* responded to individual Spaniard's need for income, and the royal authorities' need to feed the expanding mining operations and growing cities

 The hacienda was the determinant of New Spain's pattern of development

 The bulk of goods in the urban markets were produced by the *hacienda*

 Private estates such as the hacienda and other private lands were passed down through primogeniture

 The Church was another important landowner that contributed greatly to the economic development of New Spain

 The Church acquired large amounts of property through gifts, foreclosed mortgages, and bequests

 The Church was able to consolidate and maintain its landholdings since it didn't have to pass down property through inheritance or dowries

 As the Church built up capital, they began to act as a banking institution in a capital poor colony

 The Church especially made long term loans to *hacendados*

 Church capital thus was vital for the development of the agrarian and livestock economy in New Spain

 Mining and grain and livestock agriculture became the main features of the colonial economy

 Mines were the chief source for the generation of capital in New Spain

 A lot of this capital was poured into landed investment

 Spanish landowners amassed large amounts of land and water resources by the 1650s

 Labor became a scarce commodity in the hacienda and the mining economy of New Spain

 Since slaves were expensive, most of the labor was provided by the Indians of the villages

 The *repartimiento* played a large role in this process

 Eventually the Indians would become permanent workers (*gañanes*) on the *haciendas* living on the estates

 The Indian labor communities on the haciendas maintained many of the features of Indians village society and ultimately became associated with *hacienda* life

 Compact residential patterns, central churches, subsistence farming, recurring fiestas and celebrations

 Temporary wage workers from outside Indian villages were called *eventuales*

 As Indian populations fell, they were able to command higher wages

 The Indians were able to take advantage of this situation to advance their own well being and economic security

 Knight says that the Indians played a significant part in the development of colonial society

 They weren't simply instruments of Spanish elite control and manipulation

 The association of the Indian workers with the *hacienda* depended as much on the Indians' non-compliance with the *repartimiento* and their willingness to seek work on the haciendas

 Many Indian peasants recognized the benefits of abandoning their tribal communities in favor of work on the hacienda

 The hacienda offered stability to the Indians through the reciprocity of the landlord-peasant relationship

 Knight say's that compared to slavery, the *encomienda*, and the *repartimiento*, the *hacienda* economy was relatively non-coercive

 The Habsburg *hacienda* was not the source of violent peasant resistance

 **Northern expansion, development, and identity**

 Silver was discovered in Zacatecas in 1546 and then later at other sites in the region

 This discovery had a huge effect on the development of New Spain

 The mines stimulated the internal development of integration of the colony

 Mining drove expansion into the Chichimeca frontier

 Precipitated Chichimeca War which was long and laborious, lasting from 1550- 1590

 Many people were attracted to the North for the opportunity offered by the mines

 Miners, laborers, merchants, soldiers

 Indians sought to free themselves from tribute by working in the mines

 To the North, Spanish colonization was primarily influenced by mining

 Thus Northern colonial society was created from scratch

 A European creation unlike central Mexico

 The typical settlement was the private estate

 There was the need to provide self defense

 Peasants on the *haciendas* were expected to provide militia duty

 Because of the importance of the mining and hacienda economy the northern settlements had a large influence on the development of the colonial economy and society

 Less royal political control in North

 It was difficult for the Crown to regulate development in the North without tremendous cost

 Thus the Crown allowed for relative autonomy of oligarchic establishments centered on mines and haciendas as long as northern oligarchs remained loyal to the Crown and made the annual shipment of silver to the king

 The Chichimec wars were difficult until the 1580s when some Chichimecs started to come to terms with the Spanish and even serve the Spanish as auxiliaries

 Thus the northern expansion associated with the mining and hacienda economy furthered the development of Spanish colonial society and the acculturation of Indians, thus contributing to a general identification of people as Mexicans, separated more and more from their Spanish and Indian ethnicities

**The Far Northern Frontier**

 Cabeza de Vaca

 Coronado, De Soto, Cabrillo (1540-1543)

 Florida

 Juan Ponce de Leon 1513

Pascua Florida (Easter Sunday)

 Lucas Ayllon 1526

 South Carolina coast

 Established a colony among the Guales

 Failed after disease and hardship

 Estavao Gomes 1524

 Explored east coast in search for Northwest Passage

 1557 Felipe II ordered a settlement on the Gulf and the Atlantic

 Tristan Luna 1559

 Established a settlement at Pensacola

 Close acquaintance with Viceroy Velasco

 Conquistador who travelled with Coronado

 Pedro Menendez de Avilés 1565

 San Augustin

 Seven Atlantic coastal bases and five forts 1567

 Two west coast bases

 One near Tampa and another near Charlotte Harbor

 Juan Pardo 1566-1568

 Ordered by Menendez to settle region near Santa Elena in South Carolina

 Established five forts but they collapsed

 Menendez sought to plant a settlement on Chesapeake Bay 1566

 Failed

 Jesuit missionaries 1570

 Juan Bautista de Segura

 Luis de Velasco

Indian who had been to Spain twice and lived in Mexico City

Named for Viceroy

Repatriated in 1566

Employed by Jesuits after 1570

Opechancanough

 Mission collapsed as missionaries began to starve

 Most Spanish outposts suffered from Indian depredations

 Santa Elena was abandoned 1576

 San Augustin attacked by Drake 1586

 Santa Elena permanently abandoned in 1586 after being deemed undefensible

 Spanish presence in the area was consolidated around San Augustin which remained the only Spanish settlement in Florida

 The Spanish remained active missionizing the Indians in the area throughout the 17th century

 By the end of the century the English in South Carolina posed a serious threat to Spanish Florida

 English traders established commercial connections with the Indians

 They attacked Spanish missions in Georgia in the 1680s and again during the War of the Spanish Succession in 1701

 The English attacked San Augustin in 1702

 English slavers attacked the Spanish missions at Apalachee in 1704 and in 1706 destroying the mission effort

 By 1706 only San Augustin and settlements in the vicinity survived

 Weber criticizes the English as slavers, but he says that they were able to defeat the Spanish because they won the Indians to their side

 He says that large numbers of Indians went over to the English side, and that this was a process that began before the English attacks began

 The Indians that remained loyal to the Spanish congregated around San Augustin

 By 1706 the Florida missions had collapsed

 The Spanish presence in Florida became reduced to San Augustin, Apalachee, and Pensacola

 The Indian population in the region gravitated to the English in Carolina and the French in Mobile and Louisiana

 New Mexico

 There was relative little immediate follow up on the Coronado expedition of 1540-1542

 The Crown issued the Comprehensive Order for New Discoveries in 1573 that prohibited unlicensed exploration of the North

 The Orders also made missionaries the primary agents for exploration and pacification

 The use of the term "conquest" was prohibited

 Augustin Rodriguez and seven soldiers travelled up the Rio Grande to the New Mexico pueblos in 1581

 The following year in 1582 Antonio de Espejo led an expedition to New Mexico to rescue Father Rodriguez

 He learned that the priest had been killed

 In 1590 Gasper Castaño de Sosa led an expedition of 170 persons to New Mexico with the intention of establishing a colony

 They departed from the area around Monclova and travelled up the Pecos River

 The next year a Spanish force was sent to arrest the colonists for violating the Comprehensive Orders

 In 1583 the Viceroy of New Spain decided to begin the process of review of applicants to settle New Mexico

 Ultimately permission was given to Juan de Oñate

 Oñate was from a prestigious family

 His father had discovered the mines at Zacatecas

 His wife was the great-granddaughter of Moctezuma and the granddaughter of Cortes

 Oñate was an adelantado, meaning that he was responsible to fund his colonization effort

 Colonization on the cheap

 He set out for New Mexico in 1598 with about 500 persons from Santa Barbara, Chihuahua

 While in New Mexico, Oñate explored the region to the east in search for Quivira and to the west in search for the South Sea

 Oñate had to deal with rebellious Indians, notably those of the Acoma Pueblo

 Oñate's nephew killed in the fighting

 Vengeance was harsh

 Captives between 12 and 25 sentenced to 20 years of servitude and men older than 20 had a foot severed

 Oñate had initially established his capital at San Juan Pueblo

 By 1608 he relocated the capital to the settlement of Santa Fe

 Spanish authority and rule in New Mexico was comprehensive throughout the seventeenth century

 Basically, New Mexico was a replay of the development of post-conquest New Spain

 Indian populations were divided up in order to exact tribute

 The encomienda was established

 Spanish officials distributed Indians to work on the colony's infrastructure

 A form of repartimiento

 Also Indians ransomed from wild tribes were servants or Indios de depósito

 Many wild Indians captured by Spanish colonists were sold into slavery to the south in Mexico

 This was an illegal commerce, but continued due to weak colonial government and corruption

 Government officials often exploited Indian labor to generate the revenue they needed to pay for the offices they bought

 The exploitation of Indians led to fierce competition between the government authorities and the Church

 The authorities turned a blind eye on traditional Indian practices as long as they didn't interfere with their purposes

 The missionaries were angry with the officials in perpetuating traditional practices

 Both sides accused the other for exploiting the Indians

 These developments led to open civil conflict between the government and the Church

 These conditions led to Indian rebellions

 1632, 1639-40, 1644, 1647, 1650

 Some Pueblos fled to the plains to live among the Apache at El Cuartelejo

 In 1680 the majority of Pueblos rose up in open revolt

 Up to this point the Spanish was successful in confronting the various rebellions

 Ethnic differences of the Indians worked to the Spanish advantage

 However, a religious prophet appeared and argued for the revival of tradition and comprehensive cooperation among the Pueblos

 Popé, from San Juan

 Although the Spanish were tipped off about the rebellion on August 9, they were taken by surprise

 During the rebellion the Indians killed 400 Spanish colonists and destroyed churches, homes, livestock and fields

 1500 refugees that collected at the friendly pueblo if Isleta fled to El Paso

 1000 were trapped in Santa Fe under siege

 They escaped on September 21

 Reminiscent of the Noch Triste and the aftermath

 The Spanish didn't return until 1691, and even then the rebellion was not defeated until 1696

 Texas

 Exploration of Texas

 Pueblo Revolt and Ysleta (1682)

 Spanish presence in Texas resulted from reaction to French presence

 La Salle

 1682 discovered mouth of Mississippi

 1685 attempted to settle at mouth from Gulf

 Landed at Matagorda Bay

 Demise of La Salle (1687) and Ft. St. Louis collapse (1688)

 Spanish attempts to find French colony

 Sea and land expeditions

Governor Marques de San Miguel de Aguayo appointed Alonso de Leon to look for French over land (1686)

 Went to Rio Grande and coast and found nothing

 1687 went further up coast to about Kingsville

 1688 found a Frenchman living among Coahuiltecan Indians

1689 explored Matagorda Bay with Frenchman as guide and found the colony

De Leon heard about other Frenchmen living among the Indians and met with them on the Colorado River

He also met up with Caddo Indians and learned that they desired the Spanish to come among them

De Leon and Father Massanet encouraged establishing a Spanish presence in East Texas among the Indians

 Spanish enter East Texas

 Response to French threat and Caddoan invitation for missions

 Religious and secular divisions

 Traditional divisions between military and clergy

 De Leon and Massanet

De Leon agreed with Massanet on need for missions

 However he also argued for military presence in form of presidios

 Spanish established missions with a military presence

 This became a source of tension

 Caddos

 Agricultural Indians

 Spanish drawn to settled agricultural Indians

 Missions and presidios

 San Francisco de los Tejas on Neches River established 1690

 Santisima Nombre de Maria established 1691 nearby

 No presidio but a military presence in the missions

 Collapse

When De Leon and Massanet prepared to leave they disagreed whether or not to leave soldiers there

Hasinai’s promised not to harm priests

Three soldiers were left behind

The following year 1691 a governor was appointed to Texas (Domingo Teran)

When Teran arrived the mission was in desperate straights

Indians didn’t accept religion

Hostility

Disease

Crop failures

 French contact with Caddos

French expanded into Gulf Coast region in 1699 (Biloxi), 1702 (Mobile), and 1718 (New Orleans)

 Urged by Spanish priest

Spanish missionary Francisco Hildalgo had served in Caddoan mission and wrote French to missionize Caddos

French establish post at Natchitoches in 1713 by Louis St. Denis

 St. Denis

 Became active among Caddoans in trade

 He encouraged missionaries but was most influential in trade

He made contact with the Spanish at Presidio San Juan Bautista along Rio Grande

 Missions and presidios

St. Denis’ contact with the Spanish encouraged them to reestablish missions in Caddo country in 1716

Four missions were established

A presidio also established

 San Antonio established 1718

 San Antonio

 Established 1718

 Halfway post to East Texas

 East Texas abandoned and re-established

 Missions abandoned

 Lack of success among Indians

 Threat of war with France

 Retreat to San Antonio in 1719

 Missions re-established in 1721 by Marques de San Miguel de Aguayo

 Failure of East Texas

 Success of San Antonio

 Comanches

 Migration into Texas

 War with Apaches

 Attack Spanish

 Peaceful relations

 Expansion of Spanish Influence

 San Gabriel (1740s)

 San Saba (1757)

 El Canon (1761-62)

 Orcoquisiac (1756)

 Refugio (1793)

 Failure

 Collapse of French Threat

 War for Empire 1756-1763

 New Regulations

 Roll back frontier

 Arizona

 Cabeza de Vaca (1528-1536)

 Marcos de Niza (1538)

 Francisco Coronado (1540-1542)

 Eusebio Kino (arrived 1687)

 Kino brought with him a Royal Decree that prohibited, for 20 years, the work of the Pimas in any kind of work outside of the missions.

 That gave the Mission the exclusivity of administration of the Indians, at least during the beginnings of the Mission Period in this area.

 He established a chain of Missions combining Christianization with the teaching of the European means of agriculture including livestock.

 However, Kino´s idea wasn´t only to develop Christianity in Pimeria Alta, but also to use our region as a communication bridge to Eastern Asia: to China in particular.

 He tried to prove that Lower California is a peninsula.

 He tried to prove that in the Northern fringes of the Continent there was a land bridge to Asia, the mystical Strait of Anian.

 Dolores, his first Mission, located in the Indian rancheria of Cosari, North of Cucurpe, was the base of his future operations, and from there he established all his other missions, always with the idea of extending to the Northwest to find that communication to Asia.

 The Fronteras Presidio, was established in 1692.

 Starting in 1697, Kino, without abandoning his original idea of trying to communicate towards the Northwest, also tried to reinforce the Missionary enclaves along the Santa Cruz.

 He founded cattle ranches along that river.

 When Kino passed away in Magdalena, on March 15, 1711, he had already established missions along the Concepcion river, the Santa Cruz, San Pedro, Sonoita and Gila, covering the whole of Pimeria Alta.

 After Kino's death, Father Agustin de Campos, from San Ignacio, would continue with the exploratory trips, as well as missionize the region.

 By 1715, Campos had undertaken three exploratory trips towards the coast, and in 1721, would try to find the Californian misionary, Juan de Ugarte, who had built a ship to explore the Gulf of California.

 In 1727, the Bishop of Durango arrived at the Pimeria, as this region was then under his Diocese. When he saw the abandonment of the region, he assigned three more missionaries here.

 In 1732, the Jesuits Felipe Segesser von Brunegg arrived to San Xavier del Bac, Johann Grazhofer to Guevavi, and Ignacio Keller to Suamca (today's Santa Cruz).

 In the Santa Cruz Valley region, in or near today's Buenavista [Mascareñas], were by then some cattle ranches of Spaniards.

 Probably the first one was owned by Nicolas Romero and his wife, Maria Ifigenia Perea. Romero would say sometime that he arrived there around 1720.

 Twice, in 1736 and 1737, Keller would undertake exploratory trips to the Gila river, as well as some others to the visitas within his jurisdiction, among them Guevavi and the Valley of San Luis.

 At the same time, the Hispanic population along the Santa Cruz river, especially in San Luis, continued to increase.

 At the end of 1736 a Yaqui Indian discovered almost at the surface enormous slabs of silver near La Arizona, in a site which since then received the name of Planchas de Plata.

 For many years it was thought that the name came from the Piman words: "ali" and "shonak" which mean "small spring;" however, recently the Historian Donald Garate came up with the theory that the name has a Basque origin. That is because "ariz ona" means "good oak" in the Basque Language. So, currently there are two versions about the origin of the name ARIZONA.

 Already by the 1730´s, San Luis, located on the Santa Cruz River, East of today´s Nogales, was a town, while Santa Barbara was a cattle ranch owned by Jose Romero.

 In 1741, two and a half sitios de terreno were adjudicated to the inheritors of Jose and Diego Romero in San Luis, while Don Antonio de Rivera established a cattle ranch near Arivaca.

 Also, near Sopori, Cap. Don Bernardo de Urrea had another one. Besides these, the Tubac rancheria was inhabited by other Spaniards.

 At the same time, South of today´s Nogales, in 1742 Cucurisulaqui was occupied (today´s Casita) by Cap. Francisco Elias Gonzalez.

 Starting in 1710, a year before Kino´s death, the Apache attacks had intensified, and by the middle of the century, they dominated the whole region of today´s border of Sonora and Chihuahua with Arizona and Texas.

 In an effort to diminish those attacks, besides the Fronteras Presidio, which had been established in 1692, another one was erected in 1742 in Terrenate (not the town near Magdalena but Northeast of Cananea).

  At least three epidemics diminished even more the Indian population: 1747, 1749 and 1751.

 To replace the dead, the same as Torres Perea, Garrucho went over the nearby rancherias to collect those living in the nearby canyons and hills.

 Most of the Indian population of Guevavi had been "reduced" through the use of force.

 However, this mechanism of replacing the dying Indians in the Mission, through the collection of the rest of the Native population from the region, was indicative of a process of gradual depletion of the reason for the existence of the institution of the Mission itself: the Indian population.

 At the same time, every year the Spaniard and Criollos under the care of the missionary increased in numbers.

 By then, Father Jacobo Sedelmayr, from his prosperous Mission in Tubutama, had continued the Missional expansion through the whole of Pimeria Alta, as well as undertaking several exploratory trips to the Colorado River in 1744, 1749, 1750 and after 1751.

 On November 20, 1751 the general uprising of Pimeria Alta started under the command of Luis de Saric, who since then changed his Christian name and called himself Bacquiopa, whose meaning is: *The enemy of adobe houses*.

 With the participation of the Indians from the Gila river, the Missionaries from Caborca and Sonoita were killed with the Spaniards and "gente de razon" who lived there.

 In Oquitoa, 20 more Spaniards were killed. In Saric the Spaniards living there were also killed, as well as destroyed all the settlements located between that mission and San Xavier del Bac. The town of Tubutama was also attacked.

 With these news, the whole Spanish population of Pimeria escaped from terror, and the Missions were abandoned. Governor Ortiz Parrilla came, adopting a conciliatory attitude, and began negotiations with Luis to end the uprising. He called the Indian leader to a meeting.

 Luis asked for the removal of Father Keller from Suamca, as well as Sedelmayf from Tubutama and Garrucho from Guevavi, to which the Governor acceded (although Keller would return later to Suamca), while Luis was reinstated in his position of Governor of Saric and Captain General of Pimeria Alta, and so ended the rebellion.

 And among the political repercussions that the uprising had, there would be the establishment of the Presidios of Altar and Tubac.

 The Pima Indians turned into a worse problem than the Apaches in Pimeria Alta were. They attacked even the Presidio de Tubac, as well as the Guevavi Mission, Sonoita and the ranches of Buenavista, San Luis and Santa Barbara.

 Starting 1760, Cap. Juan Bautista de Anza (Jr) assumed the possition of Commander of the Presidio of Tubac.

 His father had been killed by Apaches in 1740

 He was 24 years old, and previously had been Lieutenant in Fronteras, under the command of his brother in law, Gabriel de Vildosola, and had earned for himself the estime of Governor, Juan Antonio de Mendoza.

 Missions deteriorate

 California

 The first European to explore the California coast was Portuguese explorer and adventurer [João Rodrigues Cabrilho](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Jo%C3%A3o_Rodrigues_Cabrilho%22%20%5Co%20%22Jo%C3%A3o%20Rodrigues%20Cabrilho) (Juan Rodriguez Cabrillo).

 Cabrillo was commissioned by the Viceroy of New Spain and in 1542 he sailed into what is now San Diego, California. He continued north as far as Pt. Reyes, California.

 On November 23, 1542, the little fleet limped back to "San Salvador" (Santa Catalina Island) to overwinter and make repairs.

 There, around Christmas Eve, Cabrillo stepped out of his boat and splintered his shin when he stumbled on a jagged rock.

 The injury developed gangrene and he died on 3 January 1543 and was buried there.

 His second-in-command brought the remainder of the party back to Barra de Navidad, where they arrived 14 April 1543.

 They had found no wealth, no advanced Indian civilization, no agriculture and no Northwest Passage. As a result California was of little further interest.

 The Manila Galleon

 In 1565 the Spanish developed a trading route where they took gold and silver from the Americas and traded it for goods and spices from China and other Asian areas.

 The Spanish centered their trade in the Philippines at first around Cebu, which they had recently conquered, and later in Manila.

 The trade between the Philippines and Mexico involved using an annual passage of Manila galleon(s).

 These galleons returning to Mexico from the Philippines went north to about 40 degrees latitude and then turning East they could use the westerly trade winds and currents.

 These galleons, after crossing most of the Pacific Ocean, would arrive off the California coast from 60 to over 120 days later somewhere near Cape Mendocino (about 300 miles (480 km) north of San Francisco) at about 40 degrees N. latitude.

 They then could turn right and sail south down the California coast utilizing the available winds and the south flowing (about 1 mi/hr(1.6(km/h)) California Current. After sailing about 1,500 miles (2,400 km) south on they eventually got to their port in Mexico.

 This highly profitable trade with an almost annual trip by one to two ships (number of ships limited by Spanish Crown) down the California coast was continued for over 200 years.

 The maps and charts were poor and the coast was often shrouded in fog, so most journeys were well off shore.

 One of the greatest bays on the west coast—San Francisco Bay—escaped discovery for centuries until it was finally discovered by land exploration on November 4, 1769.

 Drake

 The English explorer and privateer Francis Drake sailed along the coast of California in 1579 after capturing two Spanish treasure ships in the Pacific.

 It is believed that he landed somewhere on the California coast.

 There his only surviving ship, the Golden Hind, underwent extensive repairs, and needed supplies were accumulated for a trip across the Pacific.

 Leaving California he followed Ferdinand Magellan on the second recorded circumnavigation of the world and the first English circumnavigation of the world, being gone from 1577 to 1580.

 It's believed Drake put ashore somewhere north of San Francisco.

 Vizcaíno

 In 1602, 60 years after Cabrillo, the Spaniard [Sebastián Vizcaíno](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sebasti%C3%A1n_Vizca%C3%ADno%22%20%5Co%20%22Sebasti%C3%A1n%20Vizca%C3%ADno) explored California's coastline from San Diego as far north as Monterey Bay.

 He named San Diego Bay and held the first Christian church service recorded in California on the shores of San Diego Bay.

 He also put ashore in Monterey, California and made glowing reports of the Monterey bay area as a possible anchorage for ships with land suitable for growing crops.

 He also provided rudimentary charts of the coastal waters, which were used for nearly 200 years.

 Development of Alta California

 The Spanish divided California into two parts, Baja California and Alta California, as provinces of New Spain (Mexico).

 Baja or lower California consisted of the Baja Peninsula and terminated roughly at San Diego, California where Alta California started.

 The first permanent mission in Baja California, Misión de Nuestra Señora de Loreto Conchó, was founded on October 15, 1697, by Jesuit Friar Juan Maria Salvatierra (1648–1717) accompanied by one small boat's crew and six soldiers.

 After the establishment of Missions in Alta California after 1769, the Spanish treated Baja California and Alta California as a single administrative unit, part of the Viceroyalty of New Spain, with Monterey, California, as its capital.

 Nearly all the missions in Baja California were established by members of the Jesuit order supported by a few soldiers.

 After a power dispute between Charles III of Spain and the Jesuits, the Jesuit colleges were closed and the Jesuits were expelled from Mexico and South America in 1767 and deported back to Spain.

 After the forcible expulsion of the Jesuit order, most of the missions were taken over by Franciscan and later Dominican friars.

 Both of these groups were under much more direct control of the Spanish monarchy.

 Many missions were abandoned in Sonora Mexico and Baja California.

 After the conclusion of the Seven Year War between Britain and France and their allies (called the French and Indian War in the British colonies on the East Coast) (1754–1763), France was driven out of North America.

 Spain and Britain were the only colonial powers left.

 Britain, as yet, had no Pacific colonies in North America.

 The Bourbon King Charles III of Spain established missions and other outposts in Alta California out of fear that the territory would be claimed by the British, who not only had 13 colonies on the East Coast, but also several islands in the Caribbean, and had recently taken over Canada from the French.

 One of Spain's rewards for helping Britain in the Seven Years' War was the French Louisiana Territory.

 Another potential colonial power already established in the Pacific was Russia, whose Maritime Fur Trade of mostly sea otter and fur seals was pressing down from Alaska to the Pacific Northwest's lower reaches.

 These furs could be traded in China for large profits.

 The Spanish settlement of Alta California was the last colonization project to expand Spain's vastly over-extended empire in North America, and they tried to do it with minimal cost and support.

 Approximately half the cost of settling Alta California was borne by donations and half by funds from the Spanish crown.

 Massive Indian revolts in New Mexico's Pueblo Revolt among the Pueblo Indians of the Rio Grande valley in the 1680s as well as Pima Indian Revolt in 1751 and the ongoing Seri conflicts in Sonora Mexico provided the Franciscan friars with arguments to establish missions with fewer colonial settlers.

 In particular, the sexual exploitation of Native American women by Spanish soldiers sparked violent reprisals from the Native community and the spread of venereal disease.

 Portolá expedition (1769-1770)

 In 1769, the Spanish Visitor General, [José de Gálvez](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Jos%C3%A9_de_G%C3%A1lvez), planned a [five part expedition](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Portol%C3%A0_expedition), consisting of three units by sea and two by land, to start settling Alta California.

 [Gaspar de Portolá](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gaspar_de_Portol%C3%A0) volunteered to command the expedition.

 The Catholic Church was represented by [Franciscan](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Franciscan) friar [Junípero Serra](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Jun%C3%ADpero_Serra%22%20%5Co%20%22Jun%C3%ADpero%20Serra) and his fellow friars.

 All five detachments of soldiers, friars and future colonists were to meet on the shores of San Diego Bay.

 The first ship, the *San Carlos*, sailed from [La Paz](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/La_Paz%2C_Baja_California_Sur) on January 10, 1769, and the *San Antonio* sailed on February 15.

 The *San Antonio* arrived in San Diego Bay on April 11 and the *San Carlos* on April 29.

 The third vessel, the *San José*, left [New Spain](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/New_Spain) later that spring but was lost at sea with no survivors.

 The first land party, led by [Fernando Rivera y Moncada](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fernando_Rivera_y_Moncada), left from the Franciscan [Mission San Fernando Velicata](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Misi%C3%B3n_San_Fernando_Rey_de_Espa%C3%B1a_de_Velicat%C3%A1) on March 24, 1769. With Rivera was Father [Juan Crespí](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Juan_Cresp%C3%AD), famed diarist of the entire expedition.

 That group arrived in San Diego on May 4.

 A later expedition led by Portolá, which included Father [Junípero Serra](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Jun%C3%ADpero_Serra%22%20%5Co%20%22Jun%C3%ADpero%20Serra), the President of the Missions, along with a combination of missionaries, settlers, and leather-jacket soldiers including [José Raimundo Carrillo](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Jos%C3%A9_Raimundo_Carrillo), left Velicata on May 15, 1769 and arrived in San Diego on June 29.

 They took with them about 46 mules, 200 cows and 140 horses—all that could be spared by the poor Baja Missions.

 [Fernando de Rivera](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fernando_Rivera_y_Moncada) was appointed to command the lead party that would scout out a land route and blaze a trail to San Diego.

 Food was short, and the Indians accompanying them were expected to forage for most of what they needed.

 Many Indian neophytes died along the way; even more deserted.

 The two groups traveling from Lower California on foot had to cross about 300 miles (480 km) of the very dry and rugged [Baja Peninsula](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Baja_Peninsula).

 The part of the expedition that took place over land took about 40–51 days to get to San Diego.

 The contingent coming by sea encountered the south flowing [California Current](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/California_Current) and strong head winds, and were still straggling in three months after they set sail.

 After their arduous journeys, most of the men aboard the ships were ill, chiefly from [scurvy](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Scurvy), and many had died.

 Out of a total of about 219 men who had left Baja California, little more than 100 survived.

 The survivors established the [Presidio of San Diego](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/San_Diego_Presidio) on May 14, 1769.

 [Mission San Diego de Alcala](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mission_San_Diego_de_Alcala) was established on July 16, 1769.

 As the first of the presidios and Spanish missions in California, they provided the base of operations for the Spanish colonization of Alta California (present-day California).

 On July 14, 1769, an expedition was dispatched from San Diego to find the port of Monterey.

 Not recognizing the [Monterey Bay](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Monterey_Bay) from the description written by [Sebastián Vizcaíno](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sebasti%C3%A1n_Vizca%C3%ADno%22%20%5Co%20%22Sebasti%C3%A1n%20Vizca%C3%ADno) almost 200 years prior, the expedition traveled beyond it to what is now the [San Francisco, California](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/San_Francisco%2C_California) area.

 The exploration party, led by Don [Gaspar de Portolá](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gaspar_de_Portol%C3%A0), arrived on November 2, 1769, at [San Francisco Bay](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/San_Francisco_Bay).

 One of the greatest ports on the west coast of America had finally been discovered by land.

 The expedition returned to San Diego on January 24, 1770.

 The Presidio and Mission of [San Carlos de Borromeo de Monterey](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Charles_Borromeo) were established on June 3, 1770, by Portola, Serra, and Crespi.

 Without any agricultural crops or experience eating the food the Indians subsisted on, the shortage of food at San Diego became extremely critical during the first few months of 1770.

 They subsisted on some of their cattle, wild geese, fish, and other food exchanged with the Indians for clothing, but the ravages of scurvy continued because there was then no understanding of the cause or cure of scurvy.

 A small quantity of corn they had planted grew well, only to be eaten by birds.

 Portolá sent Captain Rivera and a small detachment of about 40 men to the Baja California missions in February to obtain more cattle and a pack-train of supplies.

 This temporarily eased the drain on San Diego's scant provisions, but within weeks, acute hunger and increased sickness again threatened to force abandonment of the port.

 Portolá resolved that if no relief ship arrived by March 19, 1770 they would leave the next morning "because there were not enough provisions to wait longer and the men had not come to perish from hunger."

 At three o'clock in the afternoon on March 19, 1770, as if by a miracle, the sails of the *San Antonio*, loaded with relief supplies, were discernible on the horizon.

 The settlement of Alta California would continue.

####  Anza explorations (1774-1776)

 Juan Bautista de Anza, leading an exploratory expedition on January 8, 1774, with 3 padres, 20 soldiers, 11 servants, 35 mules, 65 cattle, and 140 horses set forth from [Tubac](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tubac%2C_Arizona%22%20%5Co%20%22Tubac%2C%20Arizona) south of present day Tucson, Arizona.

 They went to across the Sonoran desert to California from Mexico by swinging south of the Gila River to avoid Apache attacks until they hit the Colorado River at the Yuma Crossing—about the only way across the Colorado River.

 The friendly Quechan (Yuma) Indians (2-3,000) he encountered there were growing most of their food, using irrigation systems, and had already imported pottery, horses, wheat and a few other crops from New Mexico.

 After crossing the Colorado to avoid the impassible Algodones Dunes west of Yuma, Arizona, they followed the river about 50 miles (80 km) south (to about the Arizona's southwest corner on the Colorado River) before turning northwest to about today's Mexicali, Mexico and then turning north through today's Imperial Valley and then northwest again before reaching Mission San Gabriel Arcángel near the future city of Los Angeles, California.

 It took Anza about 74 days to do this initial reconnaissance trip to establish a land route into California.

 On his return trip he went down the Gila River until hitting the Santa Cruz River (Arizona) and continuing on to Tubac.

 The return trip only took 23 days, and he encountered several peaceful and populous agricultural tribes with irrigation systems located along the Gila River.

 In Anza's second trip (1775–1776) he returned to California with 240 friars, soldiers and colonists with their families.

 They took 695 horses and mules, 385 Texas Longhorn bulls and cows with them.

 The approximately 200 surviving cattle and an unknown number of horses (many of each were lost or eaten along the way) started the cattle and horse raising industry in California.

 In California the cattle and horses had few enemies and plentiful grass in all but drought years.

 They essentially grew and multiplied as feral animals, doubling roughly every two years.

 The party started from Tubac, Arizona, on October 22, 1775 and arrived at San Francisco Bay on March 28, 1776.

 There they established the Presidio of San Francisco, followed by a mission, Mission San Francisco de Asís (Mission Dolores) --the future city of San Francisco.

 In 1780, the Spanish established two combination missions and pueblos at the Yuma Crossing: Mission San Pedro y San Pablo de Bicuñer and Mission Puerto de Purísima Concepción.

 Both these pueblos and missions were on the California side of the Colorado River but were administered by the Arizona authorities.

 On July 17–18, 1781 the Yuma (Quechan) Indians, in a dispute with the Spanish, destroyed both missions and pueblos—killing 103 soldiers, colonists, and Friars and capturing about 80 prisoners, mostly women and children.

 In four well-supported punitive expeditions in 1782 and 1783 against the Quechans, the Spanish managed to gather their dead and ransom nearly all the prisoners, but failed to re-open the Anza Trail.

 The Yuma Crossing was closed for Spanish traffic and it would stay closed until about 1846.

 California was nearly isolated again from land based travel.

 About the only way into California from Mexico would now be a 40-60 day voyage by sea.

 Eventually, 21 California Missions were established along the California coast from San Diego to San Francisco—about 500 miles (800 km) up the coast.

 The missions were nearly all located within 30 miles (48 km) of the coast and almost no exploration or settlements were made in the Central Valley (California) or the Sierra Nevada (California).

 The only expeditions anywhere close to the Central Valley and Sierras were the rare forays by soldiers undertaken to recover runaway Indians who had escaped from the Missions.

 The "settled" territory of about 15,000 square miles (40,000 km2) was about 10% of California's eventual 156,000 square miles (400,000 km2) territory.

 The Mission Network

 The [California Missions](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/California_Missions), after they were all established, were located about one day's horseback ride apart for easier communication and linked by the [El Camino Real trail](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/El_Camino_Real_%28California%29).

 These Missions were typically manned by two to three friars and three to ten soldiers.

 Virtually all the physical work was done by Indians convinced to or coerced into joining the missions.

 The padres provided instructions for making adobe bricks, building mission buildings, planting fields, digging irrigation ditches, growing new grains and vegetables, herding cattle and horses, singing, speaking Spanish, and understanding the [Catholic](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Catholic_Church) faith—all that was thought to be necessary to bring the Indians to be able to support themselves and their new church.

 The soldiers supervised the construction of the Presidios (forts) and were responsible for keeping order and preventing and/or capturing runaway Indians that tried to leave the missions.

 Nearly all of the Indians adjoining the missions were induced to join the various missions built in California.

 Once the Indians had joined the mission, if they tried to leave, soldiers were sent out to retrieve them.

 In the 1830s, [Richard Henry Dana, Jr.](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Richard_Henry_Dana%2C_Jr.) observed that Indians were regarded and treated as slaves by the Spanish-speaking Californios.

 The missions eventually claimed about 1/6 of the available land in California or roughly 1,000,000 acres (4,047 km2) of land per mission.

 The rest of the land was considered the property of the [Spanish monarchy](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Spanish_monarchy).

 To encouraged settlement of the territory, large land grants were given to retired soldiers and colonists.

 Most grants were virtually free and typically went to friends and relatives in the California government.

 A few foreign colonists were accepted if they accepted Spanish citizenship and joined the Catholic Faith.

 The [Mexican Inquisition](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mexican_Inquisition) was still in nearly full force and forbade Protestants living in Mexican controlled territory.

 In the Spanish colonial period many of these grants were later turned into [Ranchos](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ranchos_of_California).

 Spain made about 30 of these large grants, nearly all several square leagues (1 Spanish league = 2.6 miles (4.2 km)) each in size.

 The total land granted to settlers in the Spanish colonial era was about 800,000 acres (3,237 km2) or about 35,000 acres (142 km2) each.

 The few owners of these large ranchos patterned themselves after the landed gentry in Spain and were devoted to keeping themselves living in a grand style.

 The rest of the population they expected to support them.

 Their mostly unpaid workers were nearly all Spanish trained Indians or [peons](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Peons) that had learned how to ride horses and raise some crops.

 The majority of the ranch hands were paid with room and board, rough clothing, rough housing and no salary.

 The main products of these ranchos were cattle, horses and sheep, most of which lived virtually wild.

 The cattle were mostly killed for fresh meat, as well as hides and tallow (fat) which could be traded or sold for money or goods.

 As the [cattle](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Texas_Longhorn_%28cattle%29) herds increased there came a time when nearly everything that could be made of leather was—doors, window coverings, stools, [chaps](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Chaps), leggings, vests lariats ([riata](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Riata%22%20%5Co%20%22Riata))s, [saddles](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Saddle), boots etc.

 Since there was no refrigeration then, often a cow was killed for the day's fresh meat and the hide and tallow salvaged for sale later.

 After taking the cattle's hide and tallow their carcasses were left to rot or feed the California [grizzly bears](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Grizzly_bear) which roamed wild in California at that time, or to feed the packs of dogs that typically lived at each rancho.

 A series of four *presidios*, or "royal forts", each manned by 10 to 100 men, were built by Spain in Alta California.

 California installations were established in [San Diego](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/San_Diego) ([El Presidio Real de San Diego](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Presidio_of_San_Diego)) founded in 1769, in San Francisco ([El Presidio Real de San Francisco](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Presidio_of_San_Francisco)) founded in 1776, and in [Santa Barbara](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Santa_Barbara%2C_California) ([El Presidio Real de Santa Bárbara](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Presidio_of_Santa_Barbara)) founded in 1782. After the Spanish colonial era the [Presidio of Sonoma](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Presidio_of_Sonoma) in [Sonoma, California](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sonoma%2C_California) was founded in 1834.)

 To support the presidios and the missions, half a dozen towns (called pueblos) were established in California.

 The pueblos of [Los Angeles](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Los_Angeles), [San Diego](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_San_Diego), [San Francisco](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_San_Francisco), [Santa Barbara](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Santa_Barbara%2C_California), [Villa de Branciforte](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Villa_de_Branciforte) (later abandoned before later becoming [Santa Cruz, California](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Santa_Cruz%2C_California)) and the pueblo of [San Jose, California](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_San_Jose%2C_California) were all established to support the [Missions](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Spanish_Missions_of_California) and presidios in California. These were the only towns (pueblos) in California.

**Bourbon New Spain**

 **Revolution from above**

 The Habsburg dynasty came to an end in Spain as Charles II died in 1700 and Philip, Duke of Anjou in France and grandson of Louis XIV assumed the Spanish throne

 Thus, the Bourbon dynasty dominated the Spanish throne as Philip became Philip V

 In Mexico, three developments transpired through the eighteenth century

 1) Demographic and economic resurgence

 Indian Population

 Low point around 1650

 Climbed throughout 18th century

 Resistance to European disease

 Declining mortality rates

 European Population

 Expansion of Spanish immigration

 Many from Santander and Bosque regions

 North of Spain

 Many had relatives in New Spain

 Northwestward shift of demographic center of gravity

 Towards Bajío

 Shift in ethnic balance towards castes in relation to Indians and Spanish

 Erosion of castes

 The expansion in the mining economy tended to erode castes

 The emergence of class as opposed to caste as determinant of social position

 This probably comes from the effect intermarriage had on the caste system as people of different castes had increased social interaction

 Class is a social categorization after the destruction of a caste system

 Tends to be based on social and economic success

 The Impact of Mining

 Economic and demographic growth was tied to expansion of mining

 Mining had lost its role in the colonial economy under the Habsburg regime

 During the Bourbon era there were new strikes and renewed exploitation of old sites

 Growth in mining was spurred by the investment of large amounts of capital

 Spanish and domestic

 The crown needed money especially after 1760 and encouraged mining development

 One of the effects of the renewed effort of mining was the reform of the labor system

 Workers were no longer paid a percentage of what they mined

 They were paid a wage

 This led to declining wages

 Contributed to deteriorated working conditions

 Official policy encouraged the maximization of production, profits, and revenue

 These developments led to discontent of miners

 Mining profits increased dramatically during the 18th century

 Spain was the principal beneficiary

 In 1784, 477 million pesos went to Spain

 79 million stayed in Mexico

 The money that stayed in Mexico remained with the elite institutions and castes in Mexico

 The Church, haciendas, mining interests, merchants, artisans

 Mining did not contribute to the development of a dynamic economy

 Money generated by mining went back into mining

 Capital was not invested to expand production in other areas of the economy

 Tradition

 By the end of the 18th century, the mines were beginning to play out

 They were a short term success

 But they were a long term economic failure

 The agricultural economy

 Agriculture remained the solid based of the society

 Population growth greatly influenced the expansion of agriculture

 Greater demand for food in the population centers

 Mines required food, hides, and tallow

 Other industries such as textiles, saddles, cigars, soap, pulque, construction also relied on agricultural products

 Agricultural output exceeded mining output 60:40

 Export demand for Mexican agricultural products also rose

 Agricultural production became intensified because of population growth and falling cost of labor

 As agricultural production became more extensive, it began to push the cattle zone north

 Landlords benefitted from strong demand for agricultural products, rising land values (more demand), and falling wages (greater supply)

 Haciendas flourished during this period

 More independent farmers became dependant tenants as hacendados acquired more land

 One effect was an increase in land disputes and rural conflict

 This development also contributed to the erosion of the independent Indian village as the rural region became dominated by the haciendas

 The effect of all of this was increased pressure on the peasantry

 The commercial economy

 The commercial economy underwent a period of growth and boom during the late 18th century Bourbon period

 Profits rose, wages fell, access to means of subsistence became constricted, and social tensions became exacerbated

 With demographic and market growth economic opportunities increased, but there was a cost

 Mining profits were shipped out of Mexico

 Villages eroded in the face of hacienda expansion

 This encouraged the development of Indian consciousness among acculturated Indians

 Particularly in the Bajío region

 Peasant protest was an effect

 Many times this took the form of non- compliance

 There was an observable decline in the standard of living

 A general fall in income

 Wages fell and food prices rose

 Credit dried up as money became scarce

 Artisans suffered from cheaper foreign imports

 The domestic market contracted amid an apparent boom in mining and agricultural production

 The Bourbon boom was incapable of sustaining growth or industrial development

 The Mexican economy could not modernize its agricultural infrastructure

 This was because of the colonial relationship with Spain

 By the late 18th century Mexico was becoming impoverished

 Rural tenants suffered the greatest as they lacked land, resources, and political influence

 Landlords and political leaders gouged the population by exploiting times of agricultural dearth and by managing scarcity for their own profit

 The aggressiveness of Bourbon authorities to raise revenues for the state and for themselves contributed to resistance

 Peasant rebellion correlated with areas of rapid agrarian commercialization and a paternalist state

 The Bourbon leadership emphasized rapid agrarian commercialization, hacienda expansion, mining boom, higher rents, falling wages, swings in the prices of food and everyday items, and the development of an oppressive labor system

 Bourbon New Spain

 After the ascension of Charles III in 1759, the Bourbon regime instituted a series of political, administrative, religious, and economic reforms

 They instituted a Revolution from above in an effort to model colonial society after Britain and France

 Economic development and political centralization by state fiat

 Centralized state, integrated population, and the development of a commercial economy based on free trade

 Being a dynasty of French origin, the Bourbons looked to France a

 model of centralized administration in an effort to harness economic forces to create a tight, state-run colonial system

 *Afrancesado*

 Under the Bourbons, government was to become stronger, the economy more dynamic and mercantilist to benefit Spain in its rivalries with Britain and France

 Thus, taxes, armies, and new structures of government had to be raised and employed

 The colonial subjects of New Spain would be forced to be economically free and to accept centralized state authority

 These developments were based on the expansion of tax revenue that came from demographic expansion and economic growth of the eighteenth century

 The Bourbons could only maintain and modernize their colonial empire by raising revenue

 Inspired resentment

 Taxes increased dramatically after the 1760s making up 15% of government income

 Besides taxes, there were tributes levied against the Indian population and royal monopolies established in profitable trades such as tobacco, salt, playing cards, gunpowder, and pulque

 The Bourbons insisted on a free trade policy, but official monopolies undermined these intentions

 By the late eighteenth century Mexicans paid 67% more in revenue than Spaniards

 The Bourbons also tapped into the wealth of the Church to support its government and policies

 Jesuit properties were confiscated and sold in 1767

 Ecclesiastical funds were seized

 In 1804 the Crown seized 40 million pesos

 The overhaul of the tax structure required expanded bureaucratization

 The great sums of money generated also contributed to corruption as bureaucrats could distribute funds to their friends and relatives

 The expanded revenue also contributed to an expansion of the Hispanicization (from Spain) of the colonial government

 This expansion inspired creole resentment

 By 1800 Mexico was overtaxed and over-governed compared to the Habsburg regime

 The administrative system was reorganized to include more intendancies, each with its own treasury

 These intendancies became the bases for the later Mexican states

 Along with the swelling of the bureaucracy came the expansion and the professionalization of the military

 Previously creloe-led militias were the basis of the colonial military

 Mexican colonists were not drawn to serve in the Spanish military

 Besides the Bourbon crown was leery of employing creoles and mestizos to form a colonial-dominated military

 However, colonists were forcibly recruited into an increasingly Spanish- led professional military

 Inspired resentment

 The military played a large role in the maintenance of Spanish rule in the colony

 Nevertheless, the Spanish were never able to solidify their grasp on the North

 Louisiana was given back to France

 Florida was becoming more American

 Indian uprisings, such as the Mayo, Pima, and Yaqui uprisings in the Northwest contributed to a weakening hold on the region

 The Bourbons instituted a policy of secular colonialism

 Thus, the missions declined under Bourbon rule

 California is an exception

 Missions gave way to the militarization of the presidio as the way-station into Spanish civilization

 The Yaqui and other rebellions of the Northwest were inspired by the dismantling of the Jesuit missions in 1767

 With the presidio came the settlers, ranchers, and other undesirables

 As a result of the difficulties of the northern frontier and the abandonment of the missionary process of acculturation the North remained poorly integrated and vulnerable to outside influence

 This is crucial to understanding US expansion into the Southwest

 In the Mexican interior, the military grew in size and influence

 Military force was applied to rebels, bandits, and criminals

 Becoming a police force

 An instrument of social control

 As the government demonstrated its inability to provide military forces for all needs for social control, local officials began to form private military forces

 Landlords and mine operators raised bodies of troops to enforce discipline

 Militarization of society

 Social behavior inspired by force instead of example as demonstrated by the Church

 The Bourbon policy toward the Church sought to undermine the Church's influence in colonial society

 The Bourbons focused on secularization and the weakening of clerical authority

 To the Bourbons, the Church was politically offensive, economically and culturally backwards

 They also saw the Church as compromising royal absolutism, obstructing good government, inhibiting economic and educational development

 This was the basis of the ejection of the Jesuits in 1767

 Many creoles had been Jesuit educated

 Secularization was the basis of the dismantling of the mission system

 Indian uprisings

 The popular reaction to the dismantling of the influence of the Church in colonial society helps explain the development of clerical patriotism, the standard of the Virgin, and the assertion of an American identity, and the repudiation of the *afrancesado* heretics of the Spanish authorities

 **Insurgency**

By 1810 creole nationalism, and Indian and caste solidarity began to unite against Spain and the *peninsulares*

 As early as the 1790s the colonial relationship with Spain was disrupted because of war in Europe associated with the French Revolution

 This development led to a decline in Spanish colonial and mercantile control over Mexico

 Also, Mexican economic conditions soured as the growing Bourbon government in Spain and Mexico exceeded the value of Mexican silver production and imposed taxes began draining the economy of money

 Taxes were raised, forced loans were imposed, and Church property was confiscated (in Spain in 1798 and Mexico in 1804)

 The imposition on the Church had sweeping effects on Mexico since the Church was the largest financial institution in the colony

 The Church had to foreclose on loans to property owners, merchants, miners, farmers, and shopkeepers

 Napoleon invaded Spain in 1808 and imposed his brother Joseph as king

 Mexican creoles in charge of the *cabildos* declared loyalty to Spanish crown in exile (Seville Junta) and sought independent rule from Napoleon's Spain

 Enlightenment ideas of popular sovereignty and self government reinforced by the examples of the American and French Revolutions contributed to the developing insurgency

 Bourbon reformism also contributed to ideas of popular sovereignty

 The Viceroy also declared loyalty to exiled crown despite opposition of *peninsulares*

 *Peninsulares* rose against creoles and consolidated their own local control in 1808

 Creoles then capitalized on social tensions that involved Indians and mestizos

 Father Miguel Hidalgo seized the opportunity in 1810 and rose against the *peninsulares* seeking to establish an autonomous government in the name of the exiled crown

 Hidalgo captured and executed in 1811

 Jose María Morelos 1811-1815

 Over 400 priests participated in the insurgency

 Counterinsurgency

 Led by peninsulares, but also by creoles who favored their self interests over independence (Augustín Iturbide)

 Insurgents such as Félix Fernández (Guadalupe Victoria), Vicente Guerrero,

 In 1820 a military coup in Spain toppled Bourbon authority and imposed the liberal Constitution of 1812

 Weakened the Church, and undermined clerical and military privileges

 In Mexican, the Church and army, as well as oligarchic interests felt threatened

 The Mexican creole elite rose in rebellion in 1821

 Plan of Iguala and the Trigarantine Army

 Religion, king, and country

 They called for independence, the defense of the Church, corporate privilege, and a constitutional monarchy