

THIRD EDITION



HISTORICAL DICTIONARY OF

PORTUGAL

DOUGLAS L. WHEELER
WALTER C. OPELLO JR.

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This book is dedicated to the memory of Professor Francis Millet Rogers (1915–1990), the late Nancy Clark Smith professor of Portuguese language and literatures, Harvard University, who taught me my first Portuguese language, and who made a real difference in launching my career in Portuguese studies.

—Douglas L. Wheeler

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Editor's Foreword

Few countries have had a history as extraordinary as Portugal's. A tiny country in a remote corner of southwest Europe, it not only preserved its often-threatened independence but conquered a vast, scattered empire. Then, even when other empires succumbed, it fought tenaciously to hold on. This history was sometimes glorious, sometimes shameful, but it could never be ignored. Indeed, at times, the past appeared to overwhelm the present, and it is only recently that its people could concentrate on the present and build for the future in a renovated Europe.

It is not easy to grasp the immensity of Portugal's 2,000-year past, but it is necessary if one wants to know where the nation comes from and where it is heading. Fortunately, this path is clearly marked by our latest historical dictionary. The crucial moments are highlighted in the chronology and further elucidated in specific entries covering the most significant persons, places, and events, as well as essential facets of the economy, society, historical monuments, and culture. But the recent past and present have pride of place, and the future is foreshadowed in other entries and the introduction. For those who wish to learn more, it is merely necessary to consult the excellent comprehensive bibliography, which includes works in English, Portuguese, and other European languages.

This volume was written by two of the foremost authorities on Portugal. Douglas L. Wheeler is a retired professor of modern history at the University of New Hampshire, Durham, where he lectured on both Portugal and the former Portuguese territories in Africa. He was also coordinator of the International Conference Group on Portugal and editor of the *Portuguese Studies Review*. Dr. Wheeler, once a Fulbright student in Portugal, returns there for frequent visits. He has written extensively, including other books, such as *Angola* (with René Pélissier), *Republican Portugal*, and *In Search of Modern Portugal* (coedited

with Lawrence Graham). Walter C. Opello Jr. is a professor of political science at the State University of New York, College at Oswego, New York. A two-time Fulbright scholar to Portugal, he has written extensively on Portuguese politics and government, including *Portugal: From Monarchy to Pluralist Democracy* and *Portugal's Political Development* and other books, such as *The Nation State and Global Order* (coauthored with Stephen Rosow), and *European Politics: The Making of Democratic States* (coauthored with Katherine A. R. Opello)

Jon Woronoff,
Series Editor

Acknowledgments

In recounting an entire academic career's scholarly debts regarding knowledge of Portugal, where does one begin? I began my journey of learning on this topic as a colonial Africanist in graduate school at Boston University and continued as a member of the first Fulbright student exchange group in Portugal, 1961–62. Early on, I was almost overwhelmed with the sheer scale of Portugal's long past. Keeping in mind that the United States as a nation is a little over 200 years old, students will note that as of 2000, Portugal was 860 years old as a nation. There are two scholars in this field to whom I owe a great deal, although I was never formally a student of theirs. These scholars are Professors James Duffy (Brandeis University) and the late C. R. Boxer (formerly of London University, Yale, and Indiana University), whose writings on Portugal and its overseas imperial history caught my attention at the beginnings of my studies on Portugal and Angola. Duffy's book *Portuguese Africa* was both a revelation and an inspiration: his lively writing and trenchant views made dry-as-dust material come alive and put it into contemporary context. While Boxer's many writings on imperial Portugal did not bring events to the present, his witty style and profound research impressed the novice.

I remain grateful, too, to the University of New Hampshire, Durham, for granting me leave from teaching spring term 1992 in order to complete this project, which had begun in earnest in the summer of 1991. I would like to thank series editor Jon Woronoff for an early commitment to include a volume on Portugal in the new *European Historical Dictionary* series. In producing the second edition, I am grateful to Jack McLaughlin of Dover, New Hampshire, for his mastery of computer possibilities, and to Gretchen Adams, Ph.D., Department of History, University of New Hampshire, Durham, as well as to Professor Francis Dutra, Department of History, University of California, Santa Barbara,

for assistance, corrections, and suggestions. Professor Carlos Cunha of Dowling College was most helpful in his authorship of new entries on Alvaro Cunhal, Left Bloc, the Socialist Party, and a new, more complete entry on the Portuguese Communist Party.

Given the fact that so little Portuguese history is regularly offered in course work in North American colleges and universities and the fact that there are so few up-to-date, general reference works on Portugal's history for the beginning, general reader, it is all the more essential that such a volume as this is now available, even with its inevitable omissions and other shortcomings. When I review my academic career in the Portuguese studies area, I know that little or nothing was available to the student or even the traveler or visitor to Portugal who wished to begin to grasp the essentials of Portuguese history, continental and overseas, and to survey the richness of Portuguese civilization. I hope that this volume will help to meet that need.

Douglas L. Wheeler

Acronyms and Abbreviations

| | |
|----------|---|
| AD | Democratic Alliance / Aliança Democrática |
| AR | Assembly of the Republic / Assembleia da República |
| CADC | Academic Center of Christian Democracy / Centro Académico da Democracia Cristã |
| CDS | Social Democratic Center Party / Christian Democrats / Centro Democrático e Social; renamed Popular Party (PP) in 1990s |
| CEP | Portuguese Expeditionary Corps / Corpo Expedicionário Português (World War I) |
| CI | Communist International |
| COPCON | Operational Command for Continental Portugal / Comando Operacional para Portugal Continental |
| CPLP | Community of Portuguese Language Countries / Comunidade dos Países de Língua Portuguesa |
| CR | Council of the Revolution / Conselho da Revolução |
| DGS | Directorate-General of Security / Direcção-Geral da Segurança (1969–74) |
| EEC | European Economic Community (or EC) |
| EU | European Union |
| FNLA | National Front for the Liberation of Angola / Frente Nacional para a Libertação de Angola |
| FRELIMO | Front for the Liberation of Mozambique / Frente para a Libertação de Moçambique |
| FRETILIN | Revolutionary Front of Independent East Timor / Frente Revolucionária do Timor Leste Independente |
| GNR | Republican National Guard / Guarda Nacional Republicana |
| JC | Juventude Comunista / Portuguese Communist Youth |

| | |
|--------|--|
| MFA | Armed Forces Movement / Movimento das Forças Armadas |
| MPLA | Popular Movement for the Liberation of Angola / Movimento Popular para a Libertação de Angola |
| MUD | Movement of Democratic Unity / Movimento da Unidade Democrática |
| NATO | North Atlantic Treaty Organization |
| PAIGC | African Party for the Independence of Guinea and Cape Verde / Partido Africano para a Independência da Guiné e do Cabo Verde |
| PC | Centrist Party / Partido Centrista |
| PCP | Portuguese Communist Party / Partido Comunista Português |
| PIDE | International and State Defense Police / Polícia Internacional e de Defesa do Estado (1945–69) |
| PP | Popular (or Peoples') Party, formerly CDS |
| PPD | Popular Democratic Party / Partido Popular Democrático (later PSD) |
| PPM | Popular Monarchist Party / Partido Popular Monárquico |
| PR | Reformist Party / Partido Reformista |
| PRE | Evolutionist Republican Party / Partido Republicano Evolucionista |
| PRP | Portuguese Republican Party ("The Democrats") / Partido Republicano Português |
| PS | Socialist Party / Partido Socialista |
| PSD | Social Democratic Party / Partido Social Democrático (formerly PPD) |
| PVDE | Vigilance and State Defense Police / Polícia Vigilância e de Defesa do Estado |
| UN | União Nacional / National Union |
| UNESCO | United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization |
| UNITA | National Union for the Total Independence of Angola / União Nacional para a Independência Total de Angola |
| UR | Republican Union Party / União Republicana |

Portugal

— International boundary
--- District boundary
★ National capital
⊙ District capital
— Railroad
— Road

0 25 50 Kilometers
0 25 50 Miles

Portugal

- International boundary
- District boundary
- ★ National capital
- ⊙ District capital
- Railroad
- Road

0 25 50 Kilometers
0 25 50 Miles

Districts are named after their respective capitals. The Azores districts of Angra do Heroísmo, Horta, and Ponta Delgada, and the Madeira Islands district of Funchal are not shown.

NORTH ATLANTIC OCEAN

SPAIN

Golfo de Cádiz



Chronology

15,000–3,000 BCE Paleolithic cultures in western Portugal.

400–200 BCE Greek and Carthaginian trade settlements on coast.

202 BCE Roman armies invade ancient Lusitania.

137 BCE Intensive Romanization of Lusitania begins.

410 CE Germanic tribes—Suevi and Visigoths—begin conquest of Roman Lusitania and Galicia.

714–16 Muslims begin conquest of Visigothic Lusitania.

1034 Christian Reconquest frontier reaches Mondego River.

1064 Christians conquer Coimbra.

1139 Burgundian Count Afonso Henriques proclaims himself king of Portugal; birth of Portugal. Battle of Ourique: Afonso Henriques defeats Muslims.

1147 With English Crusaders' help, Portuguese seize Lisbon from Muslims.

1179 Papacy formally recognizes Portugal's independence (Pope Alexander III).

1226 Campaign to reclaim Alentejo from Muslims begins.

1249 Last Muslim city (Silves) falls to Portuguese Army.

1381 Beginning of third war between Castile and Portugal.

1383 Master of Aviz, João, proclaimed regent by Lisbon populace.

1385 April: Master of Aviz, João I, proclaimed king of Portugal by Cortes of Coimbra. **14 August:** Battle of Aljubarrota, Castilians defeated by royal forces, with assistance of English army.

1394 Birth of “Prince Henry the Navigator,” son of King João I.

1415 Beginning of overseas expansion as Portugal captures Moroccan city of Ceuta.

1419 Discovery of Madeira Islands.

1425–28 Prince D. Pedro, older brother of Prince Henry, travels in Europe.

1427 Discovery (or rediscovery?) of Azores Islands.

1434 Prince Henry the Navigator’s ships pass beyond Cape Bojador, West Africa.

1437 Disaster at Tangier, Morocco, as Portuguese fail to capture city.

1441 First African slaves from western Africa reach Portugal.

1460 Death of Prince Henry. Portuguese reach what is now Senegal, West Africa.

1470s Portuguese explore West African coast and reach what is now Ghana and Nigeria and begin colonizing islands of São Tomé and Príncipe.

1479 Treaty of Alcáçovas between kings of Portugal and Spain.

1482 Portuguese establish post at São Jorge da Mina, Gold Coast (now Ghana).

1482–83 Portuguese navigator Diogo Cão reaches mouth of Congo River and Angola.

1488 Navigator Bartolomeu Dias rounds Cape of Good Hope, South Africa, and finds route to Indian Ocean.

1492–93 Columbus’s first voyage to West Indies.

1493 Columbus visits Azores and Portugal on return from first voyage; tells of discovery of New World.

- 1494** Treaty of Tordesillas signed between kings of Portugal and Spain: delimits spheres of conquest with line 370 leagues west of Cape Verde Islands (claimed by Portugal); Portugal's sphere to east of line includes, in effect, Brazil.
- 1495** King Manuel I and Royal Council decide to continue seeking all-water route around Africa to Asia.
- 1496** King Manuel I expels unconverted Jews from Portugal.
- 1497–99** Epic voyage of Vasco da Gama from Portugal around Africa to west India, successful completion of sea route to Asia project; da Gama returns to Portugal with samples of Asian spices.
- 1500** Bound for India, Navigator Pedro Álvares Cabral “discovers” coast of Brazil and claims it for Portugal.
- 1506** Anti-Jewish riots in Lisbon.
- 1509** Battle of Diu, India; Portugal's command of Indian Ocean assured for some time with Francisco de Almeida's naval victory over Egyptian and Gujerati fleets.
- 1510** Afonso de Albuquerque conquers Goa, India; beginning of Portuguese hegemony in south Asia.
- 1511** Portuguese conquest of Malacca; commerce in Spice Islands.
- 1519** Magellan begins circumnavigation voyage.
- 1536** Inquisition begins in Portugal.
- 1543** Portuguese merchants reach Japan.
- 1557** Portuguese merchants granted Chinese territory of Macau for trading factory.
- 1572** Luís de Camões publishes epic poem, *Os Lusíadas*.
- 1578** Battle of Alcácer-Quivir; Moroccan forces defeat army of King Sebastião of Portugal; King Sebastião dies in battle. Portuguese succession crisis.
- 1580** King Phillip II of Spain claims and conquers Portugal; Spanish rule of Portugal, 1580–1640.

1607–24 Dutch conquer sections of Asia and Brazil formerly held by Portugal.

1640 1 December: Portuguese revolution in Lisbon overthrows Spanish rule, restores independence. Beginning of Portugal's Braganza royal dynasty.

1654 Following Dutch invasions and conquest of parts of Brazil and Angola, Dutch expelled by force.

1661 Anglo–Portuguese Alliance treaty signed: England pledges to defend Portugal “as if it were England itself.” Queen Catherine of Braganza marries England's Charles II.

1668 February: In Portuguese–Spanish peace treaty, Spain recognizes independence of Portugal, thus ending 28-year War of Restoration.

1703 Methuen Treaties signed, key commercial trade agreement and defense treaty between England and Portugal.

1750 Pombal becomes chief minister of King José I.

1755 1 November: Massive Lisbon earthquake, tidal wave, and fire.

1759 Expulsion of Jesuits from Portugal and colonies.

1761 Slavery abolished in continental Portugal.

1769 Abandonment of Mazagão, Morocco, last Portuguese outpost.

1777 Pombal dismissed as chief minister by Queen Maria I, after death of José I.

1791 Portugal and United States establish full diplomatic relations.

1807 November: First Napoleonic invasion; French forces under Junot conquer Portugal. Royal family flees to colony of Brazil and remains there until 1821.

1809 Second French invasion of Portugal under General Soult.

1811 Third French invasion of Portugal under General Masséna.

1813 Following British general Wellington's military victories, French forces evacuate Portugal.

1817 Liberal, constitutional movements against absolutist monarchist rule break out in Brazil (Pernambuco) and Portugal (Lisbon, under General Gomes Freire); crushed by government. British marshal of Portugal's army, Beresford, rules Portugal.

1820 Liberal insurrection in army officer corps breaks out in Cadiz, Spain, and influences similar movement in Portugal's armed forces first in Oporto.

1821 King João VI returns from Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, and early draft of constitution; era of constitutional monarchy begins.

1822 7 September: João VI's son Pedro proclaims independence of Brazil from Portugal and is named emperor. **23 September:** Constitution of 1822 ratified.

1825 Portugal recognizes sovereign independence of Brazil.

1826 King João VI dies; power struggle for throne ensues between his sons, brothers Pedro and Miguel; Pedro, emperor of Brazil, abdicates Portuguese throne in favor of his daughter, D. Maria II, too young to assume crown. By agreement, Miguel, uncle of D. Maria, is to accept constitution and rule in her stead.

1828 Miguel takes throne and abolishes constitution. Sections of Portugal rebel against Miguelite rule.

1831 Emperor Pedro abdicates throne of Brazil and returns to Portugal to expel King Miguel from Portuguese throne.

1832–34 Civil war between absolutist King Miguel and constitutionalist Pedro, who abandons throne of Brazil to restore his young daughter Maria to throne of Portugal; Miguel's armed forces defeated by those of Pedro. Miguel leaves for exile and constitution (1826 Charter) is restored.

1834–53 Constitutional monarchy consolidated under rule of Queen Maria II, who dies in 1853.

1851–71 Regeneration period of economic development and political stability; public works projects sponsored by Minister Fontes Pereira de Melo.

1871–90 Rotativism period of alternating party governments; achieves political stability and less military intervention in politics and government. Expansion of colonial territory in tropical Africa.

1890 January: Following territorial dispute in central Africa, Britain delivers “Ultimatum” to Portugal demanding withdrawal of Portugal’s forces from what is now Malawi and Zimbabwe. Portugal’s government, humiliated in accepting demand under threat of a diplomatic break, falls. Beginning of governmental and political instability; monarchist decline and republicanism’s rise.

1891 Anglo–Portuguese treaties signed relating to delimitation of frontiers in colonial Africa.

1899 Treaty of Windsor; renewal of Anglo–Portuguese defense and friendship alliance.

1903 Triumphal visit of King Edward VII to Portugal.

1906 Politician João Franco supported by King Carlos I in dictatorship to restore order and reform.

1908 1 February: Murder in Lisbon of King Carlos I and his heir apparent, Prince Dom Luís, by Portuguese anarchists. Eighteen-year-old King Manuel II assumes throne.

1910 3–5 October: Following republican-led military insurrection in armed forces, monarchy falls and first Portuguese republic is proclaimed. Beginning of unstable, economically troubled, parliamentary republic form of government.

1915 May: Violent insurrection in Lisbon overturns government of General Pimenta de Castro; nearly a thousand casualties from several days of armed combat in capital.

1916 March: Following Portugal’s honoring ally Britain’s request to confiscate German shipping in Portuguese harbors, Germany declares war on Portugal; Portugal enters World War I on Allied side.

1917 Portugal organizes and dispatches Portuguese Expeditionary Corps to fight on the Western Front. **9 April:** Portuguese forces mauled by German offensive in Battle of Lys. Food rationing and riots in Lisbon. Portuguese military operations in Mozambique against German

expedition's invasion from German East Africa. **5 December:** Authoritarian, presidentialist government under Major Sidónio Pais takes power in Lisbon, following a successful military coup.

1918 11 November: Armistice brings cessation of hostilities on Western Front in World War I. Portuguese expeditionary forces stationed in Angola, Mozambique, and Flanders begin return trip to Portugal. **14 December:** President Sidónio Pais assassinated. Chaotic period of ephemeral civil war ensues.

1919–21 Excessively unstable political period, including January 1919 abortive effort of Portuguese monarchists to restore Braganza dynasty to power. Republican forces prevail, but level of public violence, economic distress, and deprivation remains high.

1921 October: Political violence attains peak with murder of former prime minister and other prominent political figures in Lisbon. Sectors of armed forces and Guarda Nacional Republicana are mutinous.

1925 Year of financial and corruption scandals, including Portuguese bank note (fraud) case; military court acquits guilty military insurrectionists, and one military judge declares "the country is sick."

1926 28 May: Republic overthrown by military coup or pronunciamiento and conspiracy among officer corps. Parliament's doors locked and parliament closed for nearly nine years to January 1935. End of parliamentary republic, Western Europe's most unstable political system in this century, beginning of the Portuguese dictatorship, after 1930 known as the Estado Novo. Officer corps assumes reins of government, initiates military censorship of the press, and suppresses opposition.

1927 February: Military dictatorship under General Óscar Carmona crushes failed republican armed insurrection in Oporto and Lisbon.

1928 April: Military dictatorship names Professor António de Oliveira Salazar minister of finance, with dictatorial powers over budget, to stabilize finances and rebuild economy. Insurrectionism among military elements continues into 1931.

1930 Dr. Salazar named minister for colonies and announces balanced budgets. Salazar consolidates support by various means, including creation of official regime "movement," the National Union.

Salazar engineers Colonial Act to ensure Lisbon's control of bankrupt African colonies by means of new fiscal controls and centralization of authority.

1932 July: Military dictatorship names Salazar prime minister for first time, and cabinet composition undergoes civilianization; academic colleagues and protégés plan conservative reform and rejuvenation of society, polity, and economy. Regime comes to be called the Estado Novo (New State).

1933 New State's constitution ratified by new parliament, the National Assembly; Portugal described in document as "unitary, corporative Republic" and governance influenced by Salazar's stern personality and doctrines such as integralism, Catholicism, and fiscal conservatism.

1936 Violent instability and ensuing civil war in neighboring Spain, soon internationalized by fascist and communist intervention, shake Estado Novo regime. Pseudofascist period of regime features creation of imitation Fascist institutions to defend regime from leftist threats; Portugal institutes "Portuguese Youth" and "Portuguese Legion."

1939 3 September: Prime Minister Salazar declares Portugal's neutrality in World War II.

1943 October: Anglo-Portuguese agreement grants naval and air base facilities to Britain and later to United States for Battle of the Atlantic and Normandy invasion support. Third Reich protests breach of Portugal's neutrality.

1944 6 June: On day of Allies' Normandy invasion, Portugal suspends mining and export of wolfram ore to both sides in war.

1945 8 May: Popular celebrations of Allied victory and Fascist defeat in Lisbon and Oporto coincide with Victory in Europe Day. Following managed elections for Estado Novo's National Assembly in November, regime police, renamed PIDE, with increased powers, represses opposition.

1947 Abortive military coup in central Portugal easily crushed by regime. Independence of India and initiation of Indian protests against Portuguese colonial rule in Goa and other enclaves.

1949 Portugal becomes founding member of NATO.

1951 Portugal alters constitution and renames overseas colonies “Overseas Provinces.” Portugal and United States sign military base agreements for use of air and naval facilities in Azores Islands and military aid to Lisbon. President Carmona dies in office, succeeded by General Craveiro Lopes (1951–58).

1954 July: Indians occupy enclave of Portuguese India (dependency of Damão) by means of passive resistance movement.

1955 August: Indian passive resistance movement in Portuguese India repelled by Portuguese forces with loss of life. **December:** With U.S. backing, Portugal admitted as member of United Nations (along with Spain).

1958 Air force general Humberto Delgado, in opposition, challenges Estado Novo’s hand-picked successor to Craveiro Lopes, Admiral Américo Tomás. Delgado rallies coalition of democratic, liberal, and communist opposition but loses rigged election and later flees to exile in Brazil.

1959 Portugal joins European Free Trade Association (EFTA).

1961 January and February: Estado Novo rocked by armed African insurrection in northern Angola, crushed by armed forces. Hijacking of Portuguese ocean liner by ally of Delgado, Captain Henrique Galvão. **April:** Salazar defeats attempted military coup and reshuffles cabinet with group of younger figures who seek to reform colonial rule and strengthen the regime’s image abroad. **18 December:** Indian army rapidly defeats Portugal’s defense force in Goa, Damão, and Diu and incorporates Portugal’s Indian possessions into Indian Union.

1962 January: Abortive military coup in Beja, Portugal.

1965 February: General Delgado and his Brazilian secretary murdered and secretly buried near Spanish frontier by political police, PIDE.

1968 August and September: Prime Minister Salazar, aged 79, suffers crippling stroke. President Tomás names former cabinet officer

Marcello Caetano as Salazar's successor. Caetano institutes modest reforms in Portugal and overseas.

1971 Caetano government ratifies amended constitution that allows slight devolution and autonomy to overseas provinces in Africa and Asia. Right-wing loyalists oppose reforms in Portugal.

1974 25 April: Military coup engineered by Armed Forces Movement overthrows Estado Novo and establishes provisional government emphasizing democratization, development, and decolonization. Limited resistance by loyalists. President Tomás and Premier Caetano flown to exile first in Madeira and then in Brazil. General Spínola appointed president. **September:** Revolution moves to left, as President Spínola, thwarted in his program, resigns.

1975 March: Military coup by conservative forces fails, and leftist response includes nationalization of major portion of economy. Polarization between forces and parties of left and right. **25 November:** Military coup by moderate military elements thwarts leftist forces. Constituent Assembly prepares constitution. Revolution moves from left to center and then right.

1976 March: Constitution ratified by Assembly of the Republic. **25 April:** Second general legislative election gives largest share of seats to Socialist Party (PS). Former oppositionist lawyer, Mário Soares, elected deputy and named prime minister.

1977–85 Political pendulum of democratic Portugal moves from center-left to center-right, as Social Democratic Party (PSD) increases hold on assembly and take office under Prime Minister Cavaco Silva. July 1985 elections give edge to PSD who advocate strong free-enterprise measures and revision of leftist-generated 1976 Constitution, amended modestly in 1982.

1986 January: Portugal joins European Economic Community (EEC).

1987 July: General, legislative elections for assembly give more than 50 percent to PSD led by Prime Minister Cavaco Silva. For first time, since 1974, Portugal has a working majority government.

1989 June: Following revisions of 1976 Constitution, reprivatization of economy begins, under PS government.

1991 January: Presidential elections, Mário Soares reelected for second term. **July:** General, legislative elections for assembly result in new PSD victory and majority government.

1992 January–July: Portugal holds presidency of the Council of the European Economic Community (EEC). **December:** Tariff barriers fall as fully integrated Common Market established in the EEC.

1993 November: Treaty of Maastricht comes into force. The EEC officially becomes the European Union (EU). Portugal is signatory with 11 other member-nations.

1995 October: General, legislative elections for assembly result in PS victory and naming of Prime Minister Guterres. PS replace PSD as leading political party. **November:** Excavations for Lisbon bank uncover ancient Phoenician, Roman, and Christian ruins.

1996 January: General, presidential elections; socialist Jorge Sampaio defeats PSD's Cavaco Silva and assumes presidency from Dr. Mário Soares. **July:** Community of Portuguese Languages Countries (CPLP) cofounded by Portugal and Brazil.

1998 May–September: Expo '98 held in Lisbon. Opening of Vasco da Gama Bridge across Tagus River, Europe's longest (17 kilometers/11 miles). **June:** National referendum on abortion law change defeated after low voter turnout. **November:** National referendum on regionalization and devolution of power defeated after another low voter turnout.

1999 October: General, legislative elections: PS victory over PSD lacks clear majority in parliament. Following East Timor referendum, which votes for independence and withdrawal of Indonesia, outburst of popular outrage in streets, media, and communications of Portugal approves armed intervention and administration of United Nations (and withdrawal of Indonesia) in East Timor. Portugal and Indonesia restore diplomatic relations. **December:** A Special Territory since 1975, Colony of Macau transferred to sovereignty of People's Republic of China.

2000 January–June: Portugal holds presidency of the Council of the EU; end of Discoveries Historical Commemoration Cycle (1988–2000).

United Nations forces continue to occupy and administer former colony of East Timor, with Portugal's approval.

2001 January: General, presidential elections; PS president Sampaio reelected for second term. City of Oporto, "European City of Culture" for the year, hosts arts festival. **December:** Municipal elections: PSD defeats PS; socialist prime minister Guterres resigns; President Sampaio calls March parliamentary elections.

2002 1 January: Portugal enters single European Currency system. Euro currency adopted and ceases use of former national currency, the escudo. **March:** Parliamentary elections; PSD defeats PS and José Durão Barroso becomes prime minister. Military modernization law passed. Portugal holds chairmanship of Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE).

2003 May: Municipal law passed permitting municipalities to reorganize in new ways.

2004 June: Prime Minister Durão Barroso, invited to succeed Romano Prodi as president of EU Commission, resigns. Pedro Santana Lopes becomes prime minister. European Parliament elections held. Conscription for national service in army and navy ended. Mass grave uncovered at Academy of Sciences Museum, Lisbon, revealing remains of several thousand victims of Lisbon earthquake, 1755.

2005 February: Parliamentary elections; PS defeats PSD, socialists win first absolute majority in parliament since 1975. José Sócrates becomes prime minister.

2006 January: Presidential elections; PSD candidate Aníbal Cavaco Silva elected and assumes presidency from Jorge Sampaio. Portugal's national soccer team ranked 7th out of 205 countries by international soccer association. European Union's Bologna Process in educational reform initiated in Portugal.

2007 July–December: Portugal holds presidency of the Council of the European Union. For reasons of economy, Portugal announces closure of many consulates, especially in France and the eastern US. Government begins official inspections of private institutions of higher education, following scandals.

2008 January: Prime Minister Sócrates announces location of new Lisbon area airport as Alcochete, on south bank of Tagus River, site of air force shooting range. **February:** Portuguese Army begins to receive new modern battle tanks (Leopard 2 A6). **March:** Mass protest of 85,000 public school (primary and secondary levels) teachers in Lisbon schools dispute recent educational policies of minister of education and prime minister.

Introduction

Portugal is a small Western European nation with a large, distinctive past replete with both triumph and tragedy. One of the continent's oldest nation-states, Portugal has frontiers that are essentially unchanged since the late 14th century. The country's unique character and 850-year history as an independent state present several curious paradoxes. As of 1974, when much of the remainder of the Portuguese overseas empire was decolonized, Portuguese society appeared to be the most ethnically homogeneous of the two Iberian states and of much of Europe. Yet, Portuguese society had received, over the course of 2,000 years, infusions of other ethnic groups in invasions and immigration: Phoenicians, Greeks, Celts, Romans, Suevi, Visigoths, Muslims (Arab and Berber), Jews, Italians, Flemings, Burgundian French, black Africans, and Asians. Indeed, Portugal has been a crossroads, despite its relative isolation in the western corner of the Iberian Peninsula, between the West and North Africa, Tropical Africa, and Asia and America. Since 1974, Portugal's society has become less homogeneous, as there has been significant immigration of former subjects from its erstwhile overseas empire.

Other paradoxes should be noted as well. Although Portugal is sometimes confused with Spain or things Spanish, its very national independence and national culture depend on being different from Spain and Spaniards. Today, Portugal's independence may be taken for granted. Since 1140, except for 1580–1640 when it was ruled by Philippine Spain, Portugal has been a sovereign state. Nevertheless, a recurring theme of the nation's history is cycles of anxiety and despair that its freedom as a nation is at risk. There is a paradox, too, about Portugal's overseas empire(s), which lasted half a millennium (1415–1975): after 1822, when Brazil achieved independence from Portugal, most of the Portuguese who emigrated overseas never set foot in their overseas

empire, but preferred to immigrate to Brazil or to other countries in North or South America or Europe, where established Portuguese overseas communities existed.

Portugal was a world power during the period 1415–1550, the era of the Discoveries, expansion, and early empire, and since then the Portuguese have experienced periods of decline, decadence, and rejuvenation. Despite the fact that Portugal slipped to the rank of a third- or fourth-rate power after 1580, it and its people can claim rightfully an unusual number of “firsts” or distinctions that assure their place both in world and Western history. These distinctions should be kept in mind while acknowledging that, for more than 400 years, Portugal has generally lagged behind the rest of Western Europe, although not Southern Europe, in social and economic developments and has remained behind even its only neighbor and sometime nemesis, Spain.

Portugal’s pioneering role in the Discoveries and exploration era of the 15th and 16th centuries is well known. Often noted, too, is the Portuguese role in the art and science of maritime navigation through the efforts of early navigators, mapmakers, seamen, and fishermen. What are often forgotten are the country’s slender base of resources, its small population largely of rural peasants, and, until recently, its occupation of only 16 percent of the Iberian Peninsula. As of 1139–40, when Portugal emerged first as an independent monarchy, and eventually a sovereign nation-state, England and France had not achieved this status. The Portuguese were the first in the Iberian Peninsula to expel the Muslim invaders from their portion of the peninsula, achieving this by 1250, more than 200 years before Castile managed to do the same (1492).

Other distinctions may be noted. Portugal conquered the first overseas empire beyond the Mediterranean in the early modern era and established the first plantation system based on slave labor. Portugal’s empire was the first to be colonized and the last to be decolonized in the 20th century. With so much of its scattered, seaborne empire dependent upon the safety and seaworthiness of shipping, Portugal was a pioneer in initiating marine insurance, a practice that is taken for granted today. During the time of Pombaline Portugal (1750–77), Portugal was the first state to organize and hold an industrial trade fair. In distinctive political and governmental developments, Portugal’s record is more mixed, and this fact suggests that maintaining a government with a functioning rule of law and a pluralist, representative democracy has

not been an easy matter in a country that for so long has been one of the poorest and least educated in the West. Portugal's First Republic (1910–26), only the third republic in a largely monarchist Europe (after France and Switzerland), was Western Europe's most unstable parliamentary system in the 20th century. Finally, the authoritarian *Estado Novo* or "New State" (1926–74) was the longest surviving authoritarian system in modern Western Europe. When Portugal departed from its overseas empire in 1974–75, the descendants, in effect, of Prince Henry the Navigator were leaving the West's oldest empire.

Portugal's individuality is based mainly on its long history of distinctiveness, its intense determination to use any means—alliance, diplomacy, defense, trade, or empire—to be a sovereign state, independent of Spain, and on its national pride in the Portuguese language. Another master factor in Portuguese affairs deserves mention. The country's politics and government have been influenced not only by intellectual currents from the Atlantic but also through Spain from Europe, which brought new political ideas and institutions and novel technologies. Given the weight of empire in Portugal's past, it is not surprising that public affairs have been hostage to a degree to what happened in her overseas empire. Most important have been domestic responses to imperial affairs during both imperial and internal crises since 1415, which have continued to the mid-1970s and beyond. One of the most important themes of Portuguese history, and one oddly neglected by not a few histories, is that every major political crisis and fundamental change in the system—in other words, revolution—since 1415 has been intimately connected with a related imperial crisis. The respective dates of these historical crises are: 1437, 1495, 1578–80, 1640, 1820–22, 1890, 1910, 1926–30, 1961, and 1974. The reader will find greater detail on each crisis in historical context in the history section of this introduction and in relevant entries.

LAND AND PEOPLE

The Republic of Portugal is located on the western edge of the Iberian Peninsula. A major geographical dividing line is the Tagus River: Portugal north of it has an Atlantic orientation; the country to the south of it has a Mediterranean orientation. There is little physical evidence

that Portugal is clearly geographically distinct from Spain, and there is no major natural barrier between the two countries along more than 1,214 kilometers (755 miles) of the Luso-Spanish frontier. In climate, Portugal has a number of microclimates similar to the microclimates of Galicia, Estremadura, and Andalusia in neighboring Spain. North of the Tagus, in general, there is an Atlantic-type climate with higher rainfall, cold winters, and some snow in the mountainous areas. South of the Tagus is a more Mediterranean climate, with hot, dry, often rainless summers and cool, wet winters. Lisbon, the capital, which has a fifth of the country's population living in its region, has an average annual mean temperature about 16° C (60° F).

For a small country with an area of 92,345 square kilometers (35,580 square miles), including the Atlantic archipelagos of the Azores and the Madeiras), which is about the size of the state of Indiana in the United States, Portugal has a remarkable diversity of regional topography and scenery. In some respects, Portugal resembles an island within the peninsula, embodying a unique fusion of European and non-European cultures, akin to Spain yet apart. Its geography is a study in contrasts, from the flat, sandy coastal plain, in some places unusually wide for Europe, to the mountainous Beira districts or provinces north of the Tagus, to the snow-capped mountain range of the Estrela, with its unique ski area, to the rocky, barren, remote Trás-os-Montes district bordering Spain. There are extensive forests in central and northern Portugal that contrast with the flat, almost Kansas-like plains of the wheat belt in the Alentejo district. There is also the unique Algarve district, isolated somewhat from the Alentejo district by a mountain range, with a microclimate, topography, and vegetation that resemble closely those of North Africa.

Although Portugal is small, just 563 kilometers (337 miles) long and from 129 to 209 kilometers (80 to 125 miles) wide, it is strategically located on transportation and communication routes between Europe and North Africa, and the Americas and Europe. Geographical location is one key to the long history of Portugal's three overseas empires, which stretched once from Morocco to the Moluccas and from lonely Sagres at Cape St. Vincent to Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. It is essential to emphasize the identity of its neighbors: on the north and east Portugal is bounded by Spain, its only neighbor, and by the Atlantic Ocean on the south and west. Portugal is the westernmost country of Western Europe, and its shape resembles a face, with Lisbon below the nose, staring into the

Atlantic. No part of Portugal touches the Mediterranean, and its Atlantic orientation has been a response in part to turning its back on Castile and León (later Spain) and exploring, traveling, and trading or working in lands beyond the peninsula. Portugal was the pioneering nation in the Atlantic-born European discoveries during the Renaissance, and its diplomatic and trade relations have been dominated by countries that have been Atlantic powers as well: Spain; England (Britain since 1707); France; Brazil, once its greatest colony; and the United States.

Today Portugal and its Atlantic islands have a population of roughly 10 million people. While ethnic homogeneity has been characteristic of it in recent history, Portugal's population over the centuries has seen an infusion of non-Portuguese ethnic groups from various parts of Europe, the Middle East, and Africa. Between 1500 and 1800, a significant population of black Africans, brought in as slaves, was absorbed in the population. And since 1950, a population of Cape Verdeans, who worked in menial labor, has resided in Portugal. With the influx of African, Goan, and Timorese refugees and exiles from the empire—as many as three quarters of a million *retornados* (“returned ones” or immigrants from the former empire) entered Portugal in 1974 and 1975—there has been greater ethnic diversity in the Portuguese population. In 2002, there were 239,113 immigrants legally residing in Portugal: 108,132 from Africa; 24,806 from Brazil; 15,906 from Britain; 14,617 from Spain; and 11,877 from Germany. In addition, about 200,000 immigrants are living in Portugal from eastern Europe, mainly from Ukraine. The growth of Portugal's population is reflected in the following statistics:

| | |
|------|---------------------------|
| 1527 | 1,200,000 (estimate only) |
| 1768 | 2,400,000 (estimate only) |
| 1864 | 4,287,000 first census |
| 1890 | 5,049,700 |
| 1900 | 5,423,000 |
| 1911 | 5,960,000 |
| 1930 | 6,826,000 |
| 1940 | 7,185,143 |
| 1950 | 8,510,000 |
| 1960 | 8,889,000 |
| 1970 | 8,668,000* note decrease |

| | |
|------|------------------------|
| 1980 | 9,833,000 |
| 1991 | 9,862,540 |
| 1996 | 9,934,100 |
| 2006 | 10,642,836 |
| 2010 | 10,710,000 (estimated) |

HISTORICAL PORTUGAL

Before Romans described western Iberia or Hispania as “Lusitania,” ancient Iberians inhabited the land. Phoenician and Greek trading settlements grew up in the Tagus estuary area and nearby coasts. Beginning around 202 BCE, Romans invaded what is today southern Portugal. With Rome’s defeat of Carthage, Romans proceeded to conquer and rule the western region north of the Tagus, which they named Roman “Lusitania.” In the fourth century CE, as Rome’s rule weakened, the area experienced yet another invasion—Germanic tribes, principally the Suevi, who eventually were Christianized. During the sixth century CE, the Suevi kingdom was superseded by yet another Germanic tribe—the Christian Visigoths.

A major turning point in Portugal’s history came in 711, as Muslim armies from North Africa, consisting of both Arab and Berber elements, invaded the Iberian Peninsula from across the Straits of Gibraltar. They entered what is now Portugal in 714, and proceeded to conquer most of the country except for the far north. For the next half a millennium, Islam and Muslim presence in Portugal left a significant mark upon the politics, government, language, and culture of the country.

Islam, Reconquest, and Portugal Created, 714–1140

The long frontier struggle between Muslim invaders and Christian communities in the north of the Iberian peninsula was called the *Reconquista* (Reconquest). It was during this struggle that the first dynasty of Portuguese kings (Burgundian) emerged and the independent monarchy of Portugal was established. Christian forces moved south from what is now the extreme north of Portugal and gradually defeated Muslim forces, besieging and capturing towns under Muslim sway. In the ninth century, as Christian forces slowly made their way southward, Chris-

tian elements were dominant only in the area between Minho province and the Douro River; this region became known as “territorium Portucaleense.”

In the 11th century, the advance of the Reconquest quickened as local Christian armies were reinforced by crusading knights from what is now France and England. Christian forces took Montemor (1034), at the Mondego River; Lamego (1058); Viseu (1058); and Coimbra (1064). In 1095, the king of Castile and León granted the country of “Portucale,” what became northern Portugal, to a Burgundian count who had emigrated from France. This was the foundation of Portugal. In 1139, a descendant of this count, Afonso Henriques, proclaimed himself “King of Portugal.” He was Portugal’s first monarch, the “Founder,” and the first of the Burgundian dynasty, which ruled until 1385.

The emergence of Portugal in the 12th century as a separate monarchy in Iberia occurred before the Christian Reconquest of the peninsula. In the 1140s, the pope in Rome recognized Afonso Henriques as king of Portugal. In 1147, after a long, bloody siege, Muslim-occupied Lisbon fell to Afonso Henriques’s army. Lisbon was the greatest prize of the 500-year war. Assisting this effort were English crusaders on their way to the Holy Land; the first bishop of Lisbon was an Englishman. When the Portuguese captured Faro and Silves in the Algarve province in 1248–50, the Reconquest of the extreme western portion of the Iberian peninsula was complete—significantly, more than two centuries before the Spanish crown completed the Reconquest of the eastern portion by capturing Granada in 1492.

Consolidation and Independence of Burgundian Portugal, 1140–1385

Two main themes of Portugal’s early existence as a monarchy are the consolidation of control over the realm and the defeat of a Castilian threat from the east to its independence. At the end of this period came the birth of a new royal dynasty (Aviz), which prepared to carry the Christian Reconquest beyond continental Portugal across the straits of Gibraltar to North Africa. There was a variety of motives behind these developments. Portugal’s independent existence was imperiled by threats from neighboring Iberian kingdoms to the north and east. Politics were dominated not only by efforts against the Muslims in

Portugal (until 1250) and in nearby southern Spain (until 1492), but also by internecine warfare among the kingdoms of Castile, León, Aragon, and Portugal. A final comeback of Muslim forces was defeated at the battle of Salado (1340) by allied Castilian and Portuguese forces. In the emerging Kingdom of Portugal, the monarch gradually gained power over and neutralized the nobility and the Church.

The historic and commonplace Portuguese saying “From Spain, neither a good wind nor a good marriage” was literally played out in diplomacy and war in the late 14th-century struggles for mastery in the peninsula. Larger, more populous Castile was pitted against smaller Portugal. Castile’s Juan I intended to force a union between Castile and Portugal during this era of confusion and conflict. In late 1383, Portugal’s King Fernando, the last king of the Burgundian dynasty, suddenly died prematurely at age 38, and the Master of Aviz, Portugal’s most powerful nobleman, took up the cause of independence and resistance against Castile’s invasion. The Master of Aviz, who became King João I of Portugal, was able to obtain foreign assistance. With the aid of English archers, João’s armies defeated the Castilians in the crucial battle of Aljubarrota, on 14 August 1385, a victory that assured the independence of the Portuguese monarchy from its Castilian nemesis for several centuries.

Aviz Dynasty and Portugal’s First Overseas Empire, 1385–1580

The results of the victory at Aljubarrota, much celebrated in Portugal’s art and monuments, and the rise of the Aviz dynasty also helped to establish a new merchant class in Lisbon and Oporto, Portugal’s second city. This group supported King João I’s program of carrying the Reconquest to North Africa, since it was interested in expanding Portugal’s foreign commerce and tapping into Muslim trade routes and resources in Africa. With the Reconquest against the Muslims completed in Portugal and the threat from Castile thwarted for the moment, the Aviz dynasty launched an era of overseas conquest, exploration, and trade. These efforts dominated Portugal’s 15th and 16th centuries.

The overseas empire and age of Discoveries began with Portugal’s bold conquest in 1415 of the Moroccan city of Ceuta. One royal member of the 1415 expedition was young, 21-year-old Prince Henry, later known in history as “Prince Henry the Navigator.” His part in

the capture of Ceuta won Henry his knighthood and began Portugal's "Marvelous Century," during which the small kingdom was counted as a European and world power of consequence. Henry was the son of King João I and his English queen, Philippa of Lancaster, but he did not inherit the throne. Instead, he spent most of his life and his fortune, and that of the wealthy military Order of Christ, on various imperial ventures and on voyages of exploration down the African coast and into the Atlantic. While mythology has surrounded Henry's controversial role in the Discoveries, and this role has been exaggerated, there is no doubt that he played a vital part in the initiation of Portugal's first overseas empire and in encouraging exploration. He was naturally curious, had a sense of mission for Portugal, and was a strong leader. He also had wealth to expend; at least a third of the African voyages of the time were under his sponsorship. If Prince Henry himself knew little science, significant scientific advances in navigation were made in his day.

What were Portugal's motives for this new imperial effort? The well-worn historical cliché of "God, Glory, and Gold" can only partly explain the motivation of a small kingdom with few natural resources and barely 1 million people, which was greatly outnumbered by the other powers it confronted. Among Portuguese objectives were the desire to exploit known North African trade routes and resources (gold, wheat, leather, weaponry, and other goods that were scarce in Iberia); the need to outflank the Muslim world in the Mediterranean by sailing around Africa, attacking Muslims en route; and the wish to ally with Christian kingdoms beyond Africa. This enterprise also involved a strategy of breaking the Venetian spice monopoly by trading directly with the East by means of discovering and exploiting a sea route around Africa to Asia. Besides the commercial motives, Portugal nurtured a strong crusading sense of Christian mission, and various classes in the kingdom saw an opportunity for fame and gain.

By the time of Prince Henry's death in 1460, Portugal had gained control of the Atlantic archipelagos of the Azores and Madeiras, begun to colonize the Cape Verde Islands, failed to conquer the Canary Islands from Castile, captured various cities on Morocco's coast, and explored as far as Senegal, West Africa, down the African coast. By 1488, Bartolomeu Dias had rounded the Cape of Good Hope in South Africa and thereby discovered the way to the Indian Ocean.

Portugal's largely coastal African empire and later its fragile Asian empire brought unexpected wealth but were purchased at a high price. Costs included wars of conquest and defense against rival powers, manning the far-flung navel and trade fleets and scattered castle-fortresses, and staffing its small but fierce armies, all of which entailed a loss of skills and population to maintain a scattered empire. Always short of capital, the monarchy became indebted to bankers. There were many defeats beginning in the 16th century at the hands of the larger imperial European monarchies (Spain, France, England, and Holland) and many attacks on Portugal and its strung-out empire. Typically, there was also the conflict that arose when a tenuously held world empire that rarely if ever paid its way demanded finance and manpower Portugal itself lacked.

The first 80 years of the glorious imperial era, the golden age of Portugal's imperial power and world influence, was an African phase. During 1415–88, Portuguese navigators and explorers in small ships, some of them *caravelas* (caravels), explored the treacherous, disease-ridden coasts of Africa from Morocco to South Africa beyond the Cape of Good Hope. By the 1470s, the Portuguese had reached the Gulf of Guinea and, in the early 1480s, what is now Angola. Bartolomeu Dias's extraordinary voyage of 1487–88 to South Africa's coast and the edge of the Indian Ocean convinced Portugal that the best route to Asia's spices and Christians lay south, around the tip of southern Africa. Between 1488 and 1495, there was a hiatus caused in part by domestic conflict in Portugal, discussion of resources available for further conquests beyond Africa in Asia, and serious questions as to Portugal's capacity to reach beyond Africa. In 1495, King Manuel and his council decided to strike for Asia, whatever the consequences. In 1497–99, Vasco da Gama, under royal orders, made the epic two-year voyage that discovered the sea route to western India (Asia), outflanked Islam and Venice, and began Portugal's Asian empire. Within 50 years, Portugal had discovered and begun the exploitation of its largest colony, Brazil, and set up forts and trading posts from the Middle East (Aden and Ormuz), India (Calicut, Goa, etc.), Malacca, and Indonesia to Macau in China.

By the 1550s, parts of its largely coastal, maritime trading post empire from Morocco to the Moluccas were under siege from various hostile forces, including Muslims, Christians, and Hindi. Although Moroccan forces expelled the Portuguese from the major coastal cities

by 1550, the rival European monarchies of Castile (Spain), England, France, and later Holland began to seize portions of her undermanned, outgunned maritime empire.

In 1580, Phillip II of Spain, whose mother was a Portuguese princess and who had a strong claim to the Portuguese throne, invaded Portugal, claimed the throne, and assumed control over the realm and, by extension, its African, Asian, and American empires. Phillip II filled the power vacuum that appeared in Portugal following the loss of most of Portugal's army and its young, headstrong King Sebastião in a disastrous war in Morocco. Sebastião's death in battle (1578) and the lack of a natural heir to succeed him, as well as the weak leadership of the cardinal who briefly assumed control in Lisbon, led to a crisis that Spain's strong monarch exploited. As a result, Portugal lost its independence to Spain for a period of 60 years.

Portugal under Spanish Rule, 1580–1640

Despite the disastrous nature of Portugal's experience under Spanish rule, "The Babylonian Captivity" gave birth to modern Portuguese nationalism, its second overseas empire, and its modern alliance system with England. Although Spain allowed Portugal's weakened empire some autonomy, Spanish rule in Portugal became increasingly burdensome and unacceptable. Spain's ambitious imperial efforts in Europe and overseas had an impact on the Portuguese as Spain made greater and greater demands on its smaller neighbor for manpower and money. Portugal's culture underwent a controversial Castilianization, while its empire became hostage to Spain's fortunes. New rival powers England, France, and Holland attacked and took parts of Spain's empire and at the same time attacked Portugal's empire, as well as the mother country.

Portugal's empire bore the consequences of being attacked by Spain's bitter enemies in what was a form of world war. Portuguese losses were heavy. By 1640, Portugal had lost most of its Moroccan cities as well as Ceylon, the Moluccas, and sections of India. With this, Portugal's Asian empire was gravely weakened. Only Goa, Damão, Diu, Bombay, Timor, and Macau remained and, in Brazil, Dutch forces occupied the northeast.

On 1 December 1640, long commemorated as a national holiday, Portuguese rebels led by the duke of Braganza overthrew Spanish

domination and took advantage of Spanish weakness following a more serious rebellion in Catalonia. Portugal regained independence from Spain, but at a price: dependence on foreign assistance to maintain its independence in the form of the renewal of the alliance with England.

Restoration and Second Empire, 1640–1822

Foreign affairs and empire dominated the restoration era and aftermath, and Portugal again briefly enjoyed greater European power and prestige. The Anglo–Portuguese Alliance was renewed and strengthened in treaties of 1642, 1654, and 1661, and Portugal’s independence from Spain was underwritten by English pledges and armed assistance. In a Luso–Spanish treaty of 1668, Spain recognized Portugal’s independence. Portugal’s alliance with England was a marriage of convenience and necessity between two monarchies with important religious, cultural, and social differences. In return for legal, diplomatic, and trade privileges, as well as the use during war and peace of Portugal’s great Lisbon harbor and colonial ports for England’s navy, England pledged to protect Portugal and its scattered empire from any attack. The previously cited 17th-century alliance treaties were renewed later in the Treaty of Windsor, signed in London in 1899. On at least 10 different occasions after 1640, and during the next two centuries, England was central in helping prevent or repel foreign invasions of its ally, Portugal.

Portugal’s second empire (1640–1822) was largely Brazil-oriented. Portuguese colonization, exploitation of wealth, and emigration focused on Portuguese America, and imperial revenues came chiefly from Brazil. Between 1670 and 1740, Portugal’s royalty and nobility grew wealthier on funds derived from Brazilian gold, diamonds, sugar, tobacco, and other crops, an enterprise supported by the Atlantic slave trade and the supply of African slave labor from West Africa and Angola. Visitors today can see where much of that wealth was invested: Portugal’s rich legacy of monumental architecture. Meanwhile, the African slave trade took a toll in Angola and West Africa.

In continental Portugal, absolutist monarchy dominated politics and government, and there was a struggle for position and power between the monarchy and other institutions, such as the Church and nobility. King José I’s chief minister, usually known in history as the marquis of Pombal (ruled 1750–77), sharply suppressed the nobility and the

Church (including the Inquisition, now a weak institution) and expelled the Jesuits. Pombal also made an effort to reduce economic dependence on England, Portugal's oldest ally. But his successes did not last much beyond his disputed time in office.

Beginning in the late 18th century, the European-wide impact of the French Revolution and the rise of Napoleon placed Portugal in a vulnerable position. With the monarchy ineffectively led by an insane queen (Maria I) and her indecisive regent son (João VI), Portugal again became the focus of foreign ambition and aggression. With England unable to provide decisive assistance in time, France—with Spain's consent—invaded Portugal in 1807. As Napoleon's army under General Junot entered Lisbon meeting no resistance, Portugal's royal family fled on a British fleet to Brazil, where it remained in exile until 1821. In the meantime, Portugal's overseas empire was again under threat. There was a power vacuum as the monarch was absent, foreign armies were present, and new political notions of liberalism and constitutional monarchy were exciting various groups of citizens.

Again England came to the rescue, this time in the form of the armies of the duke of Wellington. Three successive French invasions of Portugal were defeated and expelled, and Wellington succeeded in carrying the war against Napoleon across the Portuguese frontier into Spain. The presence of the English army, the new French-born liberal ideas, and the political vacuum combined to create revolutionary conditions. The French invasions and the peninsular wars, where Portuguese armed forces played a key role, marked the beginning of a new era in politics.

Liberalism and Constitutional Monarchy, 1822–1910

During 1807–22, foreign invasions, war, and civil strife over conflicting political ideas gravely damaged Portugal's commerce, economy, and novice industry. The next terrible blow was the loss of Brazil in 1822, the jewel in the imperial crown. Portugal's very independence seemed to be at risk. In vain, Portugal sought to resist Brazilian independence by force, but in 1825 it formally acknowledged Brazilian independence by treaty.

Portugal's slow recovery from the destructive French invasions and the "war of independence" was complicated by civil strife over the form

of constitutional monarchy that best suited Portugal. After struggles over these issues between 1820 and 1834, Portugal settled somewhat uncertainly into a moderate constitutional monarchy whose constitution (Charter of 1826) lent it strong political powers to exert a moderating influence between the executive and legislative branches of the government. It also featured a new upper middle class based on land ownership and commerce; a Catholic Church that, although still important, lived with reduced privileges and property; a largely African (third) empire to which Lisbon and Oporto devoted increasing spiritual and material resources, starting with the liberal imperial plans of 1836 and 1851, and continuing with the work of institutions like the Lisbon Society of Geography (established 1875); and a mass of rural peasants whose bonds to the land weakened after 1850 and who began to immigrate in increasing numbers to Brazil and North America.

Chronic military intervention in national politics began in 19th-century Portugal. Such intervention, usually commencing with coups or *pronunciamentos* (military revolts), was a shortcut to the spoils of political office and could reflect popular discontent as well as the power of personalities. An early example of this was the 1817 *golpe* (coup) attempt of General Gomes Freire against British military rule in Portugal before the return of King João VI from Brazil. Except for a more stable period from 1851 to 1880, military intervention in politics, or the threat thereof, became a feature of the constitutional monarchy's political life, and it continued into the First Republic and the subsequent Estado Novo.

Beginning with the Regeneration period (1851–80), Portugal experienced greater political stability and economic progress. Military intervention in politics virtually ceased; industrialization and construction of railroads, roads, and bridges proceeded; two political parties (Regenerators and Historicals) worked out a system of rotation in power; and leading intellectuals sparked a cultural revival in several fields. In 19th-century literature, there was a new golden age led by such figures as Alexandre Herculano (historian), Eça de Queirós (novelist), Almeida Garrett (playwright and essayist), Antero de Quental (poet), and Joaquim Oliveira Martins (historian and social scientist). In its third overseas empire, Portugal attempted to replace the slave trade and slavery with legitimate economic activities; to reform the administration; and to expand Portuguese holdings beyond coastal footholds deep into the African hinterlands in West, West Central, and East Africa. After 1841,

to some extent, and especially after 1870, colonial affairs, combined with intense nationalism, pressures for economic profit in Africa, sentiment for national revival, and the drift of European affairs would make or break Lisbon governments.

Beginning with the political crisis that arose out of the “English Ultimatum” affair of January 1890, the monarchy became discredited and identified with the poorly functioning government, political parties splintered, and republicanism found more supporters. Portugal participated in the “Scramble for Africa,” expanding its African holdings, but failed to annex territory connecting Angola and Mozambique. A growing foreign debt and state bankruptcy as of the early 1890s damaged the constitutional monarchy’s reputation, despite the efforts of King Carlos in diplomacy, the renewal of the alliance in the Windsor Treaty of 1899, and the successful if bloody colonial wars in the empire (1880–97). Republicanism proclaimed that Portugal’s weak economy and poor society were due to two historic institutions: the monarchy and the Catholic Church. A republic, its stalwarts claimed, would bring greater individual liberty; efficient, if more decentralized government; and a stronger colonial program while stripping the Church of its role in both society and education.

As the monarchy lost support and republicans became more aggressive, violence increased in politics. King Carlos I and his heir Luís were murdered in Lisbon by anarchist-republicans on 1 February 1908. Following a military and civil insurrection and fighting between monarchist and republican forces, on 5 October 1910, King Manuel II fled Portugal and a republic was proclaimed.

First Parliamentary Republic, 1910–26

Portugal’s first attempt at republican government was the most unstable, turbulent parliamentary republic in the history of 20th-century Western Europe. During a little under 16 years of the republic, there were 45 governments, a number of legislatures that did not complete normal terms, military coups, and only one president who completed his four-year term in office. Portuguese society was poorly prepared for this political experiment. Among the deadly legacies of the monarchy were a huge public debt; a largely rural, apolitical, and illiterate peasant population; conflict over the causes of the country’s misfortunes; and lack of experience with a pluralist, democratic system.

The republic had some talented leadership but lacked popular, institutional, and economic support. The 1911 republican constitution established only a limited democracy, as only a small portion of the adult male citizenry was eligible to vote. In a country where the majority was Catholic, the republic passed harshly anticlerical laws, and its institutions and supporters persecuted both the Church and its adherents. During its brief disjointed life, the First Republic drafted important reform plans in economic, social, and educational affairs; actively promoted development in the empire; and pursued a liberal, generous foreign policy. Following British requests for Portugal's assistance in World War I, Portugal entered the war on the Allied side in March 1916 and sent armies to Flanders and Portuguese Africa. Portugal's intervention in that conflict, however, was too costly in many respects, and the ultimate failure of the republic in part may be ascribed to Portugal's World War I activities.

Unfortunately for the republic, its time coincided with new threats to Portugal's African possessions: World War I, social and political demands from various classes that could not be reconciled, excessive military intervention in politics, and, in particular, the worst economic and financial crisis Portugal had experienced since the 16th and 17th centuries. After the original Portuguese Republican Party (PRP, also known as the "Democrats") splintered into three warring groups in 1912, no true multiparty system emerged. The Democrats, except for only one or two elections, held an iron monopoly of electoral power, and political corruption became a major issue. As extreme right-wing dictatorships elsewhere in Europe began to take power in Italy (1922), neighboring Spain (1923), and Greece (1925), what scant popular support remained for the republic collapsed. Backed by a right-wing coalition of landowners from Alentejo, clergy, Coimbra University faculty and students, Catholic organizations, and big business, career military officers led by General Gomes da Costa executed a coup on 28 May 1926, turned out the last republican government, and established a military government.

The Estado Novo (New State), 1926–74

During the military phase (1926–32) of the Estado Novo, professional military officers, largely from the army, governed and admin-

istered Portugal and held key cabinet posts, but soon discovered that the military possessed no magic formula that could readily solve the problems inherited from the First Republic. Especially during the years 1926–31, the military dictatorship, even with its political repression of republican activities and institutions (military censorship of the press, political police action, and closure of the republic's rowdy parliament), was characterized by similar weaknesses: personalism and factionalism; military coups and political instability, including civil strife and loss of life; state debt and bankruptcy; and a weak economy. "Barracks parliamentarism" was not an acceptable alternative even to the "Nightmare Republic."

Led by General Óscar Carmona, who had replaced and sent into exile General Gomes da Costa, the military dictatorship turned to a civilian expert in finance and economics to break the budget impasse and bring coherence to the disorganized system. Appointed minister of finance on 27 April 1928, the Coimbra University Law School professor of economics António de Oliveira Salazar (1889–1970) first reformed finance, helped balance the budget, and then turned to other concerns as he garnered extraordinary governing powers. In 1930, he was appointed interim head of another key ministry (Colonies) and within a few years had become, in effect, a civilian dictator who, with the military hierarchy's support, provided the government with coherence, a program, and a set of policies.

For nearly 40 years after he was appointed the first civilian prime minister in 1932, Salazar's personality dominated the government. Unlike extreme right-wing dictators elsewhere in Europe, Salazar was directly appointed by the army but was never endorsed by a popular political party, street militia, or voter base. The scholarly, reclusive former Coimbra University professor built up what became known after 1932 as the *Estado Novo* ("New State"), which at the time of its overthrow by another military coup in 1974, was the longest surviving authoritarian regime in Western Europe. The system of Salazar and the largely academic and technocratic ruling group he gathered in his cabinets was based on the central bureaucracy of the state, which was supported by the president of the republic—always a senior career military officer, General Óscar Carmona (1928–51), General Craveiro Lopes (1951–58), and Admiral Américo Tomás (1958–74)—and the complicity of various institutions. These included a rubber-stamp

legislature called the National Assembly (1935–74) and a political police known under various names: PVDE (1932–45), PIDE (1945–69), and DGS (1969–74). Other defenders of the *Estado Novo* security were paramilitary organizations such as the National Republican Guard (GNR); the Portuguese Legion (PL); and the Portuguese Youth [Movement]. In addition to censorship of the media, theater, and books, there was political repression and a deliberate policy of depoliticization. All political parties except for the approved movement of regime loyalists, the *União Nacional* or (National Union), were banned.

The most vigorous and more popular period of the New State was 1932–44, when the basic structures were established. Never monolithic or entirely the work of one person (Salazar), the New State was constructed with the assistance of several dozen top associates who were mainly academics from law schools, some technocrats with specialized skills, and a handful of trusted career military officers. The 1933 Constitution declared Portugal to be a “unitary, corporative Republic,” and pressures to restore the monarchy were resisted. Although some of the regime’s followers were fascists and pseudofascists, many more were conservative Catholics, integralists, nationalists, and monarchists of different varieties, and even some reactionary republicans. If the New State was authoritarian, it was not totalitarian and, unlike fascism in Benito Mussolini’s Italy or Adolf Hitler’s Germany, it usually employed the minimum of violence necessary to defeat what remained a largely fractious, incoherent opposition.

With the tumultuous Second Republic and the subsequent civil war in nearby Spain, the regime felt threatened and reinforced its defenses. During what Salazar rightly perceived as a time of foreign policy crisis for Portugal (1936–45), he assumed control of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. From there, he pursued four basic foreign policy objectives: supporting the Nationalist rebels of General Francisco Franco in the Spanish Civil War (1936–39) and concluding defense treaties with a triumphant Franco; ensuring that General Franco in an exhausted Spain did not enter World War II on the Axis side; maintaining Portuguese neutrality in World War II with a post-1942 tilt toward the Allies, including granting Britain and the United States use of bases in the Azores Islands; and preserving and protecting Portugal’s Atlantic Islands and its extensive, if poor, overseas empire in Africa and Asia.

During the middle years of the New State (1944–58), many key Salazar associates in government either died or resigned, and there was greater social unrest in the form of unprecedented strikes and clandestine Communist activities, intensified opposition, and new threatening international pressures on Portugal's overseas empire. During the earlier phase of the Cold War (1947–60), Portugal became a steadfast, if weak, member of the US-dominated North Atlantic Treaty Organization alliance and, in 1955, with American support, Portugal joined the United Nations (UN). Colonial affairs remained a central concern of the regime. As of 1939, Portugal was the third largest colonial power in the world and possessed territories in tropical Africa (Angola, Mozambique, Guinea-Bissau, and São Tomé and Príncipe Islands) and the remnants of its 16th-century empire in Asia (Goa, Damão, Diu, East Timor, and Macau). Beginning in the early 1950s, following the independence of India in 1947, Portugal resisted Indian pressures to decolonize Portuguese India and used police forces to discourage internal opposition in its Asian and African colonies.

The later years of the New State (1958–68) witnessed the aging of the increasingly isolated but feared Salazar and new threats both at home and overseas. Although the regime easily overcame the brief oppositionist threat from rival presidential candidate General Humberto Delgado in the spring of 1958, new developments in the African and Asian empires imperiled the authoritarian system. In February 1961, oppositionists hijacked the Portuguese ocean liner *Santa Maria* and, in following weeks, African insurgents in northern Angola, although they failed to expel the Portuguese, gained worldwide media attention, discredited the New State, and began the 13-year colonial war. After thwarting a dissident military coup against his continued leadership, Salazar and his ruling group mobilized military repression in Angola and attempted to develop the African colonies at a faster pace in order to ensure Portuguese control. Meanwhile, the other European colonial powers (Britain, France, Belgium, and Spain) rapidly granted political independence to their African territories.

At the time of Salazar's removal from power in September 1968, following a stroke, Portugal's efforts to maintain control over its colonies appeared to be successful. President Americo Tomás appointed Dr. Marcello Caetano as Salazar's successor as prime minister. While

maintaining the New State's basic structures, and continuing the regime's essential colonial policy, Caetano attempted wider reforms in colonial administration and some devolution of power from Lisbon, as well as more freedom of expression in Lisbon. Still, a great deal of the budget was devoted to supporting the wars against the insurgencies in Africa. Meanwhile in Asia, Portuguese India had fallen when the Indian army invaded in December 1961. The loss of Goa was a psychological blow to the leadership of the New State, and of the Asian empire only East Timor and Macau remained.

The Caetano years (1968–74) were but a hiatus between the waning Salazar era and a new regime. There was greater political freedom and rapid economic growth (5–6 percent annually to late 1973), but Caetano's government was unable to reform the old system thoroughly and refused to consider new methods either at home or in the empire. In the end, regime change came from junior officers of the professional military who organized the Armed Forces Movement (MFA) against the Caetano government. It was this group of several hundred officers, mainly in the army and navy, which engineered a largely bloodless coup in Lisbon on 25 April 1974. Their unexpected action brought down the 48-year-old New State and made possible the eventual establishment and consolidation of democratic governance in Portugal, as well as a reorientation of the country away from the Atlantic toward Europe.

Revolution of Carnations, 1974–76

Following successful military operations of the Armed Forces Movement against the Caetano government, Portugal experienced what became known as the "Revolution of Carnations." It so happened that during the rainy week of the military *golpe*, Lisbon flower shops were featuring carnations, and the revolutionaries and their supporters adopted the red carnation as the common symbol of the event, as well as of the new freedom from dictatorship. The MFA, whose leaders at first were mostly little-known majors and captains, proclaimed a three-fold program of change for the new Portugal: democracy; decolonization of the overseas empire, after ending the colonial wars; and developing a backward economy in the spirit of opportunity and equality. During the first 24 months after the coup, there was civil strife, some anarchy, and a power struggle. With the passing of the Estado Novo, public euphoria

burst forth as the new provisional military government proclaimed the freedoms of speech, press, and assembly, and abolished censorship, the political police, the Portuguese Legion, Portuguese Youth, and other New State organizations, including the National Union. Scores of political parties were born and joined the senior political party, the Portuguese Community Party (PCP), and the Socialist Party (PS), founded shortly before the coup.

Portugal's Revolution of Carnations went through several phases. There was an attempt to take control by radical leftists, including the PCP and its allies. This was thwarted by moderate officers in the army, as well as by the efforts of two political parties: the PS and the Social Democrats (PPD, later PSD). The first phase was from April to September 1974. Provisional president General Antonio Spínola, whose 1974 book *Portugal and the Future* had helped prepare public opinion for the coup, met irresistible leftist pressures. After Spínola's efforts to avoid rapid decolonization of the African empire failed, he resigned in September 1974. During the second phase, from September 1974 to March 1975, radical military officers gained control, but a coup attempt by General Spínola and his supporters in Lisbon in March 1975 failed and Spínola fled to Spain.

In the third phase of the Revolution, March–November 1975, a strong leftist reaction followed. Farm workers occupied and “nationalized” 1.1 million hectares of farmland in the Alentejo province, and radical military officers in the provisional government ordered the nationalization of Portuguese banks (foreign banks were exempted), utilities, and major industries, or about 60 percent of the economic system. There were power struggles among various political parties—a total of 50 emerged—and in the streets there was civil strife among labor, military, and law enforcement groups. A constituent assembly, elected on 25 April 1975, in Portugal's first free elections since 1926, drafted a democratic constitution. The Council of the Revolution (CR), briefly a revolutionary military watchdog committee, was entrenched as part of the government under the constitution, until a later revision. During the chaotic year of 1975, about 30 persons were killed in political frays while unstable provisional governments came and went. On 25 November 1975, moderate military forces led by Colonel Ramalho Eanes, who later was twice elected president of the republic (1976 and 1981), defeated radical, leftist military groups' revolutionary conspiracies.

In the meantime, Portugal's scattered overseas empire experienced a precipitous and unprepared decolonization. One by one, the former colonies were granted and accepted independence—Guinea-Bissau (September 1974), Cape Verde Islands (July 1975), and Mozambique (July 1975). Portugal offered to turn over Macau to the People's Republic of China, but the offer was refused then and later negotiations led to the establishment of a formal decolonization or hand-over date of 1999. But in two former colonies, the process of decolonization had tragic results.

In Angola, decolonization negotiations were greatly complicated by the fact that there were three rival nationalist movements in a struggle for power. The January 1975 Alvor Agreement signed by Portugal and these three parties was not effectively implemented. A bloody civil war broke out in Angola in the spring of 1975 and, when Portuguese armed forces withdrew and declared that Angola was independent on 11 November 1975, the bloodshed only increased. Meanwhile, most of the white Portuguese settlers from Angola and Mozambique fled during the course of 1975. Together with African refugees, more than 600,000 of these *retornados* ("returned ones") went by ship and air to Portugal and thousands more to Namibia, South Africa, Brazil, Canada, and the United States.

The second major decolonization disaster was in Portugal's colony of East Timor in the Indonesian archipelago. Portugal's capacity to supervise and control a peaceful transition to independence in this isolated, neglected colony was limited by the strength of giant Indonesia, distance from Lisbon, and Portugal's revolutionary disorder and inability to defend Timor. In early December 1975, before Portugal granted formal independence and as one party, FRETILIN, unilaterally declared East Timor's independence, Indonesia's armed forces invaded, conquered, and annexed East Timor. Indonesian occupation encountered East Timorese resistance, and a heavy loss of life followed. The East Timor question remained a contentious international issue in the UN, as well as in Lisbon and Jakarta, for more than 20 years following Indonesia's invasion and annexation of the former colony of Portugal. Major changes occurred, beginning in 1998, after Indonesia underwent a political revolution and allowed a referendum in East Timor to decide that territory's political future in August 1999. Most East Timorese chose independence, but Indonesian forces resisted that verdict until

UN intervention in September 1999. Following UN rule for several years, East Timor attained full independence on 20 May 2002.

Consolidation of Democracy, 1976–2000

After several free elections and record voter turnouts between 25 April 1975 and June 1976, civil war was averted and Portugal's second democratic republic began to stabilize. The MFA was dissolved, the military were returned to the barracks, and increasingly elected civilians took over the government of the country. The 1976 Constitution was revised several times beginning in 1982 and 1989, in order to reemphasize the principle of free enterprise in the economy while much of the large, nationalized sector was privatized. In June 1976, General Ramalho Eanes was elected the first constitutional president of the republic (five-year term), and he appointed socialist leader Dr. Mário Soares as prime minister of the first constitutional government.

From 1976 to 1985, Portugal's new system featured a weak economy and finances, labor unrest, and administrative and political instability. The difficult consolidation of democratic governance was eased in part by the strong currency and gold reserves inherited from the *Estado Novo*, but Lisbon seemed unable to cope with high unemployment, new debt, the complex impact of the refugees from Africa, world recession, and the agitation of political parties. Four major parties emerged from the maelstrom of 1974–75, except for the Communist Party, all newly founded. They were, from left to right, the Communists (PCP); the Socialists (PS), who managed to dominate governments and the legislature but not win a majority in the Assembly of the Republic; the Social Democrats (PSD); and the Christian Democrats (CDS). During this period, the annual growth rate was low (1–2 percent), and the nationalized sector of the economy stagnated.

Enhanced economic growth, greater political stability, and more effective central government as of 1985, and especially 1987, were due to several developments. In 1977, Portugal applied for membership in the European Economic Community (EEC), now the European Union (EU) since 1993. In January 1986, with Spain, Portugal was granted membership, and economic and financial progress in the intervening years has been significantly influenced by the comparatively large investment, loans, technology, advice, and other assistance from the EEC. Low

unemployment, high annual growth rates (5 percent), and moderate inflation have also been induced by the new political and administrative stability in Lisbon. Led by Prime Minister Cavaco Silva, an economist who was trained abroad, the PSD's strong organization, management, and electoral support since 1985 have assisted in encouraging economic recovery and development. In 1985, the PSD turned the PS out of office and won the general election, although they did not have an absolute majority of assembly seats. In 1986, Mário Soares was elected president of the republic, the first civilian to hold that office since the First Republic. In the elections of 1987 and 1991, however, the PSD was returned to power with clear majorities of over 50 percent of the vote.

Although the PSD received 50.4 percent of the vote in the 1991 parliamentary elections and held a 42-seat majority in the Assembly of the Republic, the party began to lose public support following media revelations regarding corruption and complaints about Prime Minister Cavaco Silva's perceived arrogant leadership style. President Mário Soares voiced criticism of the PSD's seemingly untouchable majority and described a "tyranny of the majority." Economic growth slowed down. In the parliamentary elections of 1995 and the presidential election of 1996, the PSD's dominance ended for the time being. Prime Minister António Guterres came to office when the PS won the October 1995 elections, and in the subsequent presidential contest, in January 1996, socialist Jorge Sampaio, the former mayor of Lisbon, was elected president of the republic, thus defeating Cavaco Silva's bid. Young and popular, Guterres moved the PS toward the center of the political spectrum. Under Guterres, the PS won the October 1999 parliamentary elections. The PS defeated the PSD but did not manage to win a clear, working majority of seats, and this made the PS dependent upon alliances with smaller parties, including the PCP.

In the local elections in December 2001, the PSD's criticism of PS's heavy public spending allowed the PSD to take control of the key cities of Lisbon, Oporto, and Coimbra. Guterres resigned, and parliamentary elections were brought forward from 2004 to March 2002. The PSD won a narrow victory with 40 percent of the votes, and Jose Durão Barroso became prime minister. Having failed to win a majority of the seats in parliament forced the PSD to govern in coalition with the right-wing Popular Party (PP) led by Paulo Portas. Durão Barroso set about reducing government spending by cutting the budgets of local authorities,

freezing civil service hiring, and reviving the economy by accelerating privatization of state-owned enterprises. These measures provoked a 24-hour strike by public-sector workers. Durão Barroso reacted with vows to press ahead with budget-cutting measures and imposed a wage freeze on all employees earning more than €1,000, which affected more than one-half of Portugal's work force.

In June 2004, Durão Barroso was invited by Romano Prodi to succeed him as president of the European Commission. Durão Barroso accepted and resigned the prime ministership in July. Pedro Santana Lopes, the leader of the PSD, became prime minister. Already unpopular at the time of Durão Barroso's resignation, the PSD-led government became increasingly unpopular under Santana Lopes. A month-long delay in the start of the school year and confusion over his plan to cut taxes and raise public-sector salaries, eroded confidence even more. By November, Santana Lopes's government was so unpopular that President Jorge Sampaio was obliged to dissolve parliament and hold new elections, two years ahead of schedule.

Parliamentary elections were held on 20 February 2005. The PS, which had promised the electorate disciplined and transparent governance, educational reform, the alleviation of poverty, and a boost in employment, won 45 percent of the vote and the majority of the seats in parliament. The leader of the PS, José Sócrates became prime minister on 12 March 2005. In the regularly scheduled presidential elections held on 6 January 2006, the former leader of the PSD and prime minister, Aníbal Cavaco Silva, won a narrow victory and became president on 9 March 2006. With a mass protest, public teachers' strike, and street demonstrations in March 2008, Portugal's media, educational, and social systems experienced more severe pressures. With the spreading global recession beginning in September 2008, Portugal's economic and financial systems became more troubled.

Contemporary Portugal

Owing to its geographic location on the southwestern most edge of continental Europe, Portugal has been historically *in* but not *of* Europe. Almost from the beginning of its existence in the 12th century as an independent monarchy, Portugal turned its back on Europe and oriented itself toward the Atlantic Ocean. After carving out a Christian kingdom

on the western portion of the Iberian peninsula, Portuguese kings gradually built and maintained a vast seaborne global empire that became central to the way Portugal understood its individuality as a nation-state. While the creation of this empire allows Portugal to claim an unusual number of “firsts” or distinctions in world and Western history, it also retarded Portugal’s economic, social, and political development. It can be reasonably argued that the Revolution of 25 April 1974 was the most decisive event in Portugal’s long history because it finally ended Portugal’s oceanic mission and view of itself as an imperial power. After the 1974 Revolution, Portugal turned away from its global mission and vigorously reoriented itself toward Europe. Contemporary Portugal is now both *in* and *of* Europe.

The turn toward Europe began immediately after 25 April 1974. Portugal granted independence to its African colonies in 1975. It was admitted to the European Council and took the first steps toward accession to the European Economic Community (EEC) in 1976. On 28 March 1977, the Portuguese government officially applied for EEC membership. Because of Portugal’s economic and social backwardness, which would require vast sums of EEC money to overcome, negotiations for membership were long and difficult. Finally, a treaty of accession was signed on 12 June 1985. Portugal officially joined the EEC (the European Union [EU] since 1993) on 1 January 1986. Since becoming a full-fledged member of the EU, Portugal has been steadily overcoming the economic and social underdevelopment caused by its imperial past and is becoming more like the rest of Europe.

Membership in the EU has speeded up the structural transformation of Portugal’s economy, which actually began during the *Estado Novo*. Investments made by the *Estado Novo* in Portugal’s economy began to shift employment out of the agricultural sector, which, in 1950, accounted for 50 percent of Portugal’s economically active population. Today, only 10 percent of the economically active population is employed in the agricultural sector (the highest among EU member states); 30 percent in the industrial sector (also the highest among EU member states); and 60 percent in the service sector (the lowest among EU member states). The economically active population numbers about 5,000,000 employed, 56 percent of whom are women. Women workers are the majority of the workforce in the agricultural and service sectors (the highest among the EU member states). The expansion of the service sector has been primar-

ily in health care and education. Portugal has had the lowest unemployment rates among EU member states, with the overall rate never being more than 10 percent of the active population. Since joining the EU, the number of employers increased from 2.6 percent to 5.8 percent of the active population; self-employed from 16 to 19 percent; and employees from 65 to 70 percent. Twenty-six percent of the employers are women. Unemployment tends to hit younger workers in industry and transportation, women employed in domestic service, workers on short-term contracts, and poorly educated workers. Salaried workers earn only 63 percent of the EU average, and hourly workers only one-third to one-half of that earned by their EU counterparts. Despite having had the second highest growth of gross national product (GNP) per inhabitant (after Ireland) among EU member states, the above data suggest that while much has been accomplished in terms of modernizing the Portuguese economy, much remains to be done to bring Portugal's economy up to the level of the "average" EU member state.

Membership in the EU has also speeded up changes in Portuguese society. Over the last 30 years, coastalization and urbanization have intensified. Fully 50 percent of Portuguese live in the coastal urban conurbations of Lisbon, Oporto, Braga, Aveiro, Coimbra, Viseu, Évora, and Faro. The Portuguese population is one of the oldest among EU member states (17.3 percent are 65 years of age or older) thanks to a considerable increase in life expectancy at birth (77.87 years for the total population, 74.6 years for men, 81.36 years for women) and one of the lowest birthrates (10.59 births/1,000) in Europe. Family size averages 2.8 persons per household, with the strict nuclear family (one or two generations) in which both parents work being typical. Common law marriages, cohabitating couples, and single-parent households are more and more common. The divorce rate has also increased. "Youth Culture" has developed. The young have their own meeting places, leisure-time activities, and nightlife (bars, clubs, and discos).

All Portuguese citizens, whether they have contributed or not, have a right to an old-age pension, invalidity benefits, widowed persons' pension, as well as payments for disabilities, children, unemployment, and large families. There is a national minimum wage (€385 per month), which is low by EU standards. The rapid aging of Portugal's population has changed the ratio of contributors to pensioners to 1.7, the lowest in the EU. This has created deficits in Portugal's social security fund.

The adult literacy rate is about 92 percent. Illiteracy is still found among the elderly. Although universal compulsory education up to grade 9 was achieved in 1980, only 21.2 percent of the population aged 25–64 had undergone secondary education, compared to an EU average of 65.7 percent. Portugal's higher education system currently consists of 14 state universities and 14 private universities, 15 state polytechnic institutions, one Catholic university, and one military academy. All in all, Portugal spends a greater percentage of its state budget on education than most EU member states. Despite this high level of expenditure, the troubled Portuguese education system does not perform well. Early leaving and repetition rates are among the highest among EU member states.

After the Revolution of 25 April 1974, Portugal created a National Health Service, which today consists of 221 hospitals and 512 medical centers employing 33,751 doctors and 41,799 nurses. Like its education system, Portugal's medical system is inefficient. There are long waiting lists for appointments with specialists and for surgical procedures.

Structural changes in Portugal's economy and society mean that social life in Portugal is not too different from that in other EU member states. A mass consumption society has been created. Televisions, telephones, refrigerators, cars, music equipment, mobile phones, and personal computers are commonplace. Sixty percent of Portuguese households possess at least one automobile, and 65 percent of Portuguese own their own home. Portuguese citizens are more aware of their legal rights than ever before. This has resulted in a trebling of the number of legal proceedings since 1960 and an eight-fold increase in the number of lawyers. In general, Portuguese society has become more permissive and secular; the Catholic Church and the armed forces are much less influential than in the past. Portugal's population is also much more culturally, religiously, and ethnically diverse, a consequence of the coming to Portugal of hundreds of thousands of immigrants, mainly from former African colonies.

Portuguese are becoming more cosmopolitan and sophisticated through the impact of world media, the Internet, and the World Wide Web. A prime case in point came in the summer and early fall of 1999, with the extraordinary events in East Timor and the massive Portuguese popular responses. An internationally monitored referendum in East Timor, Portugal's former colony in the Indonesian archipelago and

under Indonesian occupation from late 1975 to summer 1999, resulted in a vote of 78.5 percent for rejecting integration with Indonesia and for independence. When Indonesian prointegration gangs, aided by the Indonesian military, responded to the referendum with widespread brutality and threatened to reverse the verdict of the referendum, there was a spontaneous popular outpouring of protest in the cities and towns of Portugal. An avalanche of Portuguese e-mail fell on leaders and groups in the UN and in certain countries around the world as Portugal's diplomats, perhaps to compensate for the weak initial response to Indonesian armed aggression in 1975, called for the protection of East Timor as an independent state and for UN intervention to thwart Indonesian action. Using global communications networks, the Portuguese were able to mobilize UN and world public opinion against Indonesian actions and aided the eventual independence of East Timor on 20 May 2002.

From the Revolution of 25 April 1974 until the 1990s, Portugal had a large number of political parties, one of the largest Communist parties in western Europe, frequent elections, and endemic cabinet instability. Since the 1990s, the number of political parties has been dramatically reduced and cabinet stability increased. Gradually, the Portuguese electorate has concentrated around two larger parties, the right-of-center Social Democrats (PSD) and the left-of-center Socialist (PS). In the 1980s, these two parties together garnered 65 percent of the vote and 70 percent of the seats in parliament. In 2005, these percentages had risen to 74 percent and 85 percent, respectively. In effect, Portugal is currently a two-party dominant system in which the two largest parties—PS and PSD—alternate in and out of power, not unlike the rotation of the two main political parties (the Regenerators and the Historicals) during the last decades (1850s to 1880s) of the liberal constitutional monarchy. As Portugal's democracy has consolidated, turnout rates for the eligible electorate have declined. In the 1970s, turnout was 85 percent. In Portugal's most recent parliamentary election (2005), turnout had fallen to 65 percent of the eligible electorate.

Portugal has benefited greatly from membership in the EU, and whatever doubts remain about the price paid for membership, no Portuguese government in the near future can afford to sever this connection. The vast majority of Portuguese citizens see membership in the EU as a "good thing" and strongly believe that Portugal has benefited from membership. Only the Communist Party opposed membership because

it reduces national sovereignty, serves the interests of capitalists not workers, and suffers from a democratic deficit. Despite the high level of support for the EU, Portuguese voters are increasingly not voting in elections for the European Parliament, however. Turnout for European Parliament elections fell from 40 percent of the eligible electorate in the 1999 elections to 38 percent in the 2004 elections.

In sum, Portugal's turn toward Europe has done much to overcome its backwardness. However, despite the economic, social, and political progress made since 1986, Portugal has a long way to go before it can claim to be on a par with the level found even in Spain, much less the rest of western Europe. As Portugal struggles to move from underdevelopment, especially in the rural areas away from the coast, it must keep in mind the perils of too rapid modern development, which could damage two of its most precious assets: its scenery and environment. The growth and future prosperity of the economy will depend on the degree to which the government and the private sector will remain stewards of clean air, soil, water, and other finite resources on which the tourism industry depends and on which Portugal's world image as a unique place to visit rests. Currently, Portugal is investing heavily in renewable energy from solar, wind, and wave power in order to account for about 50 percent of its electricity needs by 2010. Portugal opened the world's largest solar power plant and the world's first commercial wave power farm in 2006.

An American documentary film on Portugal produced in the 1970s described this little country as having "a Past in Search of a Future." In the years after the Revolution of 25 April 1974, it could be said that Portugal is now living in "a Present in Search of a Future." Increasingly, that future lies in Europe as an active and productive member of the EU.

The Dictionary

– A –

ADMINISTRATIVE REGIONS. Portugal's current administrative structure consists of 18 districts and two autonomous regions (the **Azores** and **Madeira** Islands). These are Aveiro, Azores, Beja, Braga, Braganca, Castelo Branco, Coimbra, Évora, Faro, Guarda, Leiria, Lisbon (the capital), Madeira, Portalegre, Oporto, Santarem, Setubal, Viana do Castelo, Vila Real, and Viseu. Portugal's district system since the 1970s has been in a state of transition. Portugal's historic provinces continue to be included on many maps and charts, historical and current literature, and in current conversation, although they are no longer part of Portugal's official administrative structure. Since Portugal joined the European Community (EEC) in 1986, there have been political efforts to replace the district system with regions, but this effort was at least temporarily stymied in 1998, in a national referendum in which voters rejected the move toward regionalization. Some changes have been made in the administration and grouping of municipalities, but so far the district system remains dominant.

AFONSO I, KING. *See also* HENRIQUES, KING AFONSO.

AFONSO III, KING (r. 1246–79). Member of the Burgundian dynasty and king of Portugal who completed the *Reconquista* (Reconquest) of Portugal's territory from the Muslim invaders. Afonso's reign featured a number of important measures: imposing greater unity on the kingdom; establishing the power of the throne over the **Catholic Church**; and shifting Portugal's capital from **Coimbra** to **Lisbon**. Afonso III was the father of **King Dinis**, who ruled Portugal from 1279 to 1325.

AFONSO V, KING (r. 1446–1481). Born in 1432, the son of King D. Duarte I and D. Leonor of Aragon, Afonso was only six years old when his father died suddenly and a succession crisis and consequent civil strife began. His mother fled into exile in Castile, where she died in 1445. He attained his majority in 1446. In the 1450s, King Afonso presided over more Portuguese expansion in Morocco by the capture of more Moroccan cities, but progress down the western African coast was delayed by the king's intervention in Iberian royal politics in Castile. His ambitions in Spain were thwarted after his loss of the battle of Toro to Castilian forces in 1476. In the 1470s, the king encouraged Portuguese exploration, trade, and colonization in western Africa, including settlement in the islands of **São Tomé and Príncipe** in the Bight of Biafra. The king died in 1481, and as a member of the Aviz dynasty, he became known in the history of Portugal as “O Africano” (“the African”) and had one of the longest reigns in Portuguese history.

AGRICULTURE. Historically, Portugal's agricultural efficiency, measured in terms of crop yields and animal productivity, has been well below that of other European countries. Agricultural inefficiency is a consequence of Portugal's topography and climate, which varies considerably from north to south and has influenced farm size and farming methods. There are three major agricultural zones: the north, center, and south. The north (the area between the **Douro** and Minho Rivers, including the district of Trás-os-Montes) is mountainous with a wet (180–249 cm of rainfall/year), moderately cool climate. It contains about 2 million hectares of cultivated land excessively fragmented into tiny (3–5 hectares) family-owned farms, or *minifúndios*, a consequence of ancient settlement patterns, a strong attachment to the land, and the tradition of subdividing land equally among family members. The farms in the north produce the potatoes and kale that are used to make *caldo verde* soup, a staple of the Portuguese diet, and the grapes that are used to make *vinho verde* (green wine), a light sparkling white wine said to aid the digestion of oily and greasy food. Northern farms are too small to benefit from mechanization and their owners too poor to invest in irrigation, chemical fertilizers, or better seeds; hence, agriculture in the north has remained labor intensive, despite efforts to regroup *minifúndios* to increase farm size and efficiency.

The center (roughly between the Douro and the **Tagus River**) is bisected by the **Mondego River**, the land to either side of which is some of the most fertile in Portugal and produces irrigated rice, corn, grapes, and forest goods on medium-sized (about 100 hectares) farms under a mixture of owner-cultivation and sharecropping. Portugal's center contains the **Estrela Mountains**, where sheep raising is common and wool, milk, and cheese are produced, especially mountain cheese (*Queijo da Serra*), similar to French brie. In the valley of the Dão River, a full-bodied, fruity wine much like Burgundy is produced. In the southern part of the center, where the climate is dry and soils are poor, stock raising mixes with cereal crop cultivation. In Estremadura, the area north of **Lisbon**, better soils and even rainfall support intensive agriculture. The small farms of this area produce lemons, strawberries, pears, quinces, peaches, and vegetables. Estremadura also produces red wine at Colares and white wine at Buçelas.

The south (Alentejo and Algarve) is a vast rolling plain with a hot arid climate. It contains about 2.6 million hectares of arable land and produces the bulk of Portugal's wheat and barley. It also produces one of Portugal's chief exports, cork, which is made from bark cut from cork oaks at nine-year intervals. There are vast groves of olive trees around the towns of Elvas, Serpa, and Estremoz that provide Portugal's olives. The warm climate of the Algarve (the most southern region of Portugal) is favorable for the growing of oranges, pomegranates, figs, and carobs. Almonds are also produced. Farms in the south, except for the Algarve, are large estates (typically 1,000 hectares or more in size) known as *latifúndios*, worked by a landless, wage-earning rural work force. After the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, these large estates were taken over by the state and turned into collective farms. During the 1990s, as the radicalism of the Revolution moderated, collectivized agriculture was seen as counterproductive, and the nationalized estates were gradually returned to their original owners in exchange for cash payments or small parcels of land for the collective farm workers.

Portugal adopted the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) when it joined the **European Union (EU)** in 1986. The CAP, which is based on the principles of common pricing, EU preferences, and joint financing, has shifted much of Portugal's agricultural decision making

to the EU. Under the CAP, cereals and dairy products have experienced declines in prices because these are in chronic surplus within the EU. Alentejo wheat production has become unprofitable because of poor soils. However, rice, tomatoes, sunflower, and safflower seed and potatoes, as well as Portuguese wines, have competed well under the CAP system. *See also MINIFÚNDIOS, LATIFÚNDIOS, EUROPEAN UNION.*

AJUDÁ, FORTRESS OF ST. JOHN THE BAPTIST OF. Tiny colonial enclave of only a few acres that was a Portuguese possession in the West African country of Dahomey (renamed Bénin) from the 17th century. Ordered built by the captain-general of São Tomé in 1680, the stone fortress was close to the shore of the Gulf of Guinea. Portugal's fragile sovereignty over this historic site was ended in 1961, when the government of independent Dahomey forcibly occupied the place. Before this process of unilateral decolonization was carried out, the Portuguese official in charge of the fortress set fire to the interior of his bungalow nearby and drove to the airport. Intransigence against all decolonization pressures was the Dictatorship's response even in the strange case of **Ajudá**.

AJUDA, PALACE OF. Massive Ajuda Palace, in the Ajudá section of **Lisbon**, incredibly never finished, is the largest former royal residence in the capital. Like so many other Portuguese palaces now open to the public or in current government use, it is actually a "working palace-museum," containing countless treasures within its royal walls. Ajuda Palace was built, beginning in 1802, to replace a wooden palace close by that had burned down. Construction endured throughout the remainder of the 19th century. Neoclassical in style, Ajuda Palace retains a somewhat forbidding, cold look, but the interior is dominated by a rich mixture of 19th-century Portuguese art that includes paintings, tapestries, ceramics, and statuary. Ajuda also features an important library, one documentary key to the history of the century during which the palace was built, with rare manuscripts and books as part of contemporary government records. *See also ARCHITECTURE.*

ALBUQUERQUE, AFONSO DE (1462?–1515). One of the greatest conquistadores of Portugal's Asian empire in its early phase and, in

effect, the founder of the nation's Asian empire. Initially serving the king in Portugal's Moroccan conquests, Albuquerque first went to **India** in 1503, and during the period 1503–15 he extended Portugal's maritime empire from the west coast of India to Malacca and made efforts to take various port cities in Arabia including Aden and Ormuz. Among his ambitious schemes was the plan to carry a crusade to the Muslims in Arabia and capture the holy city of Mecca. Known as the most capable of Portugal's early empire builders, Albuquerque was a man of many talents: soldier, sailor, administrator, statesman, diplomat, and strategist. Poorly rewarded for his Herculean efforts on behalf of **King Manuel I**, Albuquerque was humiliated when he witnessed the arrival of a new governor, appointed without his knowledge by the king. Exhausted and mortally ill from his campaigns, he died in Goa, Portuguese India, on 16 December 1515.

ALBUQUERQUE, JOAQUIM MOUSINHO DE (1855–1902). Portugal's most celebrated colonial soldier of the modern era, governor and conqueror of the Gaza state in **Mozambique**. A career army officer with noble lineage, "Mousinho," as he became known to his generation, later helped to shape Portugal's administration and policies in Mozambique, following army service in India. He served largely as a soldier involved in so-called "pacification" campaigns in Mozambique (1890–95) and then as an administrator, where he acted as royal commissioner and governor-general of Mozambique from 1896 to 1898. After he first visited Africa in 1890, the year of the **English Ultimatum**, the principal part of his career would be devoted to Portuguese Africa, and he was to become a noted authority on African affairs and policies. Appointed governor of the district of Lourenço Marques (today, Maputo) in late 1890, he returned to Portugal in 1892, then became part of the most famous military expedition to Portuguese Africa of the modern era, the 1895 force sent to Mozambique to conquer the African state of Gaza, in southern Mozambique. Albuquerque distinguished himself in this bloody campaign; at the battle of Coolela, on 7 November 1895, Portuguese forces using the novel machine gun defeated and slaughtered the army of Gaza king Gungunyane. Following his appointment as military governor of the Gaza district, Albuquerque grew impatient with the failure of his superiors to give the coup d'grace to the Gaza kingdom by killing or capturing its leader, Gungunyane, who had escaped

after the battle of Coolela. With a small force, Mousinho raided his refuge at Chaimite, Mozambique, and captured Gungunyane, who did not resist (January 1896). These bold deeds in the 1895 campaign and the surprise kidnapping of Mozambique's most powerful African leader made Albuquerque a hero in Portugal and a colonial celebrity in several other European states. Among the honors showered upon this unusual soldier was the 1896 double appointment as governor-general and royal commissioner of Mozambique colony. His service as chief administrator of Portugal's second most important African territory during 1896–98 was significant but frustrating. His efforts at sweeping reforms, rejuvenation, and decentralization of authority and power were noble but made little impact at the time. He resigned in anger after his failure to move the Lisbon colonial bureaucracy and returned to a restless, relatively inactive life in Portugal. Unable to adjust to dull garrison duty, after he completed his masterful colonial report-memoir on his African service (Mozambique, 1896–98), Albuquerque in vain sought new challenges. Briefly he served as tutor to Prince Luís, heir apparent of **King Carlos I**, but his efforts to volunteer as an officer in wars in South Africa and China failed. His idea of a military dictatorship to reform a lagging constitutional monarchy rejected both by his patron, King Carlos, and by much of the political elite, Lieutenant Colonel Mousinho de Albuquerque found life too painful to bear. On 8 January 1902, while on a Lisbon tram, Albuquerque committed suicide with his own pistol. His importance for future colonial policy in Africa was manifest as Portugal made efforts to decentralize and reform administration until 1930. After 1930, his personal legend as a brave colonial soldier who was an epitome of patriotism grew and was exploited by the dictatorship led by **Salazar**. Mousinho de Albuquerque was adopted by this regime, between 1930 and 1960, as the military-colonial patron saint of the regime and as an example to Portuguese youth. The name of the place where he surprised Gungunyane, Chaimite, was adopted as the name of an armored car used by the Portuguese Army in its post-1961 campaigns in Africa. *See also* CARLOS I, KING; GENERATION OF 1895.

ALCÁCER-QUIVIR, BATTLE OF (4 August 1578). Known to history also as “The Battle of the Three Kings,” this event helped weaken Portugal, deprive the country of a non-Castilian legitimate

male heir, and led to her loss of independence. The site of the battle, known in Arabic as Alcazar-el-Kebr, is southwest of Arzila, Morocco, some 32 kilometers (20 miles) from Tangier. It was here that the Portuguese armed forces under the command of the foolhardy young king, 24-year-old **Sebastião I of Aviz**, were defeated and dispersed by Muslim forces under the Sharif of Morocco. More than 8,000 Portuguese died, including the king, whose body was apparently buried in Alcácer. About 15,000 of the Portuguese and their allied forces became prisoners in Morocco and few managed to escape to Portuguese forts on the coast. As a result of the disappearance of Sebastião and the defeat of an important part of the country's defense forces, Portugal was more vulnerable to Spanish power than since the late 14th century. In Morocco and in Portugal, rumors grew into legends concerning the fate of the young king. The cult and mythology of **Sebastianism** arose out of the initial uncertainty concerning the monarch's fate and the tragic decline and defeat of Portugal. "Sebastianism" featured myths that the king had survived and would return on a foggy morning to Portugal to drive out the Spanish invaders and restore Portugal to its former greatness. A vast literature in poetry, stories, novels, songs, and folklore grew around the sentiment of "Sebastianism." Beginning in the late 16th century in Portugal, persons posing as the returned Sebastian, there to save Portugal, began to appear. *See also* SEBASTIANISM; SEBASTIÃO I.

ALCOBAÇA, MONASTERY OF. Located in Alcobaça, Leiria district, this is Portugal's largest church and premier religious monument in Gothic style. Alcobaça was established by the first Portuguese king, **Afonso Henriques**, in the 12th century. According to tradition, its foundation followed the king's wish after the relief of the town of Santarém from the Moors. The king chose Cistercian monks, recently arrived from France, to oversee the project and administer the establishment. Construction of what became a Cistercian abbey and church began only in 1178. After many delays, the church was finally completed and dedicated in 1252, although parts of the building were unfinished. The massive structure is in the shape of a Latin cross, and the naves are over 60 feet high. Various Portuguese kings and their families are buried in Alcobaça; here also are the famous tombs of the ill-fated **Dona Inês de Castro** and **King Pedro I**.

Among 18th-century visitors and travelers who made the beauty and wonder of Alcobaça famous in England and elsewhere was the wealthy English eccentric and writer William Beckford, whose 1835 account of his visits to Alcobaça, in effect, put Portugal on the map of English travelers henceforth. *See also* ARCHITECTURE.

ALCOFORADO, SISTER MARIANA (1640–1723). A Portuguese nun living in the Convento de Nossa Senhora da Conceição in Beja who was the supposed author of the *Letters of a Portuguese Nun*, written to her lover the French officer Noël Bouton, Marquis de Chamilly and later marshal of France. Alcoforado was the daughter of a wealthy Alentejano family. She was sent to the Convento de Nossa Senhor da Conceição to be educated. At 16, she took vows and lived the life of a nun until she purportedly met and fell in love with Noël Bouton, a French nobleman serving under the Duke of Schomberg, one of the mercenary captains fighting on the Portuguese side during the **War of Restoration** (1641–68). Bouton became acquainted with Mariana through her brother, also a soldier, and, taking advantage of the custom that allowed nuns to receive visitors, started an affair with her. When their affair became known, it caused a scandal, and Bouton deserted Mariana to return to France. Some literary scholars consider the letters she wrote to Bouton after he returned to France a work of fiction that was actually written by Gabriel-Joseph de La Vergne, the Comte de Guilleragues (1628–85). Nonetheless, a nun named Mariana Alcoforado did in fact live in the Convento de Nossa Senhora de Conceição during the period when the affair was suppose to have taken place. *See also* LITERATURE.

ALJUBARROTA, BATTLE OF (14 August 1385). The battle that helped ensure the independence of Portugal from **Spain** for nearly two centuries, presented **João I** as a formidable political figure, and assisted John of Gaunt as claimant of Castile's throne. Against a larger Castilian force under Juan of Castile, Portuguese and English forces under commanders such as Nun'Alvares Pereira, the Portuguese constable, triumphed. The result of the battle was to strengthen the independence and political unity of the Portuguese monarchy as it began to prepare for overseas expansion into the Atlantic and to Africa. Socially, a consequence was the weakening of certain of the

aristocracy, which had backed the Castilians, and the rise of **Lisbon** and **Oporto** merchant classes, backers of King João I. In order to commemorate the famous victory of 1385 at Aljubarrota, the king ordered the construction of a monastery at Batalha. *See also* BAT-ALHA, MONASTERY OF.

ALMEIDA, ANTÓNIO JOSÉ DE (1866–1929). Leading political figure in the First Republic, stalwart of republican politics, and the only president of the republic to serve a full term of office during that political experience (1910–26). Like a number of the leading political figures of his generation, Almeida was educated at **Coimbra University**'s medical school and was a staunch republican opponent of the monarchy. Almeida was reputedly the finest speaker and debater of the republican leaders. When the provisional government was named following the Republican Revolution of 5 October 1910, Almeida was included. Compared to **Afonso Costa**, a moderate republican, Almeida was involved in the fragmenting of the Republican Party (PRP) in 1911–12 and formed an alternate Republican Party, the Evolutionist Republican Party (PRE) or Evolutionists. Almeida headed one government as prime minister (1916–17), but rapidly became exhausted and disillusioned by the First Republic's unstable, ineffective politics and government. After the assassination of **Sidónio Pais** in late 1918, and the failed right-wing revolution of 1919, Almeida declared himself nonpartisan and his party, the PRE, was dissolved. Loyal to the idea of the republic, however, Almeida wished to serve in some capacity. Due to his image of being above the political fray, he was elected by the congress as president of the republic and served his full term (1919–23). Prematurely aged by the experience, he withdrew from politics and died in Lisbon in 1929. *See also* POLITICAL PARTIES.

ALMEIDA, FRANCISCO DE (1450?–1510). One of the most notable conquistadores and empire builders of Portugal's early Asian empire and the first viceroy of Portuguese India. Having served the Catholic kings in the Granada campaigns, Almeida was also a skilled navigator-sailor. In 1505, **King Manuel I** dispatched Almeida to **Portuguese India** as the first viceroy, with a fleet of 21 ships and about 1,500 soldiers. A ferocious and cruel fighter, Almeida fought

his way up the coast of East Africa and along the west coast of India. In early February 1509, Almeida's fleet annihilated a Muslim fleet in the harbor of **Diu**, ensuring Portugal's naval supremacy in the Indian Ocean for more than a century, one of the more decisive naval engagements in world maritime history. Having served as viceroy successfully during 1506–09 when replaced by **Afonso de Albuquerque**, under orders from King Manuel, Almeida obstinately refused to step down. Orders from Portugal arrived via a fleet in India in October 1509, and Almeida was forced to accept the fact of his dismissal. On his return to Portugal, when landing near the Cape of Good Hope, Almeida was killed in a skirmish with Africans. *See also* DIU, BATTLE OF.

ALVOR, AGREEMENT OF. The ill-fated Alvor Agreement was signed in Alvor, Algarve province, in January 1975. The purpose of the agreement was to facilitate the peaceful, lawful decolonization of Portugal's former colony of **Angola**. The conference that worked out and signed this instrument was hosted by Portugal's provisional government, and backed by the **Armed Forces Movement**, which had overthrown the dictatorship on 25 April 1974, and which had called for rapid decolonization of Portugal's African colonies after a truce in the colonial war. Decolonization negotiations proceeded fairly smoothly in the other African territories, but in Angola, rather than one African nationalist movement or party, three were struggling for power. They were the National Front for the Liberation of Angola (FNLA), led by Holden Roberto; the Popular Movement for the Liberation of Angola (MPLA), led by Agostinho Neto, who had trained as a physician in Portugal; and the National Union for the Total Independence of Angola (UNITA), led by Jonas Savimbi. By the Alvor Agreement, which was signed by four parties—Portugal, FNLA, MPLA, and UNITA—the decolonization process would be realized in several stages, ending in November 1975, following free elections with the three nationalist parties participating, Portugal overseeing the elections, and the new army of Angola comprised of elements of the three African parties' armies, which had fought Portuguese forces off and on since 1961. Portugal's government in Lisbon and its government and forces in Angola attempted, but failed, to put the Alvor Agreement into full effect. A civil war broke out

in the spring of 1975 in Angola among the three nationalist forces, eventually with the FNLA and UNITA entering an alliance against the MPLA. No all-Angola army was ever constituted, and a power struggle among the three armed movements ensued. The MPLA won control of the Luanda region. As the Portuguese forces and commissioner withdrew, Portugal did not hand over power to any one group. On 11 November 1975, with the Alvor Agreement a dead letter and no elections having been organized, the MPLA declared the independence of Angola and the civil war continued. Angola's independent beginnings were unique in African history: the colonial power suddenly withdrew without handing over power officially to a nationalist party, but "to the people of Angola," and Angola was born as a free state embroiled in a bloody civil war that lasted until 2002.

AMADO, LUIS (1953–). Portuguese economist, public servant, and politician. Amado received a degree in economics from the Technical University of Lisbon. He spent much of his life in the Madeira Islands and has been a representative in their Regional Assembly. He has been a consultant, and has held posts as advisor to the Portuguese National Defense Institute, Lisbon, and as visiting professor at Georgetown University. He became a prominent figure in the leadership of the Socialist Party (PS) and served in Madeira's regional government also as a Member of the Assembly of the Republic, **Lisbon**. Since the mid-1990s, he has held various posts in the national government, including secretary of state for foreign affairs and cooperation (1995–97), deputy secretary of state of internal administration (1997–99), secretary of state for foreign affairs (1999–2000), minister of defense (2005–06) and was named minister of foreign affairs since July 2006. He has received decorations from Spain, France, Belgium, Greece, Gabon, and Argentina.

ANGLO-PORTUGUESE ALLIANCE. The world's oldest diplomatic connection and alliance, an enduring arrangement between two very different nations and peoples, with important practical consequences in the domestic and foreign affairs of both **Great Britain** (England before 1707) and Portugal. The history of this remarkable alliance, which has had commercial and trade, political, foreign policy, cultural, and imperial aspects, can be outlined in part with a

list of the main alliance treaties after the first treaty of commerce and friendship signed between the monarchs of England and Portugal in 1373. This was followed in 1386 by the **Treaty of Windsor**; then in 1654, 1661, 1703, the **Methuen Treaty**; and in 1810 and 1899 another treaty also signed at Windsor.

Common interests in the defense of the nation and its overseas empire (in the case of Portugal, after 1415; in the case of England, after 1650) were partly based on characteristics and common enemies both countries shared. Even in the late Middle Ages, England and Portugal faced common enemies: large continental countries that threatened the interests and sovereignty of both, especially **France** and **Spain**. In this sense, the Anglo-Portuguese Alliance has always been a defensive alliance in which each ally would assist the other when necessary against its enemies. In the case of Portugal, that enemy invariably was Spain (or component states thereof, such as Castile and Leon) and sometimes France (i.e., when Napoleon's armies invaded and conquered Portugal as of late 1807). In the case of England, that foe was often France and sometimes Spain as well.

Beginning in the late 14th century, England and Portugal forged this unusual relationship, formalized with several treaties that came into direct use during a series of dynastic, imperial, naval, and commercial conflicts between 1373 and 1961, the historic period when the Anglo-Portuguese Alliance had its most practical political significance. The relative world power and importance of each ally has varied over the centuries. During the period 1373–1580, the allies were similar in respective ranking in European affairs, and during the period 1480–1550, if anything, Portugal was a greater world power with a more important navy than England. During 1580–1810, Portugal fell to the status of a third-rank European power and, during 1810–1914, England was perhaps the premier world power. During 1914–61, England's world position slipped while Portugal made a slow recovery but remained a third- or fourth-rank power.

The commercial elements of the alliance have always involved an exchange of goods between two seafaring, maritime peoples with different religions and political systems but complementary economies. The 1703 Methuen Treaty established a trade link that endured for centuries and bore greater advantages for England than for Portugal, although Portugal derived benefits: English woolens for Portuguese

wines, especially **port**, other agricultural produce, and fish. Since the signing of the Methuen Treaty, there has been a vigorous debate both in politics and in historical scholarship as to how much each nation benefited economically from the arrangement in which Portugal eventually became dependent upon England and the extent to which Portugal became a kind of economic colony of Britain during the period from 1703 to 1910.

There is a vast literature on the Alliance, much of it in Portuguese and by Portuguese writers, which is one expression of the development of modern Portuguese nationalism. During the most active phase of the alliance, from 1650 to 1945, there is no doubt but that the core of the mutual interests of the allies amounted to the proposition that Portugal's independence as a nation in Iberia and the integrity of its overseas empire, the third largest among the colonial powers as of 1914, were defended by England, who in turn benefited from the use by the Royal Navy of Portugal's home and colonial ports in times of war and peace. A curious impact on Portuguese and popular usage had also come about and endured through the impact of dealings with the English allies. The idiom in Portuguese, "é para inglês ver," means literally "it is for the Englishman to see," but figuratively it really means, "it is merely for show."

The practical defense side of the alliance was effectively dead by the end of World War II, but perhaps the most definitive indication of the end of the political significance of an alliance that still continues in other spheres occurred in December 1961, when the army of the Indian Union invaded Portugal's colonial enclaves in western India, Goa, Damão, and **Diu**. While both nations were now North Atlantic Treaty Organization allies, their interests clashed when it came to imperial and Commonwealth conflicts and policies. Portugal asked Britain for military assistance in the use of British bases against the army of Britain's largest former colony, India. But Portugal was, in effect, refused assistance by her oldest ally. If the alliance continues into the 21st century, its essence is historical, nostalgic, commercial, and cultural. *See also* CATHERINE OF BRAGANZA.

ANGOLA (AND ENCLAVE OF CABINDA). From 1575 to 1975, Angola was a colony of Portugal. Located in west-central Africa, this colony has been one of the largest, most strategically located,

and richest in mineral and agricultural resources in the continent. At first, Portugal's colonial impact was largely coastal, but after 1700 it became more active in the interior. By international treaties signed between 1885 and 1906, Angola's frontiers with what are now Zaire and Zambia were established. The colony's area was 1,246,700 square kilometers (481,000 square miles), Portugal's largest colonial territory after the independence of **Brazil**. In Portugal's third empire, Angola was the colony with the greatest potential.

The Atlantic slave trade had a massive impact on the history, society, economy, and demography of Angola. For centuries, Angola's population played a subordinate role in the economy of Portugal's Brazil-centered empire. Angola's population losses to the slave trade were among the highest in Africa, and its economy became, to a large extent, hostage to the Brazilian plantation-based economic system. Even after Brazil's independence in 1822, Brazilian economic interests and capitalists were influential in Angola; it was only after Brazil banned the slave trade in 1850 that the heavy slave traffic to former Portuguese America began to wind down. Although slavery in Angola was abolished, in theory, in the 1870s, it continued in various forms, and it was not until the early 1960s that its offspring, forced labor, was finally ended.

Portugal's economic exploitation of Angola went through different stages. During the era of the Atlantic slave trade (ca. 1575–1850), when many of Angola's slaves were shipped to Brazil, Angola's economy was subordinated to Brazil's and to Portugal's. Ambitious Lisbon-inspired projects followed when Portugal attempted to replace the illegal slave trade, long the principal income source for the government of Angola, with legitimate trade, mining, and agriculture. The main exports were dyes, copper, rubber, coffee, cotton, and sisal. In the 1940s and 1950s, petroleum emerged as an export with real potential. Due to the demand of the World War II belligerents for Angola's raw materials, the economy experienced an impetus, and soon other articles such as diamonds, iron ore, and manganese found new customers. Angola's economy, on an unprecedented scale, showed significant development, which was encouraged by Lisbon. Portugal's colonization schemes, sending white settlers to farm in Angola, began in earnest after 1945, although such plans had been nearly a century in the making. Angola's white population grew

from about 40,000 in 1940 to nearly 330,000 settlers in 1974, when the military coup occurred in Portugal.

In the early months of 1961, a war of African insurgency broke out in northern Angola. Portugal dispatched armed forces to suppress resistance, and the African insurgents were confined to areas on the borders of northern and eastern Angola at least until the 1966–67 period. The 13-year colonial war had a telling impact on both Angola and Portugal. When the **Armed Forces Movement** overthrew the **Estado Novo** on 25 April 1974, the war in Angola had reached a stalemate and the major African nationalist parties (MPLA, FNLA, and UNITA) had made only modest inroads in the northern fringes and in central and eastern Angola, while there was no armed activity in the main cities and towns.

After a truce was called between Portugal and the three African parties, negotiations began to organize the decolonization process. Despite difficult maneuvering among the parties, Portugal, the MPLA, FNLA, and UNITA signed the **Alvor Agreement** of January 1975, whereby Portugal would oversee a transition government, create an all-Angola army, and supervise national elections to be held in November 1975. With the outbreak of a bloody civil war among the three African parties and their armies, the Alvor Agreement could not be put into effect. Fighting raged between March and November 1975. Unable to prevent the civil war or to insist that free elections be held, Portugal's officials and armed forces withdrew on 11 November 1975. Rather than handing over power to one party, they transmitted sovereignty to the people of Angola. Angola's civil war continued into the 21st century. *See also* EMPIRE.

ANTUNES, ANTÓNIO LOBO (1942–). Noted Portuguese novelist and writer, chronicler of his people's various responses to the colonial African wars (1961–75) and to the Revolution of Carnations 1974–75. Born in Lisbon, the son of a physician, Lobo Antunes was trained as a doctor as well and became a practicing psychiatrist. During the so-called "African Wars," when Portugal under the **Estado Novo** fought to retain its African colonies, Lobo Antunes served four years in the Portuguese Army in **Angola**. One of the literary results of that formative experience was his noted novel, *South of Nowhere*, published first in Portugal and then published and acclaimed in an

English translation in 1983. Among his other novels also translated into English and published by major trade houses in the Anglophone world are *An Explanation of the Birds* (1991), *Fado Alexandrino* (1990), and *Act of the Damned* (1993). See also LITERATURE.

ARCHITECTURE. Portugal maintains an important architectural legacy from a long history of contact with invaders and other visitors who brought architectural ideas from Western Europe and North Africa. Among the migrants were Phoenicians, Greeks, Romans, Germanic peoples, and Arabs, as well as visitors from **France**, Italy, Holland, Germany, **Spain**, and **Great Britain**.

Architecture in Portugal has been influenced by the broad Western architectural styles, including Romanesque, Gothic, Renaissance, Baroque, and Neoclassicism. Two Portuguese architectural styles are unique, the **Manueline architectural style** and the Pombaline, named after the dictator the **Marquis of Pombal**. Pre-Romanesque styles include early Megalithic structures, Roman styles, and Moorish or Arab styles, when Portugal was occupied by Muslims (711–1290). This period of Moorish castles and mosques, most but not all of which were razed, was followed by the Romanesque period (1100–ca. 1230), when many churches, monasteries, castles, and palaces were constructed.

There followed the Gothic period (ca. 1200–1450), which was dominated by buildings for the Church, the monarchy, and the nobility. Related to Portugal's overseas **empire**, the kingdom's new role briefly as a world power, especially on the seas, and to the reign of **King Manuel I**, is the **Manueline architectural style**, described by scholars as "Atlantic Baroque" (ca. 1490–1520), a bold Portuguese version of late Gothic style. This was followed by styles of Renaissance and Mannerism (ca. 1520–1650), including the "Plain style," which was influenced by Castilian styles under **King Felipe I**.

Following the period 1580 to 1640, when Spain ruled Portugal, there was restoration architecture (1640–1717) and then the Baroque style (1717–55). The largest and most unusual building from this era, the **Mafra Palace**, is said to be even larger than Spain's El Escorial. Following the **Lisbon Earthquake** of 1755, was Pombaline style (1755–1860), a blend of late Baroque and Neoclassicism, which began when Pombal's government oversaw the reconstruction of large

sections of central Lisbon. Modern architecture followed this period, a style influenced in the 20th century by one of Europe's best architecture schools, the so-called *Escola do Porto* (School of **Oporto**). This school is the *Faculdade de Arquitectura* (School of Architecture), and alumni include celebrated architects Fernando Tavora; **Álvaro Siza Vieira**, designer of the Portuguese pavilion at **Expo '98**, Lisbon; and Eduardo Souto de Moura. Despite tragic losses of historic structures due to urban development, since the 1930s many Portuguese governments have sought to preserve and restore the remaining historic legacy of architecture. *See also* MANUELINE ARCHITECTURAL STYLE; MARQUIS OF POMBAL; VIEIRA, ÁLVARO SIZA.

ARMED FORCES. Although armed force has been a major factor in the development of the Portuguese nation-state, a standing army did not exist until after the **War of Restoration** (1641–48). During the 18th century, Portugal's small army was drawn into many European wars. In 1811, a combined Anglo–Portuguese army drove the French army of Napoleon out of the country. After Germany declared war on Portugal in March 1916, two Portuguese divisions were conscripted and sent to France, where they sustained heavy casualties at the Battle of Lys in April 1918. As Portugal and **Spain** were neutral in World War II, the Portuguese Army cooperated with the Spanish army to defend Iberian neutrality. In 1949, Portugal became a founding member of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO). When the nationalist quest for independence began in Portugal's colonies in Africa (**Angola**, **Mozambique**, and **Guinea-Bissau**) in the 1960s, the military effort (1961–74) to suppress the nationalists resulted in an expansion of the Portuguese armed forces to about 250,000.

Since the Revolution of 25 April 1974, the number of personnel on active duty in the army, navy, and air force has been greatly reduced (43,200 in 2007) and given a more direct role in NATO. New NATO commitments led to the organization of the *Brigada Mista Independente* (Independent Composite Brigade), later converted into the *Brigada Aero-Transportada*. (Air-Transported Brigade) to be used in the defense of Europe's southern flank. The Portuguese air force and navy are responsible for the defense of the Azores–Madeira–Portugal strategic triangle.

Chronic military intervention in Portuguese political life began in the 19th century. These interventions usually began with revolts of the military (*pronunciamentos*) in order to get rid of what were considered by the armed forces corrupt or incompetent civilian governments. The army overthrew the monarchy on the 5 October 1910 and established Portugal's First Republic. It overthrew the First Republic on 28 May 1926 and established a military dictatorship. The army returned to the barracks during the **Estado Novo** of **António de Oliveira Salazar**. The armed forces once again returned to politics when the **Armed Forces Movement (MFA)** overthrew the Estado Novo on 25 April 1974. After the Revolution of 25 April 1974, the armed forces again played a major role in Portuguese politics through the Council of the Revolution, which was composed of the president of the Republic, Chiefs of the general staff, three service chiefs, and 14 MFA officers. The Council of the Revolution advised the president on the selection of the prime minister and could veto legislation.

The subordination of the Portuguese armed forces to civilian authority began in 1982, when revisions to the Constitution abolished the Council of the Revolution and redefined the mission of the armed forces to that of safeguarding and defending the national territory. By the early 1990s, the political influence of Portugal armed force had waned and civilian control was reinforced with the National Defense Laws of 1991, which made the chief of the general staff of the armed forces directly responsible to the minister of defense, not the president of the republic, as had been the case previously. As the end of the Cold War had eliminated the threat of a Soviet invasion of western Europe, Portuguese armed forces continues to be scaled back and reorganized. Currently, the focus is on modernization to achieve high operational efficiency in certain areas such as air defense, naval patrols, and rapid-response capability in case of terrorist attack. Compulsory military service was ended in 2004. The Portuguese armed forces have been employed as United Nations peacekeepers in East Timor, Bosnia, Kosovo, Afghanistan, Iraq, and Lebanon.

ARMED FORCES MOVEMENT / MOVIMENTO DAS FORÇAS ARMADAS (MFA). The organization of career military who overthrew the **Estado Novo** in a virtually bloodless military coup or *pro-*

nunciamento generating the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**. This organization began as a clandestine group of junior career officers, largely from the army, but later including air force and navy officers, who had a series of secret meetings in Évora and other cities beginning in the summer and fall of 1973. The general grievances of these officers, who tended to be junior officers in their thirties and forties with the ranks of lieutenant, captain, and major, centered on the colonial wars in Portugal's African **Empire**. By 1973, these conflicts were more than a decade old, and in two of the wars, namely **Guinea-Bissau** and **Mozambique**, the Portuguese forces were taking heavy losses and losing ground. The catalyst for organizing a formal protest at first was not political but professional and corporate: a July 1973 law passed by the **Marcello Caetano** government that responded to a shortage of officer candidates in the African wars by lowering the professional qualifications for officer candidates for militia officers, something deeply resented by the career officers. The MFA organized the military coup of 1974 that met little resistance. *See also* CARVALHO, OTELO SARAIVA DE; CAPTAINS, MOVEMENT OF THE.

ART. Portugal did not produce an artist of sufficient ability to gain recognition outside the country until the 19th century. **Domingos António Segueira** (1768–1837) became well known in Europe for his allegorical religious and historical paintings in a neoclassical style. Portuguese painting during the 19th century emphasized naturalism and did not keep abreast of artistic innovations being made in other European countries. Portugal's best painters lived abroad especially in France. The most successful was **Amadeo Souza-Cardoso** who, while living in Paris, worked with the modernists Modigliani, Georges Braque, and Juan Gris. Souza-Cardoso introduced modernism into Portuguese painting in the early 20th century. A sustained modernist movement did not develop in Portugal, however. Naturalism remained the dominant school, and Portugal remained isolated from international artistic trends, owing to Portugal's conservative artistic climate, which prevented new forms of art from taking root, and the lack of support from an artistically sophisticated, art-buying elite supported by a system of galleries and foundations.

Interestingly, it was during the conservative **Estado Novo** that modernism began to take root in Portugal. As **Prime Minister**

António de Oliveira Salazar's secretary for national propaganda, **António Ferro**, a writer, journalist, and cultural leader who admired Mussolini, encouraged the government to allow modern artists to create the heroic imagery of the Estado Novo following the Italian model that linked fascism with futurism. The most important Portuguese artist of this period was **Almada Negreiros**, who did the murals on the walls of the legendary café A Brasileira in the Chiado district of **Lisbon**, the paintings at the Exposition of the Portuguese World (1940), and murals at the Lisbon docks. Other artists of note during this period included Mário Eloy (1900–51), who was trained in Germany and influenced by George Grosz and Otto Dix; Domingos Alvarez (1906–42); and António Pedro (1909–66).

During the 1950s, the Estado Novo ceased to encourage artists to collaborate, as Portuguese artists became more critical of the regime. The return to Portugal of António Pedro in 1947 led to the emergence of a school of geometric abstract painting in **Oporto** and the reawakening of surrealism. The art deco styles of the 1930s gave way to surrealism and abstract expression.

In the 1960s, links between Portugal's artistic community and the international art world strengthened. Conscription for the wars against the nationalist insurgencies in **Angola**, **Mozambique**, and **Guinea-Bissau** (1961–75) resulted in a massive exodus of Portugal's avant-garde artists to Europe to avoid military service. While abroad, artists such as Joaquin Rodrigo (1912–93), Paula Rego (1935–), João Cutileiro (1947–), and others forged links with British, French, Italian, and Spanish artistic communities.

The **Revolution of 25 April 1974** created a crisis for Portugal's artists. The market for works of art collapsed as left-wing governments, claiming that they had more important things to do (eliminate poverty, improve education), withdrew support for the arts. Artists declared their talents to be at the "service of the people," and a brief period of socialist realism prevailed. With the return of political stability and moderate governments during the 1980s, Portugal's commercial art scene revived, and a new period of creativity began. Disenchantment with the socialist realism (utopianism) of the Revolution and a deepening of individualism began to be expressed by Portuguese artists. Investment in the arts became a means of demonstrating one's wealth and social status, and an unprecedented number

of art galleries opened, art auctions were held, and a new generation of artists became internationally recognized. In 1984, a museum of modern art was built by the **Gulbenkian Foundation** adjacent to its offices on the Avenida de Berna in Lisbon. A national museum of modern art was finally built in Oporto in 1988.

In the 1980s, Portugal's new generation of painters blended post-conceptualism and subjectivism, as well as a tendency toward deconstructionism/reconstructionism, in their work. Artists such as Cabrita Reis (1956–), Pedro Calapez (1953–), José Pedro Croft (1957–), Rui Sanches (1955–), and José de Guimarães (1949–) gained international recognition during this period. Guimarães crosses African art themes with Western art; Sarmiento invokes images of film, culture, photography, American erotica, and pulp fiction toward sex, violence, and pleasure; Reis evolved from a painter to a maker of installation artist using chipboard, plaster, cloth, glass, and electrical and plumbing materials.

From the end of the 20th century and during the early years of the 21st century, Portugal's art scene has been in a state of crisis brought on by a declining art trade and a withdrawal of financial support by conservative governments. Although not as serious as the collapse of the 1970s, the current situation has divided the Portuguese artistic community between those, such as Cerveira Pito and Leonel Moura, who advocate a return to using primitive, strongly textured techniques and others such as João Paulo Feliciano (1963–), who paint constructivist works that poke fun at the relationship between art, money, society, and the creative process. Thus, at the beginning of the 21st century, the factors that have prevented Portuguese art from achieving and sustaining international recognition (the absence of a strong art market, depending too much on official state support, and the individualistic nature of Portuguese art production) are still to be overcome.

AZORES ISLANDS. Atlantic archipelago of nine islands: Terceira, São Miguel, Santa Maria, Corvo, Graciosa, São Jorge, Faial, Pico, and Flores. This autonomous region of Portugal is 9,365 square kilometers (5,821 square miles) in area. First settled in the 1420s by Portuguese and Flemish colonists, the economy of the archipelago passed through various phases. The Azores' main crops in four

phases were, in the 15th and 16th centuries, wheat and sugar; in the 17th century, woods; in the 18th and 19th centuries, oranges; and in the 20th century, cattle, dairy products, tobacco, and pineapples.

Their location some 1,448 kilometers (900 miles) west of Portugal and over 1,769 kilometers (1,100 miles) from the eastern coast of the United States, and on major sea and trade routes, influenced the islands' development. Major themes of their history are isolation, North American influence, neglect by Portugal, and emigration to North America. As of the 19th century, large numbers of Azoreans immigrated to the United States. By the last quarter of the 20th century, statistics suggested, more people of Azorean descent lived in North America than inhabited the still sparsely settled islands. Since World War I, when the U.S. Navy maintained a base at Ponta Delgada, São Miguel island, the Azores' society and economy have been influenced by foreign military base activity. In World War II (1943), British forces used an air base (Lajes) on Terceira island, under an agreement with Portugal, and thereafter the United States made a similar arrangement at Santa Maria. From 1951 on, the U.S. administered an air base at Lajes, Terceira, under North Atlantic Treaty Organization auspices. With that, American assistance and military base funds have played an important role in the archipelago's still largely unindustrialized economy.

Since the 1960s, several Azorean independence movements have emerged, as well as other groups that advocate that the islands become part of the United States. Such movements have been encouraged by the islands' isolation, a troubled economy, and the fact that Portugal has never made developing the islands a major priority. After the fall of the dictatorship in 1974, the democratic Portugal organized new efforts to assist the Azores and, in the 1976 **Constitution**, the Azores were declared an autonomous region of Portugal with greater rights of self-government and management. In the 1990s, emigration from the Azores to both the United States and Canada continued, although not at the pace of earlier periods. At the same time, hundreds of thousands of overseas Portuguese from the Azores Islands resided in the eastern United States, California, and Canada.

AZULEJO. Portuguese glazed tile(s) used to decorate gardens, walls, fountains, tables, chairs, and other household furniture. The word

comes from the Arabic word *azuleif* (“slippery” or “ornamental tile”). These tiles have a variety of glazed and painted decorations from geometric to anthropomorphic and are rectangular or square in shape. Influenced both by Arabic tiles and Dutch tiles (after 1600), the Portuguese *azulejo* changed its decorative motif over the centuries. While early tiles featured only geometric decoration patterns, in the 17th and 18th centuries the classic blue and white decorations that portray individuals, animals, or hunting scenes became typical. Since before the 16th century, *azulejos* have decorated the interior and exterior walls and furniture of Portuguese houses, palaces, villas, castles, chapels, and churches, as well as many public buildings. Next to mosaic sidewalks in towns and cities and gilt wood altars in churches, the *azulejo* art is the most typical Portuguese decor in all sections of the country. *See also* ARCHITECTURE.

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BACALHAU (CODFISH). Since the 15th century, codfish has been the favorite national dish of the Portuguese. Voyages of the navigator Corte-Real to Newfoundland, North America, late in that century, aroused the Portuguese interest in consuming codfish, particularly in its dried and salted form. For centuries thereafter, Portuguese cod fishing fleets visited the Newfoundland banks and returned with their precious catches. During periods when Portugal’s economic fortunes were low and when the necessary shipping was unavailable, the Portuguese arranged to have English fishermen obtain codfish. After 1835, an annual Portuguese codfish fleet visited Newfoundland again. Oddly enough, despite the traditional codfish fleet system, the national fleet usually acquired only 10–15 percent of the codfish required, and the remainder was supplied by **Great Britain**, Sweden, and Norway. Although the Portuguese codfish fleet off Newfoundland ceased operations in the 1970s, codfish remains as popular as ever, and much of the country’s annual supply comes from abroad.

The Portuguese love affair with *bacalhau* is at least 500 years old, and it gave rise to the traditional Portuguese description of this important part of their cuisine: “the faithful friend” (*o fiel amigo*). Long ago, the Portuguese learned how to salt and sun-dry the codfish they

had caught to preserve it. Before the age of refrigeration, the dried, salted codfish kept for months. Before being prepared for the table, the Portuguese soaked it for 24 hours in various changes of water. The soaking reconstitutes this fish and disposes of the excessive salt. Codfish dishes remain popular for many holiday and other celebrations, and it is said that there are 365 ways of cooking codfish, one for each day of the year. A popular, now traditional codfish dish is *bacalhau d bras*, which consists of thin strips of cod mixed with onions and thin strips of potato surrounded by eggs. An even more historic dish is *bacalhau a Gomes de Sá*, cooked in a casserole with thinly sliced potatoes, onions, and garnished with hardboiled eggs and black olives. The dish is named in honor of an **Oporto** codfish merchant, José Luís Gomes de Sá Junior, who developed the famous dish while working at a noted restaurant in his native Oporto.

BALSEMÃO, FRANCISCO (1937–). Lawyer, journalist, publisher, political leader, and media magnate. From a wealthy, well-connected family, Balsemão was educated as an attorney at the Law Faculty, University of Lisbon, like so many of his country's leaders in modern times. He began to practice law and write for newspapers in the early 1960s. In the 1969 general elections, he entered politics as a leader in the “liberal wing” of the regime's sole political party or movement, the *Acção Nacional Popular*, successor of the **União Nacional**. Soon discouraged by the failure of reform efforts, he resigned his seat in the National Assembly during the last years of **Marcello Caetano's** governance. In January 1973, he began publishing and editing a new newspaper, the independent **Lisbon** weekly *Expresso*, whose modern format, spirit, reform ideas, and muted criticism of the regime attracted much public interest.

As part of a new wave of more liberal urban opinion among the better-educated classes, Balsemão's influential weekly paper helped prepare public opinion for change and for “an opening” in a closed system while Portugal moved toward revolutionary times, 1974–75. *Expresso* took as its models contemporary French and British investigative journalism, adapted to Portugal, and the paper was instrumental in promoting the colonial war hero **General António Spínola** as a new leader who could solve the political impasse. The paper also featured excerpts from General Spínola's sensational book

on Portugal's future and the wars in Africa, published in February 1974. *Expresso* thus helped prepare Portuguese public opinion for the military's intervention in the coup that brought about the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**. Following 1974, Balsemão became a leader in the **Social Democratic Party (PSD)**. After the sudden death of the PSD leader, **Sá Carneiro**, in a mysterious air crash in 1980, Balsemão became PSD leader and served as prime minister from January 1981 to June 1983. In the 1990s, he helped finance and launch one of Portugal's first private television channels.

BANKING. Historically, banking in Portugal was in the hands of eight very large family-owned private banks (Banco Totta e Açores, Banco Nacional Ultramarino, Banco Pinto e Sotto Mayor, Banco Espírito Santo, Banco Português do Atlântico, Banco Borges e Irmão, Banco Fonecas e Burnay, and Banco Intercontinental Português), all regulated by the state-owned Banco de Portugal. After the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, private banks and private insurance companies were nationalized; that is, taken over by the state. Nationalization created structural problems for banks because they were required to extend credit at negative real interest rates to finance the budget deficits of nonprofitable public enterprises. They were also plagued by undercapitalization, overstaffing, and excessive branching.

The banking sector began to change during the 1980s, when, as a condition for joining the **European Economic Community (EEC)**, it was liberalized and internationalized. In 1984, a law was passed that allowed private banks and insurance companies to be organized. In the 1980s, six foreign banks (Manufacturers Hanover Trust, Chase Manhattan, Barclays, Banque Nationale de Paris, Citicorp, and Générale de Banque of Belgium) and four majority Portuguese banks (Banco de Comércio e Indústria, Banco Internacional de Crédito, Banco Português de Investimento, and Banco Comercial Português) began operating. In the 1990s, the banks nationalized after the Revolution of 25 April were reprivatized (beginning with Banco Totta e Açores followed by Banco Português do Atlântico) by selling shares in them to the public. This has allowed some of the dispossessed families, such as the Espírito Santos, to attempt to regain control of their banks by becoming majority shareholders in them. Despite the privatizations of the 1990s, the Portuguese state maintains tight

control over banking through the Banco de Portugal. The state continues to be a majority shareholder in the Caixa Geral de Depósitos, Portugal's largest savings bank, the Banco Nacional Ultramarino, Banco de Fomento e Exterior, and the Banco Borges e Irmão.

BARCELOS ROOSTER. The Barcelos rooster has long been a national symbol of Portugal and colorful, painted ceramic representations in many different sizes of this legendary, symbolic bird are among the most common souvenirs of Portugal. A 14th-century folk legend from Barcelos, north of **Braga**, embodies the notion that “Winning justice is possible when you fight for it,” as well as traditional values in rural life: pride, fate, justice, and prayed-for miracles. Like so many of the traditional folk legends of rural Portugal, this one centers on what happened to a rural farmer. One version of the legend begins with a peasant leaving Barcelos for a pilgrimage to the Spanish city of Santiago de Compostela. As he reached the outskirts of Barcelos, the peasant was accused of stealing silver from a wealthy Barcelos landowner. The peasant was tried, convicted, and sentenced to death by hanging. Before his execution, the peasant pleaded to speak to the judge who had condemned him. The judge was at a banquet and was about to eat a roasted rooster. The peasant prisoner said that during his execution the rooster would rise and crow as a sign of the man's innocence. As the peasant was about to be hanged, the rooster did rise and crow from the table and the judge ran to the gallows, stopped the execution, and freed the peasant. Some time later, the peasant returned to Barcelos and built a monument to honor St. Tiago and the Holy Virgin. While people do not necessarily believe in the miracle presented in the Barcelos rooster folk legend, the familiar story is as widely known as the Barcelos rooster, long a popular symbol of Portugal.

BARROS, JOÃO DE (1496–1570). Royal servant, humanist, and famed historical chronicler of Portugal's Asian empire of the 16th century. Following service in Portugal's Casa da Guiné and Casa da Mina, the well-educated humanist De Barros, who came from an educated family, composed his most noted, celebrated work, a historical chronicle, *Da Ásia*, of which he completed two volumes, divided into “decades.” His subject was the Portuguese discoveries

in India and other parts of Asia, and his perspective was that of an innovative early modern historian. Three of the “decades” were issued in his lifetime, and the fourth appeared posthumously in 1614, under the pen of **Diogo Do Couto**. This historical study of Portugal in Asia, however, does not exhaust the reach of this talented writer, who had diverse interests, including the subjects of learning to read and write the Portuguese **language**, philosophy and religious studies, commerce, and geography.

BATALHA, MONASTERY OF. A prime example of Portuguese Gothic architecture, Batalha Monastery was ordered built by **King João I** of Aviz in gratitude for his victory over the army of Castile at the battle of **Aljubarrota** (1385). Located at the town of Batalha, Leiria district, Batalha’s style was influenced by earlier constructions including **Alcobaça Monastery**, which is not far away. Begun in 1387–88, it was mostly completed by the middle of the 15th century, but there were later works on it as well. The so-called “Imperfect Chapels” remain unfinished to this day. This monastery-church includes the Royal Tomb in the Chapel of the Founder, the double tomb of **King João I** and **Queen Philippa of Lancaster**, the parents of **Prince Henry of Aviz** (Prince Henry the Navigator). Batalha is formally known as the “Monastery of Santa Maria of Victory” in Portugal, but in Britain the building is usually referred to as the Battle Abbey. Batalha also contains Portugal’s Tombs of the Unknown Soldiers, from World War I, where two soldiers—one killed in Europe and one killed in Africa—with unknown identities were buried. Members of the **armed forces** perpetually guard the site. *See also* ARCHITECTURE.

BEJA, CITY OF. District and city in former Alentejo province, with a population of about 20,000. Its Roman name was “Pax Julia,” and it is located about 136 kilometers (85 miles) southwest of **Lisbon**, in a wheat-growing section of the country. Beja is in the heart of the *latifúndio* region, the large landed estates of the south that in part were expropriated or nationalized by farm workers during the **Revolution of 25 April 1974** and in the subsequent agrarian reform movements. Beja’s industries feature olive oil, pottery, textiles, and leather. Since the 1970s, it has been the capital of the district. On New

Year's Day 1962, Beja was the scene of an attempted revolutionary action of oppositionist **Humberto Delgado's** followers, at the Infantry Regiment No. 3's barracks in Beja, an effort that collapsed and resulted in the arrest of Delgado's followers and the death by a stray bullet of the under secretary of state of the army, Lt. Col. Jaime Fonseca. Traditionally, Beja is an area with a relatively strong vote for the **Portuguese Communist Party (PCP)**. *See also* PROVINCES, PORTUGAL'S HISTORIC.

BELÉM, NATIONAL PALACE OF. Since 1911, Belém Palace in western Lisbon has been the official residence of the president of the republic. This 18th-century pink palace is a superb historical legacy in itself and represents an important part of the country's monumental patrimony. Ordered built by **King João V** in 1726, Belém Palace was altered during the course of the 19th century. Intricate interior decorations, **art**, and elaborate gardens enhance the palace's delicate image. Belém Palace was the preferred residence of **Queen Maria II** (r. 1834–53) as well as of **King Carlos I** and Queen Amélia (r. 1889–1908). The annex to Belém Palace, once the royal riding ring and stables, is currently the National Museum of Coaches. *See also* CASTLES, PORTUGUESE.

BELÉM, TOWER OF. Built during the country's early imperial age when Portugal was a world maritime power, the Tower of Belém (Torre do Belém) in **Lisbon** was constructed as a defense against maritime attack in the **Tagus River**. This historic stone tower, one of Portugal's most perfect **Manueline architectural style** monument-treasures, was begun in 1515 by order of **King Manuel I**. The first architect was the military architect Francisco Arruda, and the tower was built in the River Tagus.

With changes in tides, time, and the shoreline since, the tower today rests close to the Belém shoreline. The tower was built to accommodate a garrison, a prison, and artillery to ward off pirates and other raiders coming from the Atlantic up the Tagus River. Eclectic in architectural style, the tower's styles include Roman-Gothic and Manueline, with touches of Venetian and Moroccan influence. Located not far from the massive **Monastery of Jerónimos** convent, the tower is square and is surrounded by a polygonal bulwark, as well as by walls

facing the Tagus. Centuries after its use in defense had ceased, the tower in its restored state became a memorable symbol of Portugal's Age of Discoveries and expansion, as well as a much-photographed icon in **tourist** literature. *See also* CASTLES, PORTUGUESE.

BOMTEMPO, JOÃO DOMINGOS (1775–1842). Portuguese composer who began his musical studies under his father, Francisco Saveiro Bomtempo, the oboist in the royal court of King José I (1750–77). At the age of 14, he became a singer in the Royal Chapel of Bemposta and, after his father's death, took his place as court oboist at age 20. In 1801, he decided to go to France to continue his musical studies instead of Italy, which was the custom in his day. In Paris, he associated with a group of exiled Portuguese liberals from whom he absorbed liberal ideas and became a committed constitutional monarchist. During his time in Paris, he began his career as a virtuoso pianist and, inspired by Clementi, Cramer, and Dussek, wrote his first compositions: the *Grande Sonata para Piano*, *Primeiro Concerto em Mi bemol para Piano e Orquestra*, and the *Secundo Concerto para Piano*.

After Napoleon's armies were defeated by a combined Portuguese–British army commanded by General Arthur Wellesley (later the **Duke of Wellington**), Bomtempo's prospects in France deteriorated and he left for London in 1810, where he was well received and became a well-regarded professor of piano. During this period, he published many compositions, such as the *Terceiro Concerto para Piano*, and *Capricho e Variações Sobre "God Save the King."* Bomtempo became active in the Masons at this time. In 1813, to celebrate the final defeat of the French, Bomtempo composed a cantata titled *Hino Lusitano*, with verses by the liberal poet Vicente Pedro Nolasco da Cunha. He also composed the *Primeira Grande Sinfonia* and the *Quarto Concerto para Piano* during this period.

In 1815, Bomtempo returned to Portugal, where he founded a philharmonic society in order to fill a serious lacuna in the musical culture of Portugal. With the return of the royal court from Brazil and the increasing repression of Portuguese Masons, the situation in **Lisbon** became untenable for liberals. Bomtempo, who favored a constitutional monarch, returned to London, where he dedicated his work to the "Portuguese nation." He returned to Portugal in 1818,

where he composed his best-known work: *O Requiem: A Memória de Camões*. In 1820, he composed a second requiem in memory of General Gomes Freire, the grand master of Portuguese masonry, who was hanged in 1817. In 1822, his philharmonic society began periodic concerts, but these were forbidden by the absolutist **King Miguel I** (1802–66) in 1828, and Bomtempo took refuge in the Russian consulate in Lisbon, where he lived for five years until a constitutional monarchy was established by **King Pedro IV** (1798–1834) in 1834.

With the establishment of constitutionalism, Bomtempo returned to his artistic activities. In 1835, he composed the *Segunda Sinfonia e um Libera Me*, dedicated to the memory of King Pedro IV who, exhausted from his struggle against his brother during the “**War of the Brothers**,” died soon after returning to the throne. In 1836, Bomtempo was made music director of the Court Orchestra and professor of piano in the royal music school, where he introduced the musical pedagogy of Clementi. He continued to compose and direct until his death on 18 August 1842.

BOXER, CHARLES RALPH (1904–2000). Eminent British scholar, author, teacher, collector, soldier, and authority on the history of Portugal’s overseas **empire** (1415–1825). Trained as a professional soldier, not an academic, Boxer was educated at Sandhurst and served as a British army officer and Japanese language specialist in the Far East until 1947. Captured when the Japanese took Hong Kong early in World War II, he spent the remainder of the war in Japanese prison camps. After the war, he retired from his military career and began a long, distinguished academic career. In 1947, he was appointed Camoens Professor of Portuguese, King’s College, University of London. He also taught at London’s School of African and Oriental Studies and at Yale and Indiana Universities.

Numbering more than 300, his many publications on the Portuguese empire in Africa, Asia, and Brazil to 1825 dominated international scholarship on the subject during the last half of the 20th century. His masterful general historical synthesis of 1969, *The Portuguese Seaborne Empire, 1415–1825*, remains a classic. With his mastery of Far Eastern languages, as well as Dutch, Portuguese, French, Spanish, and German, Boxer was also an avid collector of rare coins, art objects, books, and manuscripts. His extraordinary private col-

lection remains preserved in the Lilly Library, Indiana University, Bloomington. Like his contemporary academic colleague, **Gilberto Freyre**, some of his writings had an impact beyond the academy and became politically controversial. Boxer's incisive 1963 book, *Race Relations in the Portuguese Colonial Empire (1415–1800)*, was not well-received by Portugal's dictatorship, then embroiled in colonial wars in Africa. Briefly, Boxer was ostracized in Lisbon. Following the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, however, many of Boxer's books were published in Portuguese in Portugal.

BRAGA, CITY OF. City and capital of Braga district in the Minho province, northwest Portugal. The population is about 60,000. As a city in Roman-ruled **Lusitania**, its name was “Bracara Augusta.” Historic sites include Roman ruins and a 12th-century cathedral. The city had an important traditional role in the **Catholic Church** and in medieval Christianity. More recently, Braga was noted as the place where **General Gomes da Costa**, on 28 May 1926, made his initial *pronunciamento* of military rebellion against the parliamentary First Republic, and where the “march on **Lisbon**” by rebel military units began.

BRAZIL. Former Portuguese colony (ca. 1500–1822), once described on old maps as “Portuguese America.” Until 1822, the colony of Brazil was Portugal's largest, richest, and most populous colonial territory, and it held the greatest number of overseas Portuguese. Indeed, until 1974, long after Brazil had ceased being a Portuguese colony, the largest number of overseas Portuguese continued to reside in Brazil.

Discovered in 1500 by **Pedro Álvares Cabral**, Brazil experienced significant coastal colonization by Portugal only after 1550. As Portugal's world power and colonial position in North Africa and Asia entered a decline, Brazil began to receive the lion's share of her imperial attention and soon dominated the empire. While Portuguese colonization and civilization had an essential impact on the complex making of Brazil, this fact must be put into perspective. In addition to other European (Italian, German, etc.) and Asian (Japanese) immigrants, two other civilizations or groups of civilizations helped to construct Brazil: the Amerindians who inhabited the land before 1500

and black Africans who were shipped to Brazil's coast as **slaves** during more than three centuries, mainly from west and central Africa. There is a long history of Portuguese military operations to defend Brazil against internal rebellions as well as other colonial intruders. The French, for example, attacked Brazil several times. But it was the Dutch who proved the greatest threat, when they held northeast Brazil from 1624 to 1654, until they were expelled by Portuguese and colonial forces.

Until the 17th century, Portuguese colonization was largely coastal. By the 18th century, Portuguese groups began to penetrate deep into the hinterland, including an area rich in minerals, the Minas Gerais ("General Mines"). Lisbon extracted the greatest wealth from Brazil during the "golden age" of mining of gold and diamonds from 1670 to 1750. But hefty profits for the king also came from Brazilian sugar, tobacco, cotton, woods, and coffee. By the time of Brazil's independence, declared in 1822, Portuguese America had become far more powerful and rich than the mother country. Only a few years before the break, Brazil had been declared a kingdom, in theory on a par with Portugal. A major factor behind the Brazilian independence movement was the impact of the residence of the Portuguese royal family and court in Brazil from 1808 to 1821.

What is the Portuguese legacy to Brazil after more than 300 years of colonization? Of the many facets that could be cited, perhaps three are worthy of mention here: the Portuguese language (Brazil is the only Latin American country that has Portuguese as the official language); Portuguese political and administrative customs; and a large community, mostly in coastal Brazil, of overseas Portuguese. *See also* FREYRE, GILBERTO; LUSO-TROPICALISM.

BUÇACO, BATTLE OF (1810). An important battle in what is known as the Peninsular Wars in European history and the Wars of Independence in Portuguese history. In the third invasion by French forces under Emperor Napoleon, Marshal Masséna entered Portugal from Spain in August 1810. The allied forces under the **Duke of Wellington** were comprised of British and Portuguese troops. Masséna marched from Guarda, and moved to attack across the hills of Buçaco to **Coimbra**. Wellington's forces blocked the way to Coimbra and **Lisbon** and held an advantageous position. Against the advice of his

council, Masséna decided to take the offensive. The battle of Buçaco commenced in the morning of 27 September 1810, and the French were defeated with considerable losses. The site of the battle in the woods and hills of Buçaco is marked by a commemorative obelisk, not far from the elegant Hotel-Palace of Buçaco, built originally for the last Braganza monarchs. *See also* GREAT BRITAIN.

BUÇACO, FOREST AND MOUNTAIN OF. On the boundary between Coimbra and Viseu districts, the Buçaco (former spelling: Bussaco or Busaco) forest and mountain (ca. 547 meters or 1,795 feet high), were the site of a famous Peninsular War victory of the **Duke of Wellington** over the French forces under Masséna on 27 September 1810. A monument remains to attest to this defeat of Napoleon. Not far from this spot is the Hotel-Palace of Buçaco, completed just before the monarchy was overthrown in the revolution of 5 October 1910. In Portuguese tradition, it is said that the royal family wished to build, in effect, the last royal palace of the dynasty, but could not afford the cost of such a construction and eventually converted the palace into a hotel open to the public. This magnificent palatial structure is now run as a hotel and combines various architectural styles, from Edwardian dining rooms and a billiards room to neo-Gothic, Arabic, and neo-Manueline rococo. Off the beaten track in the lovely Buçaco forest area, the Hotel-Palace remains a recent historic monument, and it is said that before it was completed, the last reigning Braganza, **King Manuel II** (1908–10), on more than one occasion met his French paramour there. *See also* BUÇACO, BATTLE OF.

BULL-FIGHTING. Until soccer (*futebol*) assumed that role in the 20th century, bull-fighting was perhaps Portugal's most popular national sport. Portugal's variation of this blood sport, which is also pursued in Spain and a number of Latin American countries (as well as occasionally the United States), differs from that found in neighboring Spain. The contemporary Portuguese bullfight emphasizes pageantry, spectacle, horsemanship, and bull-jumping during a typical "program" of six bulls.

The Portuguese participants wear 18th-century costumes, including plumed three-cornered hats, silk breeches, and buckled shoes and boots, and the bulls are not killed in the arena. In the early stages of

each “fight,” the bull is taunted and harassed by participants on foot or on horses. In the final stage of each bull’s appearance, the bull is challenged to charge by a group of seven men called *forcados*, who proceed to incite the bull to charge the first man in front of the lined-up row of six other men. The object is to jump on the bull’s head, hold the horns, and stop the bull’s forward progress. Even though the bull’s horns are cut and padded and horses wear padding, injuries to persons and horses do occur. In Portuguese tradition, it is said that the bull-jumping activity goes back to the ancient Phoenician or even Minoan customs of bull-jumping as a popular sport.

In recent years, bullfight audiences have decreased in number while soccer has increasingly drawn greater crowds. During the 18th century, when killing the bull was part of the Portuguese bullfight, during one series of incidents a number of aristocratic bullfighters died in the arena. In 1928, the government of the day banned killing the bull and made such an act against the law. *Matadores* who killed the bull in the fight then were fined. In 2007, the matador Pedro de Portugal was fined 137,000 euros for killing a bull in the ring as an act of protest against the ban.

The traditional bullfight season in Portugal runs from May into October each year. It was customary during the **Estado Novo** that after the bullfight the bulls, although not killed in the bullring, were slaughtered soon afterward and the meat donated to feed the poor. The supply of horses and bulls for this blood sport remains a business of some consequence in the Ribatejo district, north of the **Tagus River**, the “cowboy” and cattle section of central Portugal.

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CABRAL, PEDRO ÁLVARES (1467?–1520?). Portuguese nobleman whose fleet discovered **Brazil** for Portugal in 1500. Born in Belmonte, Portugal, Cabral was a *fidalgo* in the court of **King João II**, and he married a niece of the conquistador **Afonso de Albuquerque**. Except for his nobility, it is not known why **King Manuel I** selected Cabral to command a fleet to voyage to **Portuguese India** to follow up **Vasco da Gama**’s pioneering journey. Cabral’s fleet contained 13 ships and as many as 1,500 crew members, and departed

the **Tagus River** on 9 March 1500. The fleet's pilots and mariners executed the voyage skillfully, with the intention of reaching India directly, but winds and currents carried them farther west than was intended and, on 22 April 1500, they sighted land and later named the country the land of "Vera Cruz" (the True Cross), followed by "Santa Cruz" (Holy Cross), and finally "Brazil," after the wood that was the country's first main product. Cabral landed and claimed the land for Portugal. Much of the detail of this discovery is described in a celebrated account of Pedro Vaz da Caminha. Cabral's fleet continued to Calicut, India, where the Portuguese began to carve out a commercial **empire** by means of war, alliance, and **trade**. He returned to Portugal, his ships laden with Asian wealth. Cabral refused to accept the command of another India fleet in 1502 and apparently did not venture to sea again. His tomb is in the Church of Graça, Santarém.

CAÇIQUE/CAÇIQUISMO. Portuguese (and Spanish or Castilian) words for local, regional political boss and the practice and system of local, regional bossism in Portugal and Spain, beginning in the 19th century. The word *caçique* is derived from the corruption of an Amerindian word in the Caribbean and South America for "chief" or "lord" in the 16th and 17th centuries. In Portugal and Spain, under the constitutional monarchy and later, the local or regional political boss, or *caçique*, was the central government's informal representative or local authority, who may or may not have held office in the formal administrative system of municipalities, parishes, counties, districts, and provinces. **Political parties** in the capitals (**Lisbon** and Madrid) exercised their influence in the provinces through local figures of importance, such as the mayor of the Câmara Municipal (City Hall), alderman, clerk, or judge, who, come election time, would manage and/or rig elections at the municipal or other levels.

The political party based in the capital would depend on the *caçique* to ensure electoral victory in his area or hometown. To get the requisite votes, the local political boss, then, would have a quid pro quo for the voter: in return for a vote for the indicated party, the *caçique* would reward the voter (or *eleitor*, in the Portuguese language) with incentives such as payment in money, a tax break, a job for the voter or a relative, or, in some instances, an excuse from the obligation of serving in the **armed forces** for a draftee. The systematic use

of local bosses in the institution of bossism as described here endured from the last half of the 19th century to the 1920s, under the First Republic, and into the **Estado Novo** in Portugal, and in the case of Spain, into the Primo de Rivera regime (1923–30).

CAETANO, MARCELLO JOSÉ DAS NEVES ALVES (1906–1980). Marcello Caetano, as the last prime minister of the **Estado Novo**, was both the heir and successor of **António de Oliveira Salazar**. In a sense, Caetano was one of the founders and sustainers of this unusual regime and, at various crucial stages of its long life, Caetano's contribution was as important as Salazar's.

Born in **Lisbon** in 1906 to a middle-class family, Caetano was a member of the student generation that rebelled against the unstable parliamentary First Republic and sought answers to Portugal's legion of troubles in conservative ideologies such as integralism, **Catholic** reformism, and the Italian Fascist model. One of the most brilliant students at the University of Lisbon's Law School, Caetano soon became directly involved in government service in various ministries, including Salazar's Ministry of Finance. When Caetano was not teaching full-time at the law school in Lisbon and influencing new generations of students who became critical of the regime he helped construct, Caetano was in important government posts and working on challenging assignments. In the 1930s, he participated in reforms in the Ministry of Finance, in the writing of the 1933 Constitution, in the formation of the new civil code, of which he was in part the author, and in the construction of **corporativism**, which sought to control labor-management relations and other aspects of social engineering. In a regime largely directed by academics from the law faculties of **Coimbra University** and the University of Lisbon, Caetano was the leading expert on constitutional law, administrative law, political science, and colonial law. A prolific writer as both a political scientist and historian, Caetano was the author of the standard political science, administrative law, and history of law textbooks, works that remained in print and in use among students long after his exile and death.

After his apprenticeship service in a number of ministries, Caetano rose steadily in the system. At age 38, he was named minister for the colonies (1944–47), and unlike many predecessors, he "went to

see for himself” and made important research visits to Portugal’s African territories. In 1955–58, Caetano served in the number-three position in the regime in the Ministry of the Presidency of the Council (premier’s office); he left office for full-time academic work in part because of his disagreements with Salazar and others on regime policy and failures to reform at the desired pace. In 1956 and 1957, Caetano briefly served as interim minister of communications and of foreign affairs.

Caetano’s opportunity to take Salazar’s place and to challenge even more conservative forces in the system came in the 1960s. Portugal’s most prominent law professor had a public falling out with the regime in March 1962, when he resigned as rector of Lisbon University following a clash between rebellious students and the **PIDE**, the political police. When students opposing the regime organized strikes on the University of Lisbon campus, Caetano resigned his rectorship after the police invaded the campus and beat and arrested some students, without asking permission to enter university premises from university authorities.

When Salazar became incapacitated in September 1968, President **Américo Tomás** named Caetano prime minister. His tasks were formidable: in the midst of remarkable economic growth in Portugal, continued heavy immigration of Portuguese to **France** and other countries, and the costly colonial wars in three African colonies, namely **Angola**, **Guinea-Bissau**, and **Mozambique**, the regime struggled to engineer essential social and political reforms, win the wars in Africa, and move toward meaningful political reforms. Caetano supported moderately important reforms in his first two years in office (1968–70), as well as the drafting of constitutional revisions in 1971 that allowed a slight liberalization of the Dictatorship, gave the opposition more room for activity, and decentralized authority in the overseas provinces (colonies). Always aware of the complexity of Portugal’s colonial problems and of the ongoing wars, Caetano made several visits to Africa as premier, and he sought to implement reforms in social and economic affairs while maintaining the expensive, divisive military effort, Portugal’s largest **armed forces** mobilization in her history.

Opposed by intransigent right-wing forces in various sectors in both Portugal and Africa, Caetano’s modest “opening” of 1968–70

soon narrowed. Conservative forces in the military, police, civil service, and private sectors opposed key political reforms, including greater democratization, while pursuing the military solution to the African crisis and personal wealth. A significant perspective on Caetano's failed program of reforms, which could not prevent the advent of a creeping revolution in society, is a key development in the 1961–74 era of colonial wars: despite Lisbon's efforts, the greater part of Portuguese emigration and capital investment during this period were directed not to the African colonies but to Europe, North America, and Brazil.

Prime Minister Caetano, discouraged by events and by opposition to his reforms from the so-called "Rheumatic Brigade" of superannuated regime loyalists, attempted to resign his office, but President Américo Tomás convinced him to remain. The publication and public reception of African hero **General António Spínola's** best-selling book *Portugal e Futuro* (Portugal and the Future) in February 1974 convinced the surprised Caetano that a coup and revolution were imminent. When the virtually bloodless, smoothly operating military coup was successful in what became known as the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, Caetano surrendered to the **Armed Forces Movement** in Lisbon and was flown to **Madeira Island** and later to exile in **Brazil**, where he remained for the rest of his life. In his Brazilian exile, Caetano was active writing important memoirs and histories of the Estado Novo from his vantage point, teaching law at a private university in Rio de Janeiro, and carrying on a lively correspondence with persons in Portugal. He died at age 74, in 1980, in Brazil. *See also* EMPIRE, PORTUGUESE OVERSEAS.

CAMACHO, MANUEL BRITO (1862–1934). A leading political figure of the First Republic, leader–founder of a principal pre-1919 party and high commissioner of Portuguese East Africa in the 1920s. Brito Camacho was trained as a medical doctor, but became noteworthy first as the editor of a fighting republican newspaper, *A Luta* (The Struggle), which played a role in the republican propaganda era in the years before the 5 October 1910 republican revolution. Camacho became one of the principal republican leaders during 1906–12 and, when he dissented from the radical line of the Portuguese Republican

Party (PRP), he split from that party and formed his own Republican Union (UR) party, which lasted from 1912 to 1918.

A major policy issue for Camacho and his UR followers was opposition to Portugal's active intervention in World War I on the Allied side. When Portugal did enter the war in March 1916, Camacho lent his political influence through his newspaper and his following to opposition to the PRP's policy of war intervention. Camacho played an important role in the preparation of political and military support for **Sidónio Pais's** December 1917 coup, which succeeded in overthrowing the PRP and ousting **Afonso Costa**. After the assassination of Sidónio Pais and the brief civil war of early 1919, Brito Camacho withdrew from domestic politics and sought rest and escape abroad. In a brief but important period (1921–23), Camacho served as the republic's high commissioner in **Mozambique**. He spent much of the remainder of his life in research and writing. *See also* POLITICAL PARTIES.

CAMÕES, LUÍS DE (1525?–1579 or 1580). Portugal's national epic poet of the Age of Discoveries and author of the most celebrated piece of national **literature**, Luís de Camões's lifespan marked both the high tide and ebbing of Portuguese imperial power. Educated at the **University of Coimbra**, Camões for much of his life, most of which remains largely unknown, was an adventurer overseas. He served as a soldier in Morocco, as Portugal began to lose its hold on parts of Morocco, and was later imprisoned. After his release, he shipped out to Portuguese India, to Goa, where he served the king. He lived in **Portuguese India**, **Macau**, and **Mozambique**, and his Eastern years left a permanent mark on his mind and soul. Upon his return to Portugal, he continued writing as a poet, and in 1572, his most famous work, better known and more quoted than any other piece of the nation's literature, *Os Lusíadas* (The Lusíads), was published in **Lisbon**. Whatever the reception of his epic poem, the story of the great **Vasco da Gama's** voyage to India (1497–99) within the context of the history of Portugal, Camões cannot have gained a great deal from its publication. It is said that he fell into poverty, that a servant or friend of his was forced to beg for food for Camões, and that he died in misery. In Portuguese tradition, it is also recounted that

before he died he was informed of the disastrous **battle of Alcácer-Quivir** in 1578 and the resulting loss of the king, his army, and any defenses remaining to Portugal. Camões, the story goes, exclaimed, "I die with the Fatherland!"

CAPE VERDE ISLANDS, ARCHIPELAGO OF THE. Consisting of 10 main islands (Santiago, Maio, Boa Vista, Sal, Fogo, São Vicente, São Nicolau, Brava, Santo Antão, and Santa Luzia), the archipelago was sighted first by a Venetian navigator in Portuguese service, Alvise de Cá da Mosto, in the late 1450s. The islands' area is about 4,030 square kilometers (1,557 square miles). **Prince Henry the Navigator** gave the task of colonizing the islands to the Genovese António da Noli. Actual settlement began only in 1463, under **King Afonso V.** Captain-Donataries were granted charters to colonize and, in 1550, the city of Praia was established on the island of Santiago and became a principal center of activity. **Slaves** from West Africa were brought to work the islands' plantations, and millet and coconut trees were introduced as staple foods. Following attacks on the islands by French pirates, Portugal created the post of governor of Cape Verde in 1592. Until the middle of the 18th century and the reign of King José I, these islands were governed by the private captaincies. Thereafter, they were ruled directly by the king's representatives.

Due to their geography, topography, and climate, the Cape Verde Islands lack good soil for agriculture or minerals and frequently suffer long, periodic droughts. The result of this, and until recently sparse Portuguese investment, has been that the islands have one of the poorest economies in the world. Emigration to work abroad has often been the only alternative for survival. As a result, large overseas communities of Cape Verdeans reside and work in the United States (especially in the eastern states of Rhode Island and Massachusetts) and in Portugal. In July 1975, Portugal granted independence to the Cape Verde Islands, now a republic. *See also* EMPIRE, PORTUGUESE OVERSEAS.

CAPTAINS, MOVEMENT OF THE. An informal name for the **Armed Forces Movement (MFA)**, the organization of career military officers that organized the overthrow of the **Estado Novo** in the

Revolution of 25 April 1974. A significant portion of the army officers of the MFA were captains who had fought in Portugal's African colonial wars in the 1960s and 1970s. Some historians noted parallels between the Captains' Movement of 1973–74 and the movement of "Young Lieutenants" of 28 May 1926, which bloodlessly overthrew the first parliamentary republic (1910–26). *See also* CARVALHO, OTELO SARAIVA DE; TWENTY-EIGHTH OF MAY.

CARLOS I, KING (1863–1908). The second to last reigning king of Portugal and second to last of the Braganza dynasty to rule. Born in 1863, the son of **King Luís I**, Carlos was well-educated and became an accomplished sailor, as well as an artist of maritime scenes in oil paintings. A selection of his paintings remains on display in various museums and halls. His reign began in 1889, when his father died, and was immediately marked by controversy and conflict. In January 1890, the monarchy was weakened and Carlos's authority placed in question in the crisis of the "**English Ultimatum**" (*see also* ULTIMATUM, ENGLISH) Portugal's oldest ally, **Great Britain**, threatened an end to the 517-year-old alliance, and hostilities arose over the question of territorial expansion in the "Scramble for Africa." Although Carlos was a talented diplomat who managed to repair the damaged Anglo–Portuguese Alliance and to promote other foreign policy initiatives, his reign was marked by the failure of monarchist politics, the weakening monarchy, and rising republicanism. As monarchist politics became more unstable and corrupt, the republic opposition grew stronger and more violent. Carlos's appointment of the dictatorial João Franco government in 1907 and Franco's measures of January 1908 repressing the opposition were, in effect, the king's death warrant. While returning from a royal trip to the Alentejo on 1 February, 1908, King Carlos and his heir apparent, Prince Luís, were shot in their open carriage in Lisbon by *carbonaria* (anarchist republicans). Although their two murderers were killed by guards on the spot, the official investigation of their murders was never completed.

CARLOTA JOAQUINA, QUEEN (1775–1830). Daughter of King Carlos IV of **Spain**, born in Aranjuez, Spain, and married at the tender age of 10 to João, son and heir of **Queen Maria I**. When Dom José, the eldest son of Queen Maria I died in 1788, Carlota Joaquina,

who had become an unpopular Spaniard living in alien Portugal, was named princess–heiress. Always in conflict with her well-meaning but indecisive husband, João, Carlota became the leader of an extreme reactionary court party and was frequently in conflict with her more malleable husband. When the royal family fled to **Brazil** in 1808 to escape the French army of invasion, she accompanied them and remained in Brazil until she returned to Portugal with her husband in 1821.

From that time on, Carlota Joaquina was never far from the center of political conflicts and controversy, as the Portuguese political system was caught in the grip of a violent struggle between the forces of constitutionalism and absolutism. After returning from Brazil, she refused to swear allegiance to the new **constitution** presented to her husband, **King João VI**, and was placed under house arrest. She was a power behind the throne of her son, **Miguel**, as he proclaimed himself an absolutist king, threw out the constitution, and prepared to rule the country in 1828. Before the civil war called “**The War of the Brothers**” (Miguel vs. Pedro, both her sons) was concluded with Pedro’s military victory in 1834, Carlota Joaquina died and thus did not have to witness Miguel’s defeat and permanent exile.

CARMONA, ANTÓNIO OSCAR DE FRAGOSO (1869–1951). Career army officer, one of the founders of the **Estado Novo** (1926–74), and the longest-serving president of the republic of that regime (1926–51). Born in **Lisbon** in 1869, the son of a career cavalry officer, Oscar Carmona entered the army in 1888 and became a lieutenant in 1894, in the same cavalry regiment in which his father had served. He rose rapidly, and became a general during the turbulent First Republic, briefly served as minister of war in 1923, and achieved public notoriety as prosecutor for the military in one of the famous trials of military personnel in an abortive 1925 coup. General Carmona was one of the key supporters of the 28 May 1926 military coup that overthrew the unstable republic and established the initially unstable military dictatorship (1926–33), which was the political system that founded the Estado Novo (1933–74).

Carmona took power as president upon the ousting of the Twenty-eighth of May coup leader, **General Gomes da Costa**, and guided the military dictatorship through political and economic uncertainty until the regime settled upon empowering **António de Oliveira Sala-**

zar with extraordinary fiscal authority as minister of finance (April 1928). Elected in a managed election based on limited male suffrage in 1928, President Carmona served as the Dictatorship's president of the republic until his death in office in 1951 at age 81. In political creed a moderate republican not a monarchist, General (and later Marshal) Carmona played an essential role in the Dictatorship, which involved a division of labor between Dr. Salazar, who, as prime minister since July 1932 was responsible for the daily management of the government, and Carmona, who was responsible for managing civil–military relations in the system, maintaining smooth relations with Dr. Salazar, and keeping the **armed forces** officer corps in line and out of political intervention.

Carmona's amiable personality and reputation for personal honesty, correctness, and hard work combined well with a friendly relationship with the civilian dictator Salazar. Especially in the period 1928–44, in his more vigorous years in the position, Carmona's role was vital in both the political and ceremonial aspects of his job. Carmona's ability to balance the relationship with Salazar and the pressures and demands from a sometimes unhappy army officer corps that, following the civilianization of the regime in the early 1930s, could threaten military intervention in politics and government, was central to the operation of the regime.

After 1944, however, Carmona was less effective in this role. His tiring ceremonial visits around Portugal, to the Atlantic Islands, and to the overseas empire became less frequent; younger generations of officers grew alienated from the regime; and Carmona suffered from the mental and physical ailments of old age. In the meantime, Salazar assumed the lion's share of political power and authority, all the while placing his own appointees in office. This, along with the regime's political police (PVDE or **PIDE**), **Republican National Guard**, and civil service, as well as a circle of political institutions that monopolized public office, privilege, and decision making, made Carmona's role as mediator–intermediary between the career military and the largely civilian-managed system significantly less important. Increasingly feeble and less aware of events around him, Carmona died in office in April 1951 and was replaced by Salazar's chosen appointee, General (and later Marshal) Francisco Craveiro Lopes, who was elected president of the republic in a regime-managed election.

CARREIRA DA ÍNDIA. The roundtrip Portugal–India–Portugal voyage during the 16th, 17th, and 18th centuries, in the age of sail. Undoubtedly the longest and most arduous of all such sea voyages by sail during the age of European expansion, the Carreira da Índia, including a stay in Goa, **Portuguese India**, lasted about a year and a half; its scheduling was conditioned by tropical winds, including the Indian Ocean monsoon. The first Carreira da Índia, in effect, was **Vasco da Gama**’s pioneering voyage of 1497–99. Subsequent annual India fleet voyages lasted until the age of steam in the 19th century and were even longer than the similar Spanish voyage, *Carreira de Filipinas*, the annual voyage of the Manila galleon across the Pacific to Mexico (1565–1815).

The Carreira da Índia, which began with the voyage from Portugal to the Cape of Good Hope, South Africa, and on to western India (Goa), some six or seven months on the way out, with a return voyage of a similar length, covered 9,000–10,000 miles one way and was subject to complex tides, winds, and other weather conditions resulting in numerous shipwrecks. The timing of the India fleet’s departure from Portugal was based on the timing of the southwest monsoon, which begins in western India in early June. India-bound fleets left **Lisbon**, therefore, in time to round the Cape of Good Hope in July, in order to reach Goa by September. The ships on these trade-oriented voyages were usually carracks or galleons of increasingly greater tonnage. Outward-bound fleets included from seven to 14 ships, while homeward-bound fleets often had only half that number. Built often of Indian teak or European pine or oak, the India fleet’s ships carried several thousand persons on board. As this seaborne **empire** aged, however, recruiting skilled, experienced crews of sufficient size was increasingly a problem. There is a significant early modern literature in Portuguese that treats the subject of India fleet shipwrecks and related tragedies.

CARVALHO, JOÃO DE SOUSA (1745–1799). The foremost composer of opera of his generation. He studied at the Colégio dos Santos Reis in Vila Viçosa and at the Conservatorio di S Onofrio in Naples. While in Italy, his *La Nitteti* was performed in Rome in 1766. He returned to Portugal in 1767, where he joined the Irmandade de Santa Cecília at the Seminário da Patriarca and served as maestro from

1769 to 1773, and as maestro de capela from 1773 to 1798. He became the music teacher for the royal family in 1778. His many works, which include *L'Amore industrioso* (1769), *Penelope Nella partenza da Sparta* (1782), *Nettuno ed Egle* (1785), and several Masses, were written in the style of Niccolo Jommelli. *See also* MUSIC.

CARVALHO, OTELO SARAIVA DE (1934–). Army major who planned and managed the military operational aspects of the military coup that overthrew the **Estado Novo**. A career army officer who entered his profession in the 1950s, he held important positions in several of the colonial wars in Portugal's African territories during 1961–74. Saraiva de Carvalho was born in **Mozambique** in 1934, and made it his life's ambition to become a stage actor. In his career, he was influenced by service with Portugal's most senior army officer, **General António de Spínola**, who served the Estado Novo both as commissioner and commanding general of **armed forces** in the colony of **Guinea-Bissau**. Contact with African nationalist elements, as well as familiarity with increasingly available Marxist-Leninist literature both in Africa and in Portugal, transformed Saraiva de Carvalho into a maverick and revolutionary who sought to overthrow the Portuguese dictatorship at home by means of military intervention in politics through the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**.

Known as "Oteló" (Othello) in the media and to much of the Portuguese public, Saraiva de Carvalho played a significant role in the period of 25 April 1974–25 November 1975, when the country experienced a leftist revolution and a trend toward a dictatorship of the Left. Eventually the head of COPCON, the **Armed Forces Movement's** special unit for enforcing "law and order" and for ensuring that the government was not overthrown by military insurrectionism, Saraiva de Carvalho became a political personality in his own right. This somberly handsome figure became the darling of the radical Left, including anarchist factions.

With the swing of the political pendulum away from the radical Left after the abortive leftist coup of 25 November 1975, Carvalho's military career was ended and his role in politics shifted. He was dismissed from the COPCON command, arrested, and held in prison for a period. After his release, he entered the political wilderness, unhappy that the unorthodox Marxist-Leninist revolution he envisioned

for Portugal, was not happening. Still carrying the torch for the notion of a “Socialist paradise” in which the state would play only a small role, the hero of the **Revolution of 25 April 1974** reentered politics and ran for president of the republic on two occasions. In 1976, he received a respectable 16 percent of the vote, but in the 1981 elections his vote was negligible. Accused of involvement in several terrorist factions’ conspiracies and violence, Carvalho was arrested and imprisoned. After a long and sensational trial, “Otelo” was released and acquitted. Of all the memoirs of the 1974 Revolution, *Alvorada em Abril* (Reveille in April), his contribution, was the most charming and revealing. *See also* CAPTAINS, MOVEMENT OF THE.

CASTELO BRANCO, CAMILO (1825–1890). A giant of 19th-century Portuguese **literature**, member of second romantic generation, and early realist writer. After a brief engagement with medical school, he drifted into an adventurous, turbulent life of journalism, cafés, and love affairs. Arrested for adultery and involved in mysticism and study at a Catholic seminary, he became committed to making a difficult living from journalism and books. The novels and stories of Camilo take place primarily in specific geographical settings in provincial Portugal, especially in the province of Tras-os-Montes and between the **Douro** and Minho Rivers. The social classes portrayed are mainly provincials, decadent aristocrats, peasants, and **Oporto** bourgeoisie. Repeated themes are orphanhood, the prevalence of feelings of the heart over restrained conventions and family interests, kidnapping, and crimes of love and passion. His first novel was published in 1851, after he had spent months in prison for adultery. Among his more notable and numerous works are *Memórias do Cárcere* (1861, Jailhouse Memories) and his widely famous *Amor de Perdição* (1863), a work revived in other fiction, in film, and on stage. Among his talents as a prolific if uneven novelist are his strong power of narrative, accurate renderings of provincial speech and language, and a vast vocabulary. At the end of his life, Camilo Castelo Branco suffered terribly from increasing blindness. In 1890, he committed suicide with a revolver.

CASTLES, PORTUGUESE. “Castles in Spain,” still a common phrase in English, can conjure up romantic images of scenery in neighboring Spain. Although less well known, “Castles in Portugal” are also

quite numerous and equally remarkable, romantic, and scenic. Virtually all have been fully restored since the 1930s, when preparations began for the 1940 Double Centenary celebrations. Major Portuguese castles are listed below and several of them have individual entries in this dictionary (noted in boldface type). This is by no means an exhaustive list.

Lisbon Region

São Jorge Castle

Palmella Castle*

Belém Tower

Moorish Castle, Sintra

Pena Palace, Sintra

Tagus River Valley

Castle of Torres Novas/Castle of São Filipe (Setúbal)*

Castle of Almourol

Central/Southern Portugal

Castle of Abrantes

Castle of Belver

Castle of Silves (Algarve)

Castle of Torres Vedras

Castle of Marvão

Castle of Óbidos

Castle of Vide

Castle of Peniche

Castle of Alter do Chão

Castle of Ourém

Castles of Elvas

Castles of Tomar

Castle of Estremoz*

Castle of Pombal

Castle of Salir

Castle of Montemor-o-Velho

Castle of Beja

Castle of Mértola

Castle of Bode*

Northern Portugal

Castle of Louzã

Castle of Guimarães

Castle of Feira

Castle of Lanhoso

Castle of S. João da Foz

Castle of Montalegre

Castle of Chaves

Castle of Valença

Castle of Monção

Castle of Bragança

Castle of Penedono

Castle of Celório da Beira

Castle of Belmonte

Castle of Sabugal

*Indicates castle is now a *pousada* (state inn) where visitors can stay.

CASTRO, INÊS DE (?–1355). Born in Galicia, Inês de Castro came from an important Castilian family; she went to Portugal in the retinue of the Castilian princess Constança, who married **Pedro I**, when he was a prince. Inês and Pedro fell in love, had one or two children, and continued their relationship despite the existence of the approved royal marriage to Constança. This contributed to the premature death of Constança and introduced once again the fear of Castilian intervention in Portugal into royal court politics. Pedro's father, King Afonso IV, feared that Inês's Castilian family might meddle in succession politics and threaten the future accession of Pedro and Constança's legitimate son, Fernando, to the Portuguese throne. Taking advice from leading counselors, King Afonso had Inês murdered in 1355. For a while, Pedro rebelled against his father's action, but later a truce was declared.

Historians debate what happened next, but in the following century, after Pedro's death, a legend grew in Spain that became the basis for the romantic story of Pedro and the corpse of Inês. The legend was adopted in various novels, operas, songs, poetry, and folklore, and was noteworthy in the literature of France, Portugal, and other countries. It was said that Pedro tracked down and killed all who had been involved in Inês's murder, then disinterred her corpse, put it on the throne, and ceremonially acclaimed it queen of Portugal.

CATHERINE OF BRAGANZA, QUEEN OF ENGLAND (1638–1706). The daughter of **King João IV** and Queen Luisa de Gusmão and born at Vila Viçosa. In 1659, Catherine was a prospective bride of King Louis XIV of France, the "Sun King," but the marriage negotiations failed. In 1661, marriage negotiations began in London under the auspices of Portugal's ambassador, **Dom Francisco de Melo**, and it was arranged that Catherine would marry King Charles II of England. The marriage arrangements were confirmed in the famous Anglo-Portuguese Treaty of 23 June 1661, one of the keystones of the ancient **Anglo-Portuguese Alliance**, and Catherine's dowry was established. As a result, England received from Portugal some two million cruzados (about £350,000 in English money at the time) and the cession of Tangier, Morocco, and Bombay, India.

In May 1662, Catherine arrived in **England** at Portsmouth harbor and began a residence of some 30 years. While Catherine contributed a mighty dowry and introduced the custom of tea-drinking to her husband's country, she failed to adjust either to the climate or the culture and remained a melancholy exile. Her staunch **Catholic** faith made her suspect among the English Anglican majority, and Charles II's unfaithfulness marred their relationship. Charles died in 1685, but Catherine remained in England until 1692. When she returned to Portugal, she lived in Bemposta Palace and supported the controversial **Methuen Treaty** (1703) and maintenance of the Anglo–Portuguese connection. Before her death in 1706, she was named regent twice, in 1704 and 1705.

CATHOLIC CHURCH. The Catholic Church and the Catholic religion together represent the oldest and most enduring of all Portuguese institutions. Because its origins as an institution go back at least to the middle of the third century, if not earlier, the Christian and later the Catholic Church is much older than any other Portuguese institution or major cultural influence, including the monarchy (lasting 770 years) or Islam (540 years). Indeed, it is older than Portugal (869 years) itself. The Church, despite its changing doctrine and form, dates to the period when Roman Lusitania was Christianized.

In its earlier period, the Church played an important role in the creation of an independent Portuguese monarchy, as well as in the colonization and settlement of various regions of the shifting Christian–Muslim frontier as it moved south. Until the rise of absolutist monarchy and central government, the Church dominated all public and private life and provided the only **education** available, along with the only hospitals and charity institutions. During the Middle Ages and the early stage of the overseas **empire**, the Church accumulated a great deal of wealth. One historian suggests that, by 1700, one-third of the land in Portugal was owned by the Church. Besides land, Catholic institutions possessed a large number of chapels, churches and cathedrals, capital, and other property.

Extensive periods of Portuguese history witnessed either conflict or cooperation between the Church as the monarchy increasingly sought to gain direct control of the realm. The monarchy challenged

the great power and wealth of the Church, especially after the acquisition of the first overseas empire (1415–1580). When **King João III** requested the pope to allow Portugal to establish the **Inquisition** (Holy Office) in the country and the request was finally granted in 1531, royal power, more than religion was the chief concern. The Inquisition acted as a judicial arm of the Catholic Church in order to root out heresies, primarily Judaism and Islam, and later Protestantism. But the Inquisition became an instrument used by the crown to strengthen its power and jurisdiction.

The Church's power and prestige in governance came under direct attack for the first time under the **Marquis of Pombal** (1750–77) when, as the king's prime minister, he placed regalism above the Church's interests. In 1759, the Jesuits were expelled from Portugal, although they were allowed to return after Pombal left office. Pombal also harnessed the Inquisition and put in place other anticlerical measures. With the rise of liberalism and the efforts to secularize Portugal after 1820, considerable Church–state conflict occurred. The new liberal state weakened the power and position of the Church in various ways: in 1834, all religious orders were suppressed and their property confiscated both in Portugal and in the empire and, in the 1830s and 1840s, agrarian reform programs confiscated and sold large portions of Church lands. By the 1850s, Church–state relations had improved, various religious orders were allowed to return, and the Church's influence was largely restored. By the late 19th century, Church and state were closely allied again. Church roles in all levels of education were pervasive, and there was a popular Catholic revival under way.

With the rise of republicanism and the early years of the First Republic, especially from 1910 to 1917, Church–state relations reached a new low. A major tenet of republicanism was anticlericalism and the belief that the Church was as much to blame as the monarchy for the backwardness of Portuguese society. The provisional republican government's 1911 Law of Separation decreed the secularization of public life on a scale unknown in Portugal. Among the new measures that Catholics and the Church opposed were legalization of divorce, appropriation of all Church property by the state, abolition of religious oaths for various posts, suppression of the theology school at Coimbra University, abolition of saints' days as public holidays,

abolition of nunneries and expulsion of the Jesuits, closing of seminaries, secularization of all public education, and banning of religious courses in schools.

After considerable civil strife over the religious question under the republic, President **Sidónio Pais** restored normal relations with the Holy See and made concessions to the Portuguese Church. Encouraged by the apparitions at **Fátima** between May and October 1917, which caused a great sensation among the rural people, a strong Catholic reaction to anticlericalism ensued. Backed by various new Catholic organizations such as the “Catholic Youth” and the Academic Center of Christian Democracy (CADC), the Catholic revival influenced government and politics under the **Estado Novo**. Prime Minister **António de Oliveira Salazar** was not only a devout Catholic and member of the CADC, but his formative years included nine years in the Viseu Catholic Seminary preparing to be a priest. Under the Estado Novo, Church–state relations greatly improved, and Catholic interests were protected. On the other hand, Salazar’s no-risk statism never went so far as to restore to the Church all that had been lost in the 1911 Law of Separation. Most Church property was never returned from state ownership and, while the Church played an important role in public education to 1974, it never recovered the influence in education it had enjoyed before 1911.

Today, the majority of Portuguese proclaim themselves Catholic, and the enduring nature of the Church as an institution seems apparent everywhere in the country. But there is no longer a monolithic Catholic faith; there is growing diversity of religious choice in the population, which includes an increasing number of Protestant Portuguese as well as a small but growing number of Muslims from the former Portuguese empire. The Muslim community of greater Lisbon erected a Mosque which, ironically, is located near the Spanish Embassy. In the 1990s, Portugal’s Catholic Church as an institution appeared to be experiencing a revival of influence. While Church attendance remained low, several Church institutions retained an importance in society that went beyond the walls of the thousands of churches: a popular, flourishing Catholic University; Radio Renascença, the country’s most listened to radio station; and a new private television channel owned by the Church. At an international conference in Lisbon in September 2000, the Cardinal Patriarch of

Portugal, Dom José Policarpo, formally apologized to the Jewish community of Portugal for the actions of the Inquisition. At the deliberately selected location, the place where that religious institution once held its hearings and trials, Dom Policarpo read a declaration of Catholic guilt and repentance and symbolically embraced three rabbis, apologizing for acts of violence, pressures to convert, suspicions, and denunciation.

CAVACO SILVA, ANÍBAL ANTÓNIO (1939–). Leading figure in post-1974 Portugal, Social Democrat leader, prime minister (1985–95), president of the Republic since 2006. Born in the Algarve in 1939, Cavaco Silva was educated in Faro and **Lisbon** and, in 1964, obtained a degree in finance at the University of Lisbon. Like many of the younger leaders of post-1974 Portugal, Cavaco Silva underwent an important part of his professional training abroad; in December 1973, he received a doctorate in economics from York University, Great Britain. He entered academic life as an economics and finance professor in 1974 and taught until he entered politics full-time in 1980, when he was named minister of finance in the sixth constitutional government of **Social Democratic Party (PSD)** leader and prime minister **Sá Carneiro**. He was elected a PSD deputy to the Republican Assembly in October 1980. Following the general legislative elections of October 1985, Cavaco Silva was named prime minister of the 10th constitutional government. His party, the PSD, strengthened its hold on the legislature yet again in the 1987 election when, for the first time since the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, Portugal was ruled by a party with a clear majority of seats in the legislature.

Cavaco Silva, who has emphasized a strong free-enterprise and denationalization policy in the framework of economic rejuvenation, served as prime minister (1985–95) and, in the elections of 1987 and 1991, his party won a clear majority of seats in the Assembly of the Republic (more than 50 percent), which encouraged stability and economic progress in postrevolutionary Portugal. In the 1995 general elections, the **Socialist Party (PS)** defeated the PSD; he ran for the presidency of the republic in 1995 and lost to **Jorge Sampaio**. Cavaco Silva retired briefly from politics to teach at the Catholic University. In October 2005, he announced his return to politics and

became a candidate for the upcoming presidential election. On 22 January 2006, he received 50.5 percent of the vote and was sworn in on 9 March 2006. *See also* POLITICAL PARTIES.

CHRISTIAN DEMOCRATIC PARTY (CDS) / CENTRO DEMOCRÁTICO E SOCIAL; renamed POPULAR PARTY (PARTIDO POPULAR / PP). Established originally as the Centro Democrático e Social (CDS) in May 1974, following the fall of the **Estado Novo**, the CDS was supported by conservatives inspired by Christian humanism and Catholic social doctrines. In the first democratic elections after the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, which were held on 25 April 1975, the CDS won only a disappointing 7.6 percent of the vote for the Constituent Assembly. In the following general elections for the Assembly of the Republic, in April 1976, however, the party more than doubled its votes to 16 percent and surpassed the number of votes for the **Portuguese Communist Party (PCP)**. In 1979–80, the Christian Democrats joined the **Social Democratic Party (PSD)** in a coalition called the **Aliança Democrática** (Democratic Alliance), a grouping that defeated the **Socialist Party (PS)** in the succeeding elections. The Christian Democrats remained in the background as the principal party rivals for power were the PS and the PSD.

In the 1990s, the CDS altered its name to the Partido Popular (PP) and featured new leaders such as party chief **Paulo Portas**. While the democratic Portuguese system had become virtually a two-party dominant system by the 1980s and 1990s, the PP would have opportunities, depending upon circumstances, to share power in another coalition with one of the two larger, major parties, the PS or PSD. Indeed, parliamentary election results in March 2002 gave the party just such an opportunity, as the PP won 14 percent of the vote, thus surpassing for the first time since the 1975 elections the PCP, which was reduced to 12 percent of the vote. The PP thus gained new influence as the PSD, which won the largest number of seats in this election, was obliged to share governance with the PP in order to have a working majority in the legislature.

Various right-wing lobbies and interest groups influenced the PP. In early 2000, the PP proposed a law to the Assembly of the Republic whereby former colonists, now mainly resident in Portugal, who had

lost property in Portugal's former colonies of **Angola** and **Mozambique**, would be compensated by Portugal for material losses during decolonization. The PP leadership argued that the manner in which the governments after the Revolution of 25 April 1974 administered the disputed, controversial decolonization process in these territories made the government responsible for compensating Portuguese citizens for such losses. The PS-dominated government of then **prime minister, António Guterres**, argued, however, that independent governments of those former colonies were responsible for any compensation due. Thus, Guterres declined to accept the proposed legislation. This proposal by the PP and others like it followed upon other proposed laws such as Law 20, 19 June 1997, put before the Assembly of the Republic, which was passed under the aegis of the PS. This law pledged to compensate opposition militants (the survivors) who had opposed the Estado Novo and had spent years in exile, as well as in clandestine activities. Such compensations would come in the form of pensions and social security benefits. Given the strength of conservative constituencies and former settlers' lobbies, it is likely that the Christian Democrats will introduce more such proposed laws in future parliamentary sessions.

CINEMA. Portuguese cinema had its debut in June 1896 at the Royal Coliseum, Lisbon, only six months after the pioneering French cinema-makers, the brothers Lumiere, introduced the earliest motion pictures to Paris audiences. Cinema pioneers in Portugal included photographer Manuel Maria da Costa Veiga and an early enthusiast, Aurelio da Paz dos Reis. The first movie theater opened in Lisbon in 1904, and most popular were early silent shorts, including documentaries and scenes of King Carlos I swimming at Cascais beach. Beginning with the Invicta Film company in 1912 and its efforts to produce films, Portuguese cinema-makers sought technical assistance in Paris. In 1918, French film technicians from Pathé Studios of Paris came to Portugal to produce cinema. The Portuguese writer of children's books, Virginia de Castro e Almeida, hired French film and legal personnel in the 1920s under the banner of "Fortuna Film" and produced several silent films based on her compositions.

In the 1930s, Portuguese cinema underwent an important advance with the work of Portuguese director-producers, including António

Lopes Ribeiro, Manoel de Oliveira, Leitao de Barros, and Artur Duarte. They were strongly influenced by contemporary French, German, and Russian cinema, and they recruited their cinema actors from the Portuguese **Theater**, especially from the popular Theater of Review (*teatro de revista*) of **Lisbon**. They included comedy radio and review stars such as **Vasco Santana**, António Silva, Maria Matos, and Ribeirinho. As the **Estado Novo** regime appreciated the important potential role of film as a mode of propaganda, greater government controls and regulation followed. The first Portuguese sound film, *A Severa* (1928), based on a Julio Dantas book, was directed by Leitão de Barros.

The next period of Portuguese cinema, the 1930s, 1940s, and much of the 1950s, has been labeled, *Comédia a portuguesa*, or Portuguese Comedy, as it was dominated by comedic actors from Lisbon's Theatre of Review and by such classic comedies as 1933's *A Cancão de Lisboa* and similar genre such as *O Pai Tirano*, *O Pátio das Cantigas*, and *A Costa do Castelo*. The Portuguese film industry was extremely small and financially constrained and, until after 1970, only several films were made each year. A new era followed, the so-called "New Cinema," or *Novo Cinema* (ca. 1963–74), when the dictatorship collapsed. Directors of this era, influenced by France's New Wave cinema movement, were led by Fernando Lopes, Paulo Rocha, and others.

After the 1974–75 Revolution, filmmakers, encouraged by new political and social freedoms, explored new themes: realism, legend, politics, and ethnography and, in the 1980s, other themes, including docufiction. Even after political liberty arrived, leaders of the cinema industry confronted familiar challenges of filmmakers everywhere: finding funds for production and audiences to purchase tickets. As the new Portugal gained more prosperity, garnered more capital, and took advantage of membership in the burgeoning European Union, Portuguese cinema benefited. Some American producers, directors, and actors, such as John Malkovich, grew enamored of residence and work in Portugal. Malkovich starred in Manoel de Oliveira's film, *O Convento* (The Convent), shot in Portugal, and this film gained international acclaim, if not universal critical approval. While most films viewed in the country continued to be foreign imports, especially from France, the **United States**, and **Great Britain**, recent domestic

film production is larger than ever before in Portugal's cinema history: in 2005, 13 Portuguese feature films were released. One of them was coproduced with Spain, *Midsummer Dream*, an animated feature. That year's most acclaimed film was *O Crime de Padre Amaro*, based on the Eça de Queirós' novel, a film that earned a record box office return. In 2006, some 22 feature films were released. With more films made in Portugal than ever before, Portugal's cinema had entered a new era. *See also* LITERATURE.

COIMBRA, CITY OF. Located on the north bank of the **Mondego River**, in what was the Beira Litoral province on old maps. Now capital of Coimbra district, Coimbra is a city of about 60,000 people and is Portugal's third largest, after **Lisbon** and **Oporto**. It is also the site of one of Portugal's most important and most ancient universities, the **University of Coimbra**. Coimbra lies on the Lisbon–Oporto highway and, during much of the Reconquest era (ca. 850–1250), was on the southern edge of the emerging kingdom of Portugal. Coimbra was the capital of Portugal from 1139 to 1385, and six kings were born in the city. It takes its name from the Roman town of **Conimbriga**, which is nearby.

COIMBRA, UNIVERSITY OF. Portugal's oldest and once its most prestigious university. As one of Europe's oldest seats of learning, the University of Coimbra and its various roles have a historic importance that supersedes merely the educational. For centuries, the university formed and trained the principal elites and professions that dominated Portugal. For more than a century, certain members of its faculty entered the central government in Lisbon. A few, such as law professor **Afonso Costa**, mathematics instructor **Sidónio Pais**, anthropology professor Bernardino Machado, and economics professor **António de Oliveira Salazar**, became prime ministers and presidents of the republic. In such a small country, with relatively few universities until recently, Portugal counted Coimbra's university as the educational cradle of its leaders and knew its academic traditions as an intimate part of national life.

Established in 1290 by **King Dinis**, the university first opened in **Lisbon** but was moved to **Coimbra** in 1308, and there it remained. University buildings were placed high on a hill, in a position that

physically dominates Portugal's third city. While sections of the medieval university buildings are present, much of what today remains of the old University of Coimbra dates from the Manueline era (1495–1521) and the 17th and 18th centuries. The main administration building along the so-called Via Latina is baroque, in the style of the 17th and 18th centuries. Most prominent among buildings adjacent to the central core structures are the Chapel of São Miguel, built in the 17th century, and the magnificent University Library, of the era of wealthy **King João V**, built between 1717 and 1723. Created entirely by Portuguese artists and architects, the library is unique among historic monuments in Portugal. Its rare book collection, a monument in itself, is complemented by exquisite gilt wood decorations and beautiful doors, windows, and furniture. Among visitors and **tourists**, the chapel and library are the prime attractions to this day.

The University underwent important reforms under the Pombaline administration (1750–77). Efforts to strengthen Coimbra's position in advanced learning and teaching by means of a new curriculum, including new courses in new fields and new degrees and colleges (in Portugal, major university divisions are usually called "faculties") often met strong resistance. In the Age of the Discoveries, efforts were made to introduce the useful study of mathematics, which was part of astronomy in that day, and to move beyond traditional medieval study only of theology, canon law, civil law, and medicine. Regarding even the advanced work of the Portuguese astronomer and mathematician Pedro Nunes, however, Coimbra University was lamentably slow in introducing mathematics or a school of arts and general studies. After some earlier efforts, the 1772 Pombaline Statutes, the core of the Pombaline reforms at Coimbra, had an impact that lasted more than a century. These reforms remained in effect to the end of the monarchy, when, in 1911, the First Republic instituted changes that stressed the secularization of learning. This included the abolition of the Faculty of Theology.

Elaborate, ancient traditions and customs inform the faculty and student body of Coimbra University. Tradition flourishes, although some customs are more popular than others. Instead of residing in common residences or dormitories as in other countries, in Coimbra until recently students lived in the city in "Republics," private houses

with domestic help hired by the students. Students wore typical black academic gowns. Efforts during the **Revolution of 25 April 1974** and aftermath to abolish the wearing of the gowns, a powerful student image symbol, met resistance and generated controversy. In romantic Coimbra tradition, students with guitars sang characteristic songs, including Coimbra *fado*, a more cheerful song than Lisbon *fado*, and serenaded other students at special locations. Tradition also decreed that at graduation graduates wore their gowns but burned their school (or college or subject) ribbons (*fitas*), an important ceremonial rite of passage.

The University of Coimbra, while it underwent a revival in the 1980s and 1990s, no longer has a virtual monopoly over higher education in Portugal. By 1970, for example, the country had only four public and one private university, and the University of Lisbon had become more significant than ancient Coimbra. At present, diversity in higher education is even more pronounced: 12 private universities and 14 autonomous public universities are listed, not only in Lisbon and **Oporto**, but at provincial locations. Still, Coimbra retains an influence as the senior university, some of whose graduates still enter national government and distinguished themselves in various professions.

An important student concern at all institutions of higher learning, and one that marked the last half of the 1990s and continued into the next century, was the question of increased student fees and tuition payments (in Portuguese, *propinas*). Due to the expansion of the national universities in function as well as in the size of student bodies, national budget constraints, and the rising cost of education, the central government began to increase student fees. The student movement protested this change by means of various tactics, including student strikes, boycotts, and demonstrations. At the same time, a growing number of private universities began to attract larger numbers of students who could afford the higher fees in private institutions, but who had been denied places in the increasingly competitive and pressured public universities.

COMMEMORATIONS, PORTUGUESE HISTORIC. As in so many other activities of Portugal and its people, in historic commemorative work, the past always seems present. For more than a century, Portugal has planned and sponsored a variety of historic commemo-

rations related to the glorious Age of Discoveries era of historic Portugal. The Columban centenary commemorations, involving **Spain** and Italy in particular, have gained greater world attention, Portugal, nevertheless, has a history of her own commemorations.

Whatever the political ideology of the governmental system involved, Portugal's historic commemorations have been continuous and well-planned, and have sought to stir national pride as well as regime loyalty. Portugal's official efforts in public commemoration date at least back to 1880, when the Portuguese celebrated the 300th anniversary of the death of the national epic poet, **Luís de Camões**. Others followed that sought to arouse national remembrance and encourage notions of national revival, by focusing either on biographical or national discovery dates. The next major commemoration was in 1894, when Portugal commemorated the 500th anniversary of the birth in 1394 of **Prince Henry of Aviz** (Prince Henry the Navigator) and, in 1897–99, the 400th anniversary of **Vasco da Gama's** discovery of the sea route to India.

The 20th century has seen the most elaborate and publicized historic commemorations for Portugal. Besides its extensive propaganda program beginning in the 1930s, the **Estado Novo** put considerable effort into extensive historic commemorations, with the purpose of encouraging national pride and international respect, as well as regime loyalty. At least three national commemorations are worthy of note here, although scores of other events were held on a smaller scale. From June to December 1940, Portugal held the grand Double Centenary celebrations, which celebrated Portugal's emergence as an independent monarchy and state in 1140 (800 years) and the restoration of independence from **Spain** in 1640 (300 years). More than five months of activities included expensive publications of books and **tourist** materials, exhibits, academic conferences, and an outstanding Lisbon "world's fair" known as the "Exposition of the Portuguese World," staged at Belém, in front of the Monastery of Jerónimos, and involving the unveiling for the first time of the new Monument of the Discoveries. *See also* DISCOVERIES, MONUMENT OF and JERÓNIMOS, MONASTERY OF.

Two other commemorations of the Estado Novo deserve mention: the 1947 celebration of the 800th anniversary of the Portuguese taking of Lisbon (1147) from Moorish forces and the 1960 commemoration activities marking the 500th anniversary of the death of the

central figure of the Portuguese Discoveries, Prince Henry the Navigator. The latter set of events took place during a time of political sensitivity, when the government's African policy was under strong international pressures.

Since the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, democratic Portugal has put substantial resources into commemorating various persons and events of the Age of Discoveries. In 1980, Portugal's scholars celebrated the 400th anniversary of the death of the national poet Camões in many books, articles, exhibits, and conferences. But this would all be overshadowed by the celebration of the 500th anniversary of the Portuguese Discoveries, which would run from 1988 to 2000. This elaborate effort involved the establishment of a government agency, the National Committee for the Commemoration of the Portuguese Discoveries, headed by one of Portugal's most eminent scholars on the subject, Dr. Vasco Graça Moura. Commemoration began in 1988 with the celebration and reenactment of the 1488 voyage of navigator Bartolomeu Dias from Lisbon to beyond the Cape of Good Hope, in South Africa. The 12-year cycle, the longest Discoveries commemorations of any century and of any Western country, put the 1992 Columban Quincentenary events somewhat in the shade.

Between May and October 1998, Portugal held **Expo '98** in Lisbon, a world's fair that was keyed to the celebration of the 500th anniversary of Vasco da Gama's discovery of an all-water route to India in 1498. This cycle ended in 2000, marking the 500th anniversary of the year that Portugal's **Pedro Álvares Cabral** discovered **Brazil**.

COMMUNITY OF PORTUGUESE LANGUAGE COUNTRIES.

The Community of Portuguese Language Countries (Comunidade dos Países de Língua Portuguesa, CPLP) was founded at a meeting of presidents and other leaders of the Lusophone (Portuguese-speaking) countries at Belém, Portugal, 17 July 1996. That meeting, a constituent summit, brought together leaders of the seven countries whose official language is Portuguese: **Portugal, Brazil, Angola, Mozambique, Guinea-Bissau, Cape Verdes, São Tomé, and Príncipe**. Belém, this cultural summit's venue, held a symbolic, historical significance for the conferees since they met only a short distance from the historic **Tower of Belém** and from the embarkation point

of **Vasco da Gama's** 1497–99 voyage, which pioneered an all-water route from Portugal to India.

The Community of Portuguese Language Countries did not experience an easy birth. Despite earlier postponements, the July 1996 Summit was successful, but some key issues divided the membership. Several members, most notably, Brazil, showed scant interest in the project. Further, while the language question—the common use of Portuguese—was intended to be a unifying element, sometimes language issues were divisive. For example, West African CPLP member Guinea-Bissau has joined a Francophone (French-speaking) community in West Africa, and the use of Portuguese is giving way there to that of French. Also, a more important CPLP member, Mozambique, has effectively joined The Commonwealth, an Anglophone community, since its principal neighbors in southern Africa are Anglophone. Unlike the cited Francophone and Anglophone communities, however, the CPLP has an official center or headquarters (in **Lisbon**), as well as a budget and constituent bureaucratic organs.

CONIMBRIGA. South of the present city of **Coimbra**, Conimbriga was a Roman settlement of some importance that is currently undergoing archaeological excavations and the restoration of the houses, streets, and walls of its ancient community. As of the early 1990s, between one-third and one-half of the excavations were complete and were being carried out by Portuguese archaeologists, a team of French archaeologists, and other international experts. A remarkable tourist site for extended visits and study tours, the nearby museum and Conimbriga offer unique insight into Roman life. For example, one can view the restored Roman plumbing, water systems, and even a kind of sauna system in several elegant villas, as well as extensive, beautiful mosaics.

CONSTITUTIONS. Beginning with the 1822 Constitution, which was imposed on a hesitant **King João VI** after his return from **Brazil**, Portugal has had six different constitutions of varying longevity. Most of them have undergone one or more major revisions. The following list indicates the political system and its dates, the dates of

the constitution adopted, and the dates of major revisions. It should be noted that the 1976 Constitution of democratic Portugal is still in the process of revision.

Constitutional Monarchy (1822–1910)

1822 Constitution (in effect: 1822–23, 1836–38)

1826 Constitution (Carta = Charter)

(in effect: 1826–28, 1834–36; reinstituted: 1842–1910); revised: 1852, 1885, 1895, 1896.)

1838 Constitution (in effect: 1838–42)

Parliamentary Republic (1910–26)

1911 Constitution (in effect: 1911–33; revised: 1919, 1920, 1921.)

Estado Novo (1926–74)

1933 Constitution (in effect: 1933–74; included 1930 Colonial Act; revised: 1945, 1951, 1959, 1971.)

Democratic Republic (1974–)

1976 Constitution (in effect: 1976– ; revised: 1982, 1989, 1992, 1997.)

CONVERSO. In the Portuguese language, literally, “one who converted.” Historical term dating to late 15th century, meaning a Jew who had converted to Christianity, a “**New Christian**.” The term applied to those Jews who had converted to Christianity following the 1496 royal decree of **King Manuel I** of Portugal that ordered the expulsion of all Jews and Muslims who did not receive Christian baptism. *See also* **MARRANO**.

CORPORATIVISM. Corporativism or corporatism, a social and economic doctrine or ideology, has been influential on several occasions in the 20th century. Based on **Catholic** social doctrines, corporativism began to enjoy a certain vogue among conservative parties in the First Republic. The **Estado Novo** adopted the doctrine as one of its main ideologies and strategies after 1930, although it took decades for the corporative system to be instituted in any comprehensive way. **António de Oliveira Salazar** and his ruling group advocated the corporative system in the 1933 **Constitution** and the National Labor

Statute of September 1933, but it was not until after a 1956 law that the system was put into operation.

The Estado Novo's intention was to have greater control over the **economy** than the weak First Republic had managed by means of eliminating social conflict as well as the inevitable struggle between labor and management. New state doctrine declared that the regime under a corporative system would be "neither bourgeois nor proletarian." The idea was that corporativism in Portugal would be largely self-regulating and would promote social peace and prosperity. In fact, the corporative system became simply another part of the large state bureaucracy in the 1950s, 1960s, and 1970s. Under this system, management was organized in guilds (*grêmios*) and labor in official unions (*sindicatos*). The state also organized special employer-employee institutes for rural workers (*Casas do Povo* or "Houses of the People") and for fishermen (*Casas dos Pescadores* or "Houses of Fishermen").

An elaborate bureaucratic structure administered this cumbersome system. A Chamber of Corporations, representing all professions and occupations, was the upper chamber of the national legislature in Lisbon. One major aim or strategy of the system was to prevent labor strikes or lockouts, but after 1942's widespread strikes and later labor unrest it was clear that opposition labor groups, some organized by the **Portuguese Communist Party (PCP)**, had engineered their own labor union system parallel to the corporative system. After the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, the first provisional government abolished the Estado Novo's corporative system.

CORTES. Under the Portuguese monarchy, an assembly of the three estates (clergy, nobility, commoners) of the kingdom. While historians debate its historical origins, its earliest form as an assembly that was more than a royal council was present before 1211. At first only clerical and noble groups were represented, and later representatives from the towns. Its business was to discuss fiscal matters (taxes), and it was convened by the Portuguese monarch. The Cortes's powers and functions varied, but its golden age of prestige coincided with the 14th and 15th centuries. As the monarchy acquired more independent wealth from the overseas expansion and **empire**, it depended less on the Cortes for revenue. Under **King João III**, as the monarchy

garnered greater power and control, the Cortes was seldom consulted, and the king was asked to call the Cortes to meet at least every 10 years. While it met during the 17th century, it did not meet at all during the reigns of the absolutist kings **João V** (1689–1750) and **José I** (1750–77). The last Cortes met in 1828, in order to acclaim **King Miguel I** (1828–64) as an absolutist monarch. Later, under the subsequent constitutional monarchy (1834–1910), the Cortes came to be elective and was given different names: Congress, National Assembly, Assembly of the Republic. *See also* FILIPE I, KING; LEGISLATURES.

COSTA, AFONSO (1871–1937). Leading political and government figure of the first parliamentary republic (1910–26), Portuguese Republican Party (PRP) leader, and notable lawyer. Afonso Costa, like so many Portuguese political figures in the 20th century, was trained as a lawyer and taught as a law professor at a university, in his case, **Coimbra University**. A brilliant student and a radical activist in student politics in his day, Costa soon both embodied and symbolized radical republican politics and the effort to replace the monarchy. As minister of justice in the 1910–11 provisional government of the turbulent First Republic, Afonso Costa was the author of radical anticlerical laws that helped to polarize the political struggles of the fledgling representative system.

The leader of the radical wing of the PRP, known in that day as “The Democrats,” Afonso Costa was the youngest cabinet officer in the provisional government, at age 39. A small but tenacious man, he was a strong speaker and debater in the noisy sessions of the republic’s congress. Afonso Costa was prime minister three times during the First Republic (1913–14, 1915–16, and April–December 1917). His third premiership was abruptly ended with the **Sidónio Pais** military coup of 8 December 1917. Costa was arrested but soon went into exile in Paris. Except for a few visits to Portugal, Costa remained in Paris as an international lawyer with a lucrative practice. Although asked to “save the republic” by taking office again, Costa refused. Following a period in which he conspired from abroad to overthrow the dictatorship, he died in Paris in 1937.

COSTA GOMES, FRANCISCO DA (1914–2001). Career military officer, key personality, and authority in transition from dictatorship to democracy, and president of the republic. Born in the remote, poor, Trás-Os-Montes district, Costa Gomes was trained as an army officer and gained experience and promotions in many postings in Portugal's overseas empire from **Macau, China**, to **Angola** and **Mozambique**. As a lieutenant colonel in the post of undersecretary of the army in April 1961, he was implicated in a military coup plot to overthrow Prime Minister **António de Oliveira Salazar**. Although he was fired, Costa Gomes rebuilt his bridges, was promoted to brigadier general in 1964, and soon was appointed to important commands in the colonial wars in Portuguese Africa: first in Mozambique (1965–69) and then in Angola (1970–72). In September 1972, he returned to Portugal as head of the joint chiefs of staff, a post he kept until he broke with Prime Minister **Marcello Caetano** in early 1974.

During the last part of Caetano's governance, General Costa Gomes, in tandem with his senior, more famous and charismatic colleague in arms, General **António de Spínola**, was involved in activities that led to the organization of a successful military coup on 25 April 1974, which overthrew the 48-year-old **Estado Novo**. Although younger officers did most of the work organizing this action, Costa Gomes played a key role, including authorizing the publication of the sensational book by General Spínola, *Portugal e o Futuro*, published only two months before the **Revolution of Carnations** in February 1974. Spínola's book acknowledged that Portugal had to find a political not a military solution to the wars in her African colonies, and the public reception of the work helped prepare the atmosphere for a bloodless coup.

After the successful coup by the **Armed Forces Movement** and the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, Costa Gomes was appointed chief of defense staff. When General Spínola resigned in September 1974, Costa Gomes became president, a post he ably filled until June 1976, when General **Ramalho Eanes** was elected president of the republic. Costa Gomes soon withdrew from the public eye, but in 1981 was promoted to Portugal's highest military rank of marshal.

COUNCIL OF STATE. Established by the Portuguese Constitution of 1976, but with earlier forms in several previous political systems,

an organ with the function of advising the president of Portugal in the exercise of his discretionary, reserve powers. The Council by law must be summoned by the president of the Republic in case the president decides to dissolve the Assembly of the Republic, to declare war or peace, or when a government resigns. Headed by the president of the Republic, the Council includes the following members: president of the Assembly of the Republic (parliament); prime minister; president of the Constitutional Court; attorney general or *Provedor de Justiça*; president of Azores Regional Government; president of the Madeira Regional Government; former elected presidents of the Republic; five members designated by the president of the Republic, including figures such as the Bank of Portugal's president; five members elected by the Assembly of the Republic, usually one from each **political party** with seats in parliament; and the Secretary of the Council of State. A similar organ functioned during the **Estado Novo** regime, under the 1933 Constitution.

COUTO, DIOGO DO (1542–1616). Soldier and historical chronicler of the Asian empire, Do Couto left Portugal at age 15 and shipped out to Portuguese India as a soldier. In 1570, in the company of the soldier-poet **Luís de Camões**, he returned to Lisbon. He returned to India the following year and later was given the assignment of historical chronicler, with the mission of completing **João De Barros's** *Da Ásia*. Fascinated by the exotic nature of Asia and its peoples, Do Couto was a worthy successor of De Barros, completing 12 “decades” of the *History De Barros*, of which the 11th “decade” is lost. Another work, *Diálogo do Soldado Prático*, provides a detailed commentary on the vices of Portugal's **empire** and rule in Asia in his day, as well as on the decadence of that empire. His trenchant views on the situation in Portuguese Asia include a call for justice, fair administration, and a restoration of the grandeur of the pre-Portuguese Indian empires.

CRATO, DOM ANTÓNIO, PRIOR OF (1531–1595). Briefly, the 18th king of Portugal and a frustrated, exiled claimant to the Portuguese throne. António, known to history as the Prior of Crato, was for part of the summer of 1580 the king of Portugal, before the Castilian forces of King Phillip II defeated António's weak forces and im-

pelled him into exile. The illegitimate son of the infante, Luís, second son of **King Manuel I** of Portugal and a woman commoner who may have been a New Christian, António's legitimacy as a royal heir was always in doubt. After his father's death in 1555, António abandoned his religious vocation and pursued the life of administrator, warrior, and anti-Muslim crusader in Morocco. Joining two Portuguese expeditions to Morocco (1574 and 1578), António became a prisoner of war after the disastrous **battle of Alcácer-Quivir** (1578).

Freed by payment of a ransom, António returned to Portugal to pursue his claim to the throne, following both the death of **King Sebastian** and that of Cardinal Henrique. Although António was acclaimed king of Portugal in the cities of Santarém, **Lisbon**, and **Coimbra**, and ruled a portion of Portugal in summer 1580, his followers were defeated by Phillip II's army in the battle of Alcântara, 25 August 1580. Hidden by his followers for months, António escaped to exile first in England and then in France. An expedition led by England's Francis Drake in 1589, with the mission to drive out the Spaniards and to restore the Prior of Crato to Portugal's throne, failed. Once more, António fled to exile in France, where he died in Paris in 1595.

CUNHAL, ÁLVARO (BARREIRINHAS) (1913–2005). Leader of the **Portuguese Communist Party (PCP)**, author, and ideologue. Álvaro Cunhal was a militant of the PCP since the 1930s and was secretary-general from 1961 to 1992. In the midst of Mikail Gorbachev's reforms and perestroika, Cunha refused to alter the PCP's orthodox commitment to the proletariat and Marxism–Leninism. Throughout a long career of participation in the PCP, Cunhal regularly held influential positions in the organization. In 1931, he joined the PCP while a law student in Lisbon and became secretary-general of the Portuguese Communist Youth/Juventude Comunista (JC) in 1935, which included membership in the PCP's central committee. He advanced to the PCP's secretariat in 1942, after playing a leading role in the reorganization of 1940–41 that gave the party its present orthodox character. Cunhal dubbed himself “the adopted son of the proletariat” at the 1950 trial that sentenced him to 11 years in prison for communist activity. Because his father was a lawyer–painter–writer and Cunhal received a master's degree in law, his origins were neither

peasant nor worker but petit-bourgeois. During his lifetime, he spent 13 years in prison, eight of which were in solitary confinement. On 3 January 1960, he and nine other mostly communist prisoners escaped from Peniche prison and fled the country. The party's main theoretician, Cunhal was elected secretary-general in 1961 and, along with other top leaders, directed the party from abroad while in exile.

In the aftermath of the **Revolution of 25 April 1974** that terminated the **Estado Novo** and ushered in democracy, Cunhal ended his exile and returned to Portugal. He played important roles in post-1974 political events ranging from leader of the communist offensive during the "hot summer" of 1975, positions of minister-without-portfolio in the first through fifth provisional governments, to his membership in parliament beginning in 1976.

At the PCP's 14th Congress (1992), Carlos Carvalhas was elected secretary-general to replace Cunhal. Whatever official or unofficial position Cunhal held, however, automatically became an important position within the party. After stepping down as secretary-general, he was elected to head the party's National Council (eliminated in 1996). Many political observers have argued that Cunhal purposely picked a successor who could not outshine him, and it is true that Carvalhas does not have Cunhal's humanistic knowledge, lacks emotion, and is not as eloquent. Cunhal was known not only as a dynamic orator but also as an artist, novelist, and brilliant political tactician. He wrote under several pseudonyms, including Manuel Tiago, who published the well-known *Até Amanhã*, *Camaradas*, as well as the novel recently adapted for the film, *Cinco Dias, Cinco Noites*. Under his own name, he published as well a book on art theory entitled *A Arte, O Artista E A Sociedade*. He also published volumes of speeches and essays.

Although he was among the most orthodox leaders of the major Western European Communist parties, Cunhal was not a puppet of the Soviet Union, as many claimed. He was not only a major leader at home, but also in the international communist movement. His orthodoxy was especially useful to the Soviets in their struggle to maintain cohesion in a movement threatened by division from the Eurocommunists in the 1970s. To conclude that Cunhal was a Soviet puppet is to ignore his independent decisions during the Revolution of 25 April 1974. At that time, the Soviets reportedly tried to slow

Cunhal's revolutionary drive because it ran counter to detente and other Soviet strategies.

In many ways Cunhal's views were locked in the past. His perception and analyses of modern Portuguese revolutionary conditions did not alter radically from his experiences and analyses of revolutionary conditions in the 1940s. To Cunhal, although some conditions had changed, requiring tactical shifts, the major conflict was the same one that led to the creation of the Communist Information Bureau (Cominform) in 1947. The world was still divided into two camps: American and Western imperialism on one side, and socialism, with its goal to achieve the fullest of democracies, on the other. Cunhal continued to believe that Marxism–Leninism and scientific socialism provide the solutions to resolving the problems of the world until his death in 2005.

CURRENCY. The currency of Portugal was the *escudo*, consisting of 100 *centavos* until 1 January 1999, when the euro (€) became the legal tender. The *escudo* was accepted during a period of dual circulation, which ended on 28 February 2002. There are seven euro notes of 500, 200, 100, 50, 20, 10, and 5 euros and eight coins denominated in 1 and 2 euros and 50, 20, 10, 5, 2 and 1 cents.

– D –

DANCE. The history of Portuguese dance includes traditional, regional folk dances, modern dance, and ballet. Portuguese folk dances have historic origins in the country's varied regions and are based on traditions associated with the historic provinces. At least by the 18th century, these folk dances, performed in traditional garb, were popular and became differentiated by region. In the south of the country, there were colorful, passionate lively dances by rural folk in the Algarve, the *corridinho*; and in the Ribatejo, the *fandango*, the dance most celebrated and known outside Portugal. In northern Portugal, even more folk dances were developed and preserved in each historic province. In Trás-os-Montes, there were the *chulas* and *dancas do pauliteiros*, in which dancers used sticks and stick play. Each region had its own special folk dances and costumes, with typical jewelry

on display, and with some dances reflecting regional courting and matrimonial traditions. Perhaps richest of all the provinces as the home of folk dance has been the Minho province in the northwest, with dances such as the *viras*, *gotas*, *malhão*, *perim*, and *tirana*. For the most part, folk dances in Portugal are slower than those in neighboring Spain.

Various factors have favored the preservation of some of these dances including local, regional, and national dance organizations that, for recreation, continue this activity in Portugal, as well as abroad in resident Portuguese communities in Europe, the Americas, and Africa. As a part of entertainment for visitors and tourists alike, performances of folk dances with colorful costumes and lively movements have continued to interest onlookers from abroad. Such performances, usually accompanied by singing traditional folk songs, can occur in a variety of settings including restaurants, *fado* houses, and arenas. Such dances, too, are performed in traditional, commemorative parades on the **Tenth of June** from Lisbon and Oporto to Newark, New Jersey, Toronto, and France.

In modern dance activities, Portugal has made a diversified contribution, and in recent decades ballet has received intense attention and commitment as a performing art. An outstanding example has been the professional company and its performances of the notable Ballet Gulbenkian, established and financed by the **Gulbenkian Foundation** in **Lisbon**. Founded in 1964, Ballet Gulbenkian became an outstanding ballet company, featuring both Portuguese and international ballet dancers and directors. For decades, Ballet Gulbenkian made a distinguished contribution to the performing arts in Portugal. In 2005, unexpectedly and controversially, by fiat of the Foundation's administration, the Ballet Gulbenkian was closed down. The extinction of this ballet company provoked strong national and international protest among fans of ballet, and amounting as it did to a crisis in one division of the performing arts in a country that had expected unstinting financial support from the Foundation established from the financial legacy of notable collector, philanthropist, and financier **Calouste Gulbenkian**, a resident of Portugal from 1942 to 1955. *See also* MUSIC.

DELGADO, GENERAL HUMBERTO (1906–1965). Pioneer air force advocate and pilot, senior officer who opposed the **Estado**

Novo, and oppositionist candidate in the 1958 presidential elections. One of the young army lieutenants who participated in the 28 May 1926 coup that established the military dictatorship, Delgado was a loyal regime supporter during its early phase (1926–44) and into its middle phase (1944–58). An important advocate of civil aeronautics, as well as being a daring pilot in the army air force and assisting the Allies in the **Azores** in World War II, Delgado spent an important part of his career after 1943 outside Portugal.

On missions abroad for the government and armed forces, Delgado came to oppose the dictatorship in the 1950s. In 1958, he stood as the oppositionist candidate in the presidential elections, against regime candidate **Admiral Américo Tomás**. In the cities, Delgado received considerable popular support for his campaign, during which he and the coalition of varied political movements, including the **Portuguese Communist Party (PCP)** and Movement of Democratic Unity, were harassed by the regime police, **PIDE**. When the managed election results were “tallied,” Delgado had won more than 25 percent, including heavy votes in the African colonies; this proved an embarrassment to the regime, which promptly altered electoral law so that universal male suffrage was replaced by a safer electoral college (1959).

When legal means of opposition were closed to him, Delgado conspired with dissatisfied military officers who promised support but soon abandoned him. The government had him stripped of his job, rank, and career and, in 1959, fearing arrest by the **PIDE**, Delgado sought political asylum in the embassy of **Brazil**. Later he fled to South America and organized opposition to the regime, including liaisons and plotting with **Henrique Galvão**. Delgado traveled to Europe and North Africa to rally Portuguese oppositionists in exile and, in 1961–62, dabbled in coup plots. He had a role in the abortive coup at Beja, in January 1962. Brave to the extent of taking risks against hopeless odds, Delgado dreamed of instigating a popular uprising on his own.

In 1965, along with his Brazilian secretary, Delgado kept an appointment with destiny on Portugal’s Spanish frontier. Neither he nor his companion were seen alive again, and later their bodies were discovered in a shallow grave; investigations since have proved that they were murdered by **PIDE** agents in a botched kidnapping plot.

When the true story of what happened to the “Brave General” was revealed in the world press, the opposition’s resolve was strengthened and the Estado Novo’s image reached a new low. Posthumously, General Delgado has been honored in numerous ways since the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**.

DINIS, KING (1261–1325). Medieval Portugal’s most talented monarch, known as both “The Farmer King” and “The Poet King.” Grandson of Alfonso X “El Sábio” (“The Learned”) of Castile and Leon and son of **Afonso III** of Portugal, Dinis ruled from 1279 to 1325. Dinis’s fruitful reign helped strengthen Portugal as an independent monarchy, in an era of dangers and uncertainty. Dinis was a patron of learning, a noted poet who is known in tradition as the *Rei-Trouvador* (“Troubadour-King”), founder of the **Universities of Coimbra and Lisbon**, and an influence on several translations to Portuguese. Dinis was the king who decreed that Portuguese would be the official **language** of the country in legal and judicial activities.

DISCOVERIES, MONUMENT OF THE. Located on the **Tagus** shore in Belém, not far from the **Tower of Belém** and the **Jerónimos Monastery**, the Monument of the Discoveries is a stone tribute of relatively recent origin. Built originally in 1940, as part of the **Estado Novo**’s Double Centenary Exposition of the Portuguese World, the Monument of the Discoveries was constructed of temporary, lightweight materials. Unlike most of the exposition’s constructions, however, the monument was not torn down after the exposition closed in December 1940. It remained in place and was reconstructed out of permanent materials and stone in time for the 1960 celebrations of the 500th anniversary of the death of **Henry of Aviz** (Prince Henry the Navigator).

The monument is the work of sculptor Leopoldo de Almeida. It is complemented by an enormous mosaic wind rose showing the points of the compass, which was contributed by the Union of South Africa and is set in the open square just inland from the monument. This modern construction forms an imposing caravel in full sail, with Prince Henry the Navigator at the prow and a group of the country’s chief navigators and sailors behind him. Notably, Columbus, who

sailed for **Spain**, is not among them. *See also* COMMEMORATIONS, PORTUGUESE HISTORIC.

DIU, BATTLE OF (1509). One of the more decisive battles in world maritime history, it ended for 100 years real threats to Portugal's command of the Indian Ocean and helped establish naval hegemony in the Indian Ocean. Portugal's first viceroy in **Portuguese India**, **Francisco de Almeida**, sailed his fleet into Diu harbor and engaged an Egyptian and Gujerati fleet. On 2 February 1509, Almeida's fleet and soldiers destroyed the Muslim fleet. After the battle, the Muslim powers were unable to challenge Portugal's maritime strength for a considerable period. Not long afterward, Portugal added Diu to its port conquests, and that enclave in India remained a possession of Portugal until the invasion of Nehru's Indian army in December 1961.

DOMINGOS, ANTÓNIO DE SEGUEIRA (1768–1837). From a modest background, Domingos was educated at the Casa Pia of **Lisbon**, after which he attended the design and figure drawing course at the Aula Régia. In 1788, while working as a decorator, he received a scholarship from **Queen Maria I** to study at the Portuguese Academy in Rome, where he took classes from António Cavallucci. Later, he studied at the Academy of San Luca. He returned to Lisbon in 1795. He was named court painter in 1802, and codirected the decoration of the **Palace of Ajudá**. In 1803, he was professor of drawing and painting to the royal princesses and, in 1806, director of drawing in **Oporto**. His works included patriotic allegories and portraits. He contributed to the cause of Portuguese nationalism through his art. He painted *Junot Protecting Lisbon* (1808), *Apotheosis of Wellington* (1811), and, in 1821, the portraits of 33 liberal deputies.

After the return of absolutist **King Miguel I** (1802–66) in 1828, Domingos went into exile in France, where he showed his work at the Louvre alongside that of other romantic painters, such as Eugène Delacroix. His *Death of Camões* won a gold medal. In 1826, he settled in Rome, where he dedicated himself to religious painting, the *Life of Christ* (1828) and *Final Judgement* (1830) being the best of these. He died in Rome without returning to Portugal in 1837. His work is considered transitional from neoclassicism to romanticism.

DOURO, RIVER. This river in the Iberian Peninsula is about 780 kilometers (485 miles) long and thus shorter than the **Tagus**. Known as the Rio Douro in Portuguese and the Rio Duero in Spanish, it rises in north-central **Spain**, first flows west to northeast Portugal, then turns south to form a section of the Luso–Spanish frontier, and ultimately flows west into the Atlantic Ocean three kilometers south of **Oporto**. Within Portugal, the Douro passes through deep gorges and steep hills and has rapids. Along sections of the Douro River grow the vineyards of the **port wine** industry, and in Oporto, along its banks, are found the so-called wine lodges of the port wine companies.

DURÃO BARROSO, JOSÉ MANUEL (1952–). Academic, scholar, and politician who rose to prominence after the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**. Trained as an academic in the field of political science and law, Durão Barroso received a master's degree in political science at a Swiss university in the 1980s and continued to a doctorate in Portugal. For some years, he taught political science at the University of Geneva. A student of Portuguese government and politics, he entered academic life in Lisbon at various universities, including the Faculty of Law, University of Lisbon, and spent terms abroad as a visiting political science professor at Georgetown University in the United States.

A leading member of the **Social Democratic Party (PSD)** after 1993, he was minister of foreign affairs in the **Cavaco Silva** government in the mid-1990s. When Marcello Rebelo de Sousa withdrew from politics in 1999, Durão Barroso was elected in his place as chief of the PSD; he led the party in the October 1999 elections, won by the **Socialist Party (PS)** under Guterres. The defeat of the PSD in this election, whose final results were closer than predicted, cast a shadow on the leadership position of Durão Barroso, whose brittle style and manner of public speaking aroused controversy. The position of the PSD, however, still retained some strength; the results of the October 1999 elections were disappointing to the PS, which expected to win an overall majority in the Assembly of the Republic. Instead, the PS fell one seat short. The electoral results in seats were PS (115) to PSD (81). As the PS's hold on the electorate weakened during 2001, and the party was defeated in municipal elections in December 2001, the PSD's leader came into his own as party chief.

In the parliamentary elections of 17 March 2002, the PSD won the largest number of seats, and Durão Barroso was appointed prime minister. To have a majority, he governed in coalition with the Popular Party (PP), formerly known as the **Christian Democratic Party (CDS)**. Durão Barroso reduced government spending, which affected the budgets of local governments and civil service recruitment. These measures, as well as plans to accelerate privatization and introduce labor reforms, resulted in a public-sector worker's strike in November 2002, the first such strike in 10 years. Durão Barroso decided to press ahead with budget-cutting measures and imposed a freeze on the wages of employees earning more than €1,000, which affected more than 50 percent of the workforce.

In 2004, he became president of the Commission, **European Union (EU)**. He took up the office on 23 November 2004, and Pedro Santana Lopes, then the PSD mayor of **Lisbon**, became prime minister. Portugal has held the six-month rotating presidency of the **EU** three times, in 1992, 2000, and 2007.

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EANES, ANTONIO RAMALHO (1935–). Career army officer who played an important part in the **Armed Forces Movement** that organized the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, a key figure in the defeat of a leftist military coup in 25 November 1975, and president of the republic during two terms. Eanes was born near Castelo Branco and entered the army school in 1953, at age 18. After promotion to lieutenant in 1957, he served for a period in **Portuguese India**. He served several tours in Portugal's African wars including **Mozambique** (1961–64 and 1966–68), **Guinea** (1969–71), and **Angola** (January 1974 until 25 April 1974). He participated in the Armed Forces Movement's conspiracy to topple the **Estado Novo** and later held important posts when the military governed Portugal during the period 1974–75. One key post was as head of the Portuguese Radio and Television system, an important position in the revolution's intense war of words and debates. In the failed leftist coup attempt on 25 November 1975, Eanes, now promoted to lieutenant colonel, played a pivotal role in the triumph of the moderate military party. In

December 1975, he was named army chief of staff. General Ramalho Eanes was twice elected and served two full terms as president of the republic, in 1976–81 and 1981–86. In the 1976 presidential elections, Eanes received about 61 percent of the vote and in that of December 1980, 56.4 percent.

EAST TIMOR. Colony of Portugal from the 16th century to December 1975, with an area of 40,000 square kilometers (18,989 square miles). East Timor is located on the eastern portion of the island of Timor in the Indonesian archipelago. From 1975 to August 1999, when it was forcibly annexed and occupied by Indonesia, until May 2002, when it achieved full independence, East Timor was, in effect, a ward of the United Nations.

In the 16th century, the Portuguese established trading posts on the island, but for centuries few Portuguese settled there, and the “colony” remained isolated and neglected. After the Dutch won control of Indonesia, there was a territorial dispute with Portugal as to who “owned” what on the island of Timor. In 1859, this question was decided as the Dutch and Portuguese governments formally divided the island into a Dutch portion (west) and the Portuguese colony (east) and established the frontier. From the late 19th century to World War I, Portugal consolidated its control of East Timor by means of military campaigns against the Timorese tribes. In addition to colonial officials, a few Portuguese missionaries and merchants occupied East Timor, but few Portuguese ever settled there.

East Timor’s geographic location close to the north coast of Australia and its sharing of one island in the Dutch colony catapulted it into world affairs early in World War II. To forestall a Japanese invasion of Timor, a joint Dutch–Australian expedition landed on 17 December 1941; the Portuguese authorities neither resisted nor cooperated. In February 1942, when Japanese troops landed in Timor, the small allied force fled to the hills and later was evacuated to Australia. Japan occupied all of Timor and the remainder of the Dutch East Indies until Japan’s surrender in September 1945. Portugal soon reassumed control.

After the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, East Timorese nationalist parties hoped for rapid decolonization and independence with Lisbon’s cooperation. But on 28 November 1975, before a preoccupied Portugal could work out a formal transfer of power, the

Revolutionary Front of Independent East Timor (FRETILIN), then in control of the former colony's capital, declared independence, and, on 7 December 1975, Indonesian armed forces swiftly invaded, occupied, and annexed East Timor. In the following years, a tragic loss of life occurred. Portugal refused to recognize Indonesia's sovereignty over East Timor and claimed legal sovereignty before the United Nations.

As Indonesia persistently and brutally suppressed Timorese nationalist resistance, world media attention focused on this still remote island. Several sensational international and Indonesian events altered the status of occupied East Timor, following the continuation of FRETILIN guerrilla resistance. In November 1991, world media disseminated information on the Indonesian forces' slaughter of East Timorese protesters at a cemetery demonstration in the capital of Dili. In 1996, two East Timorese, Bishop Belo and José Ramos Horta, each a symbol of East Timorese resistance and the desire for independence, shared the Nobel Peace Prize. Then, in 1998, in Indonesia, the Suharto regime collapsed and was replaced by a more democratic government, which in January 1999 pledged a free referendum in East Timor. On 30 August 1999, the referendum was held, and nearly 80 percent of the East Timorese voters voted for independence from Indonesia.

However, Indonesian armed forces and militias reacted brutally, using intimidation, murder, mayhem, and razing of buildings to try to reverse the people's will. Following some weeks of confusion, a United Nations (UN) armed forces, led by Australia, took control of East Timor and declared it a UN protectorate, to last until East Timor was secure from Indonesian aggression and prepared for full independence. East Timor had changed from a Portuguese colony to an Indonesian protectorate/colony to a fledgling nation-in-the-making.

The status of East Timor as a ward of the UN was made official on 25 October 1999, as the United Nations Transitional Administration in East Timor began to prepare the country for independence. Appalling conditions prevailed: 70 percent of the country's buildings had been destroyed and nearly half of the population of 800,000 had been driven out of East Timor into uneasy refuge in West Timor, under Indonesian control. A territory without an economy, East Timor lacked police, civil servants, schools, and government records.

With UN assistance, general elections were held in the spring of 2002; the majority of parliamentary seats were won by FRETILIN, and José “Xanana” Gusmão was elected the first president. On 20 May 2002, East Timor became independent. World luminaries adorned the independence celebrations: UN secretary-general Kofi Annan, former U.S. president Bill Clinton, and other celebrities attended. But East Timor’s travails continued with civil strife and uncertainty. *See also* EMPIRE, PORTUGUESE OVERSEAS.

EÇA DE QUEIRÓS, JOSE MARIA (1845–1900). Nineteenth-century Portugal’s greatest novelist and essayist, the author of modern classics in the form of satirical novels that are still popular and considered to be relevant to contemporary concerns in Portugal. Next to **Luís de Camões** and **Fernando Pessoa**, Eça de Queirós is the most studied, discussed, and written about Portuguese writer in modern times. He was a student at Coimbra University and a distinguished member of the so-called **Generation of 1870**, which challenged both the academic establishment and the governing elite of its day. This brilliant, prolific novelist and essayist spent much of his post-university life abroad in Portugal’s foreign and consular service. His largely realist novels portrayed Portuguese society of 1870–1900 with wit, satire, humor, and wisdom. He died in Paris in 1900, leaving behind a large body of novels and essays, published and unpublished. *See also* LITERATURE.

ECONOMY. Portugal’s economy, under the influence of the European Economic Community (EEC), and later with the assistance of the **European Union (EU)**, grew rapidly in 1985–86; through 1992, the average annual growth was 4–5 percent. While such growth rates did not last into the late 1990s, portions of Portugal’s society achieved unprecedented prosperity, although poverty remained entrenched. It is important, however, to place this current growth, which includes some not altogether desirable developments, in historical perspective. On at least three occasions in this century, Portugal’s economy has experienced severe dislocation and instability: during the turbulent First Republic (1911–25); during the **Estado Novo**, when the world Depression came into play (1930–39); and during the aftermath of the **Revolution of 25 April, 1974**. At other periods, and even dur-

ing the Estado Novo, there were eras of relatively steady growth and development, despite the fact that Portugal's weak economy lagged behind industrialized Western Europe's economies, perhaps more than Prime Minister **António de Oliveira Salazar** wished to admit to the public or to foreigners.

For a number of reasons, Portugal's backward economy underwent considerable growth and development following the beginning of the colonial wars in Africa in early 1961. Recent research findings suggest that, contrary to the "stagnation thesis" that states that the Estado Novo economy during the last 14 years of its existence experienced little or no growth, there were important changes, policy shifts, structural evolution, and impressive growth rates. In fact, the average annual gross domestic product (GDP) growth rate (1961–74) was about 7 percent. The war in Africa was one significant factor in the post-1961 economic changes. The new costs of finance and spending on the military and police actions in the African and Asian **empires** in 1961 and thereafter forced changes in economic policy.

Starting in 1963–64, the relatively closed economy was opened up to foreign investment, and Lisbon began to use deficit financing and more borrowing at home and abroad. Increased foreign investment, residence, and technical and military assistance also had effects on economic growth and development. Salazar's government moved toward greater trade and integration with various international bodies by signing agreements with the European Free Trade Association and several international finance groups. New multinational corporations began to operate in the country, along with foreign-based banks. Meanwhile, foreign tourism increased massively from the early 1960s on, and the tourism industry experienced unprecedented expansion. By 1973–74, Portugal received more than 8 million tourists annually for the first time.

Under Prime Minister **Marcello Caetano**, other important economic changes occurred. High annual economic growth rates continued until the world energy crisis inflation and a recession hit Portugal in 1973. Caetano's system, through new development plans, modernized aspects of the **agricultural, industrial**, and service sectors and linked reform in **education** with plans for social change. It also introduced cadres of forward-looking technocrats at various levels. The general motto of Caetano's version of the Estado Novo

was “Evolution with Continuity,” but he was unable to solve the key problems, which were more political and social than economic. As the boom period went “bust” in 1973–74, and growth slowed greatly, it became clear that Caetano and his governing circle had no way out of the African wars and could find no easy compromise solution to the need to democratize Portugal’s restive society. The economic background of the **Revolution of 25 April 1974** was a severe energy shortage caused by the world energy crisis and Arab oil boycott, as well as high general inflation, increasing debts from the African wars, and a weakening currency. While the regime prescribed greater Portuguese investment in Africa, in fact Portuguese businesses were increasingly investing outside of the escudo area in Western Europe and the **United States**.

During the two years of political and social turmoil following the Revolution of 25 April 1974, the economy weakened. Production, income, reserves, and annual growth fell drastically during 1974–76. Amidst labor–management conflict, there was a burst of strikes, and income and productivity plummeted. Ironically, one factor that cushioned the economic impact of the revolution was the significant gold reserve supply that the Estado Novo had accumulated, principally during Salazar’s years. Another factor was **emigration** from Portugal and the former colonies in Africa, which to a degree reduced pressures for employment. The sudden infusion of more than 600,000 refugees from Africa did increase the unemployment rate, which in 1975 was 10–15 percent. But, by 1990, the unemployment rate was down to about 5–6 percent.

After 1985, Portugal’s economy experienced high growth rates again, which averaged 4–5 percent through 1992. Substantial economic assistance from the EEC and individual countries such as the United States, as well as the political stability and administrative continuity that derived from majority **Social Democratic Party (PSD)** governments starting in mid-1987, supported new growth and development in the EEC’s second poorest country. With rapid infrastructural change and some unregulated development, Portugal’s leaders harbored a justifiable concern that a fragile environment and ecology were under new, unacceptable pressures. Among other improvements in the standard of living since 1974 was an increase in per capita income. By 1991, the average minimum monthly wage was

about 40,000 escudos, and per capita income was about \$5,000 per annum. By the end of the 20th century, despite continuing poverty at several levels in Portugal, Portugal's economy had made significant progress. In the space of 15 years, Portugal had halved the large gap in living standards between itself and the remainder of the EU. For example, when Portugal joined the EU in 1986, its GDP, in terms of purchasing power-parity, was only 53 percent of the EU average. By 2000, Portugal's GDP had reached 75 percent of the EU average, a considerable achievement. Whether Portugal could narrow this gap even further in a reasonable amount of time remained a sensitive question in Lisbon. Besides structural poverty and the fact that, in 2006, the EU largesse in structural funds (loans and grants) virtually ceased, a major challenge for Portugal's economy will be to reduce the size of the public sector (about 50 percent of GDP is in the central government) to increase productivity, attract outside investment, and diversify the economy. For Portugal's economic planners, the 21st century promises to be challenging. *See also* EMPIRE, PORTUGUESE OVERSEAS.

EDUCATION. In Portugal's early history, education was firmly under the control of the **Catholic Church**. The earliest schools were located in cathedrals and monasteries and taught a small number of individuals destined for ecclesiastical office. In 1290, a university was established by **King Dinis** (1261–1325) in Lisbon, but was moved to **Coimbra** in 1308, where it remained. **Coimbra University**, Portugal's oldest, and once its most prestigious, was the educational cradle of Portugal's leadership. From 1555 until the 18th century, primary and secondary education was provided by the Society of Jesus (Jesuits). The Catholic Church's educational monopoly was broken when the **Marquis of Pombal** expelled the Jesuits in 1759 and created the basis for Portugal's present system of public, secular primary and secondary schools. Pombal introduced vocational training, created hundreds of teaching posts, added departments of mathematics and natural sciences at Coimbra University, and established an education tax to pay for them.

During the 19th century, liberals attempted to reform Portugal's educational system, which was highly elitist and emphasized rote memorization and respect for authority, hierarchy, and discipline.

Reforms initiated in 1822, 1835, and 1844 were never actualized, however, and education remained unchanged until the early 20th century. After the overthrow of the monarchy on the **Fifth of October 1910** by Republican military officers, efforts to reform Portugal's educational system were renewed. New universities were founded in Lisbon and **Oporto**, a Ministry of Education was established, and efforts were made to increase literacy (illiteracy rates being 80 percent) and to res secularize educational content by introducing more scientific and empirical methods into the curriculum.

Such efforts were ended during the military dictatorship (1926–32), which governed Portugal until the establishment of the **Estado Novo** (1926–74). Although a new technical university was founded in Lisbon in 1930, little was done during the Estado Novo to modernize education or to reduce illiteracy. Only in 1964 was compulsory primary education made available for children between the ages of 6 and 12.

The **Revolution of 25 April 1974** disrupted Portugal's educational system. For a period of time after the Revolution, students, faculty, and administrators became highly politicized as socialists, communists, and other groups attempted to gain control of the schools. During the 1980s, as Portuguese politics moderated, the educational system was gradually depoliticized, greater emphasis was placed on learning, and efforts were made to improve the quality of Portuguese schools.

Primary education in Portugal consists of four years in the primary (first) cycle and two years in the preparatory, or second, cycle. The preparatory cycle is intended for children going on to secondary education. Secondary education is roughly equivalent to junior and senior high schools in the United States. It consists of three years of a common curriculum and two years of complementary courses (10th and 11th grades). A final year (12th grade) prepares students to take university entrance examinations.

Vocational education was introduced in 1983. It consists of a three-year course in a particular skill after the 11th grade of secondary school.

Higher education is provided by the four older universities (Lisbon, Coimbra, Oporto, and the Technical University of Lisbon), as well as by six newer universities, one in Lisbon and the others in Minho, Aveiro, Évora, the Algarve, and the Azores. There is also a private Catholic university in Lisbon. Admission to Portuguese universities

is highly competitive, and places are limited. About 10 percent of secondary students go on to university education. The average length of study at the university is five years, after which students receive their licentiate. The professoriate has four ranks (professors, associate professors, lecturers, and assistants). Professors have tenure, while the other ranks teach on contract.

As Portugal is a unitary state, the educational system is highly centralized. All public primary and secondary schools, universities, and educational institutes are under the purview of the Ministry of Education, and all teachers and professors are included in the civil service and receive pay and pension like other civil servants. The Ministry of Education hires teachers, determines curriculum, sets policy, and pays for the building and upkeep of schools. Local communities have little say in educational matters.

EGAS MONIZ, DR. ANTÓNIO CAETANO (1874–1955). Pioneer physician and neurosurgeon, sometime republican political figure, and minister during the First Republic, and Portugal's only Nobel Prize winner until 1998 (when the Nobel Prize in Literature was awarded to **José Saramago**). Trained as a doctor at **Coimbra University's** medical school, Egas Moniz was named a professor in 1902. In 1911, after having studied at several clinics in France, he was transferred to the Chair of Neurology at the University of Lisbon.

In 1903, he began his involvement in politics when he was elected a deputy to the monarchy's parliament. During the early and middle phases of the First Republic, Egas Moniz became one of the more important moderate republican personalities in the Constituent Assembly, a leading member of José Almeida's Evolutionist Party, a founder of the Centrist Party, and a staunch supporter of presidentialism and President **Sidónio Pais**. In a sense a prophet without honor during some of the more difficult phases of the turbulent republic, Egas Moniz was Portugal's minister to **Spain** in 1917–18, then minister of foreign affairs. During 1919, he headed Portugal's delegation to the Versailles Peace Conference. Exhausted and disillusioned with politics and government service by mid-1919, he devoted the remainder of his active life to medical practice and neurological research and writing.

In 1927, after intensive experimentation, Egas Moniz performed the first cerebral angiography on a patient; this X-ray provided vital

information on the brain in terms of blood circulation within it, the most significant finding in half a century. In 1935, he pioneered a new type of brain operation. His great contributions to medicine and to neurosurgery were finally recognized in 1949, when he was awarded the Nobel Prize in Medicine for the discovery of the uses of leucotomy in certain psychoses. His two fascinating memoirs (*Confidencias de um Investigador Científico*, 1949, and *A Nossa Casa*, 1950) are among the more significant and prescient of Portuguese memorial works in modern times. A tenacious collector of plastic **arts**, his collection is housed in the Egas Moniz House-Museum at Avana (near Aveiro), northern Portugal, and other memorabilia related to this outstanding scientist are located in the Egas Moniz Museum, Lisbon.

EMIGRATION. Traditionally, Portugal has been a country with a history of emigration to foreign lands, as well as to the overseas **empire**. During the early centuries of empire, only relatively small numbers of Portuguese emigrated to reside permanently in its colonies. After the establishment of the second, largely Brazilian empire in the 17th century, however, greater numbers of Portuguese left to seek their fortunes outside Europe. It was only toward the end of the 19th century, however, that Portuguese emigration became a mass movement, at first, largely to **Brazil**. While Portuguese-speaking Brazil was by far the most popular destination for the majority of Portuguese emigrants in early modern and modern times, after 1830, the **United States** and later Venezuela also became common destinations.

Portuguese emigration patterns have changed in the 20th century and, as the Portuguese historian and economist Oliveira Martins wrote before the turn of the century, Portuguese emigration rates are a kind of national barometer. Crises and related social, political, and economic conditions within Portugal, as well as the presence of established emigrant communities in various countries, emigration laws, and the world economy have combined to shape emigration rates and destinations.

After World War II, Brazil no longer remained the favorite destination of the majority of Portuguese emigrants who left Portugal to improve their lives and standards of living. Beginning in the 1950s, and swelling into a massive stream in the 1960s and into the 1970s,

most Portuguese emigrated to find work in **France** and, after the change in U.S. immigration laws in the mid-1960s, a steady stream went to North America, including Canada. The emigration figures here indicate that the most intensive emigration years coincided with excessive political turmoil and severe draft (army conscription) laws during the First Republic (1912 was the high point), that emigration dropped during World Wars I and II and during economic downturns such as the Depression, and that the largest flow of Portuguese emigration in history occurred after the onset of the African colonial wars (1961) and into the 1970s, as Portuguese sought emigration as a way to avoid conscription or assignment to Africa.

Despite considerable efforts by Lisbon to divert the stream of emigrants from Brazil or France to the African territories of **Angola** and **Mozambique**, this colonization effort failed, and most Portuguese who left Portugal preferred the better pay and security of jobs in France and West Germany or in the United States, Venezuela, and Brazil, where there were more deeply rooted Portuguese emigrant communities. At the time of the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, when the military coup in Lisbon signaled the beginning of pressures for the Portuguese settlers to leave Africa, the total number of Portuguese resident in the two larger African territories amounted to about 600,000. In modern times, nonimperial Portuguese emigration has prevailed over imperial emigration and has had a significant impact on Portugal's annual budget (due to emigrants' remittances), the political system (since emigrants have a degree of absentee voting rights), investment and **economy**, and culture.

Portuguese Emigration Overseas (figures rounded off; does not include illegal emigration)

| | |
|---------|------------------------------------|
| 1887 | 17,000 |
| 1900ca. | 17,000 (mainly to Brazil) |
| 1910 | 39,000 |
| 1912 | 88,000 (75,000 of these to Brazil) |
| 1930ca. | 30,000 (Great Depression) |
| 1940ca. | 8,800 |
| 1950 | 41,000 |
| 1955 | 57,000 |
| 1960 | 67,000 |
| 1965 | 131,000 |
| 1970 | 209,000 |

A total of 4 million Portuguese reside and work outside Portugal as of 2009, over one-third of the country's continental and island population. It has also been said that more Portuguese of Azorean descent reside outside the Azores than in the Azores. The following statistics reflect the pattern of Portuguese emigrant communities in the world outside the mother country.

**Overseas Portuguese Communities Population Figures
by Country of Residence (estimates for 2002)**

| | |
|------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Brazil | 1,000,000 |
| France | 650,000 |
| S. Africa | 600,000 |
| USA | 500,000 |
| Canada | 400,000 |
| Venezuela | 400,000 |
| W. Europe | 175,000 (besides France and Germany) |
| Germany | 125,000 |
| Britain (UK) | 60,000 (including Channel Islands) |
| Lusophone Africa | 50,000 |
| Australia | 50,000 |
| Total: | 4,010,000 (estimate) |

EMPIRE, PORTUGUESE OVERSEAS (1415–1975). Portugal was the first Western European state to establish an early modern overseas empire beyond the Mediterranean and perhaps the last colonial power to decolonize. A vast subject of complexity that is full of myth as well as debatable theories, the history of the Portuguese overseas empire involves the story of more than one empire, the question of imperial motives, the nature of Portuguese rule, and the results and consequences of empire, including the impact on subject peoples as well as on the mother country and its society. Here, only the briefest account of a few such issues can be attempted.

There were various empires or phases of empire after the capture of the Moroccan city of Ceuta in 1415. There were at least three Portuguese empires in history: the First empire (1415–1580), the Second empire (1580–1640 and 1640–1822), and the Third empire (1822–1975).

With regard to the second empire, the so-called Phillipine period (1580–1640), when Portugal's empire was under Spanish domina-

tion, could almost be counted as a separate era. During that period, Portugal lost important parts of its Asian holdings to England and also sections of its colonies of **Brazil**, **Angola**, and West Africa to Holland's conquests. These various empires could be characterized by the geography of where Lisbon invested its greatest efforts and resources to develop territories and ward off enemies.

The first empire (1415–1580) had two phases. First came the African coastal phase (1415–97), when the Portuguese sought a foothold in various Moroccan cities but then explored the African coast from Morocco to past the Cape of Good Hope in South Africa. While colonization and sugar farming were pursued in the Atlantic islands, as well as in the islands in the Gulf of Guinea like **São Tomé and Príncipe**, for the most part the Portuguese strategy was to avoid commitments to defending or peopling lands on the African continent. Rather, Lisbon sought a seaborne **trade** empire, in which the Portuguese could profit from exploiting trade and resources (such as gold) along the coasts and continue exploring southward to seek a sea route to **Portuguese India**. The second phase of the first empire (1498–1580) began with the discovery of the sea route to Asia, thanks to **Vasco da Gama**'s first voyage in 1497–99, and the capture of strong points, ports, and trading posts in order to enforce a trade monopoly between Asia and Europe. This Asian phase produced the greatest revenues of empire Portugal had garnered, yet ended when **Spain** conquered Portugal and commanded her empire as of 1580.

Portugal's second overseas empire began with Spanish domination and ran to 1822, when Brazil won her independence from Portugal. This phase was characterized largely by Brazilian dominance of imperial commitment, wealth in minerals and other raw materials from Brazil, and the loss of a significant portion of her African and Asian coastal empire to Holland and **Great Britain**. A sketch of Portugal's imperial losses either to native rebellions or to imperial rivals like Britain and Holland follows:

- Morocco (North Africa) (sample only)
 - Arzila—Taken in 1471; evacuated in 1550s; lost to Spain in 1580, which returned city to a sultan.
 - Ceuta—Taken in 1415; lost to Spain in 1640 (loss confirmed in 1668 treaty with Spain).

- Tangiers—Taken in 15th century; handed over to England in 1661 as part of Catherine of Braganza's dowry to King Charles II.
- West Africa
 - Fort/Castle of São Jorge da Mina, Gold Coast (in what is now Ghana)—Taken in 1480s; lost to Holland in 1630s.
- Middle East
 - Socotra-isle—Conquered in 1507; fort abandoned in 1511; used as water resupply stop for India fleet.
 - Muscat—Conquered in 1501; lost to Persians in 1650.
 - Ormuz—Taken, 1505–15 under Albuquerque; lost to England, which gave it to Persia in the 17th century.
 - Aden (entry to Red Sea)—Unsuccessfully attacked by Portugal (1513–30); taken by Turks in 1538.
- India
 - Ceylon (Sri Lanka)—Taken by 1516; lost to Dutch after 1600.
 - Bombay—Taken in 16th century; given to England in 1661 treaty as part of Catherine of Braganza's dowry for Charles II.
- East Indies
 - Moluccas—Taken by 1520; possession confirmed in 1529 Saragossa treaty with Spain; lost to Dutch after 1600; only East Timor remaining.

After the restoration of Portuguese independence from Spain in 1640, Portugal proceeded to revive and strengthen the **Anglo-Portuguese Alliance**, with international aid to fight off further Spanish threats to Portugal and drive the Dutch invaders out of Brazil and Angola. While Portugal lost its foothold in West Africa at Mina to the Dutch, dominion in Angola was consolidated. The most vital part of the imperial **economy** was a triangular trade: slaves from West Africa and from the coasts of Congo and Angola were shipped to plantations in Brazil; raw materials (sugar, tobacco, gold, diamonds, dyes) were sent to Lisbon; Lisbon shipped Brazil colonists and hardware. Part of Portugal's War of Restoration against Spain (1640–68) and its reclaiming of Brazil and Angola from Dutch intrusions was financed by the **New Christians** (Jews converted to Christianity after

the 1496 Manueline order of expulsion of Jews) who lived in Portugal, Holland and other low countries, France, and Brazil. If the first empire was mainly an African coastal and Asian empire, the second empire was primarily a Brazilian empire.

Portugal's third overseas empire began upon the traumatic independence of Brazil, the keystone of the Lusitanian enterprise, in 1822. The loss of Brazil greatly weakened Portugal both as a European power and as an imperial state, for the scattered remainder of largely coastal, poor, and uncolonized territories that stretched from the bulge of West Africa to **East Timor** in the East Indies and **Macau** in south China were more of a financial liability than an asset. Only two small territories balanced their budgets occasionally or made profits: the cocoa islands of São Tomé and Príncipe in the Gulf of Guinea and tiny Macau, which lost much of its advantage as an entrepôt between the West and the East when the British annexed neighboring Hong Kong in 1842. The others were largely burdens on the treasury. The African colonies were strapped by a chronic economic problem: at a time when the slave trade and then **slavery** were being abolished under pressures from Britain and other Western powers, the economies of **Guinea-Bissau**, São Tomé/Príncipe, Angola, and **Mozambique** were totally dependent on revenues from the slave trade and slavery. During the course of the 19th century, Lisbon began a program to reform colonial administration in a newly rejuvenated African empire, where most of the imperial efforts were expended, by means of replacing the slave trade and slavery, with legitimate economic activities.

Portugal participated in its own early version of the "Scramble" for Africa's interior during 1850–69, but discovered that the costs of imperial expansion were too high to allow effective occupation of the hinterlands. After 1875, Portugal participated in the international "Scramble for Africa" and consolidated its holdings in west and southern Africa, despite the failure of the contra-coast (to the opposite coast) plan, which sought to link up the interiors of Angola and Mozambique with a corridor in central Africa. Portugal's expansion into what is now Malawi, Zambia, and Zimbabwe (eastern section) in 1885–90 was thwarted by its oldest ally, Britain, under pressure from interest groups in South Africa, Scotland, and England. All things considered, Portugal's colonizing resources and energies were

overwhelmed by the African empire it possessed after the frontier-marking treaties of 1891–1906. Lisbon could barely administer the massive area of five African colonies, whose total area comprised about 8 percent of the area of the colossal continent. The African territories alone were many times the size of tiny Portugal and, as of 1914, Portugal was the third colonial power in terms of size of area possessed in the world.

The politics of Portugal's empire were deceptive. Lisbon remained obsessed with the fear that rival colonial powers, especially Germany and Britain, would undermine and then dismantle her African empire. This fear endured well into World War II. In developing and keeping her potentially rich African territories (especially mineral-rich Angola and strategically located Mozambique), however, the race against time was with herself and her subject peoples. Two major problems, both chronic, prevented Portugal from effective colonization (i.e., settling) and development of her African empire: the economic weakness and underdevelopment of the mother country and the fact that the bulk of Portuguese **emigration** after 1822 went to Brazil, Venezuela, the United States, and France, not to the colonies. These factors made it difficult to consolidate imperial control until it was too late; that is, until local African nationalist movements had organized and taken the field in insurgency wars that began in three of the colonies during the years 1961–64.

Portugal's belated effort to revitalize control and to develop, in the truest sense of the word, Angola and Mozambique after 1961 had to be set against contemporary events in Europe, Africa, and Asia. While Portugal held on to a backward empire, other European countries like Britain, France, and Belgium were rapidly decolonizing their empires. Portugal's failure or unwillingness to divert the large streams of emigrants to her empire after 1850 remained a constant factor in this question. Prophetic were the words of the 19th-century economist Joaquim Oliveira Martins, who wrote in 1880 that Brazil was a better colony for Portugal than Africa and that the best colony of all would have been Portugal itself. As of the day of the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, which sparked the final process of decolonization of the remainder of Portugal's third overseas empire, the results of the colonization program could be seen to be modest compared to the numbers of Portuguese emigrants outside the empire. Moreover,

within a year, of some 600,000 Portuguese residing permanently in Angola and Mozambique, all but a few thousand had fled to South Africa or returned to Portugal.

In 1974 and 1975, most of the Portuguese empire was decolonized or, in the case of **East Timor**, invaded and annexed by a foreign power before it could consolidate its independence. Only historic **Macau**, scheduled for transfer to the People's Republic of China in 1999, remained nominally under Portuguese control as a kind of footnote to imperial history. If Portugal now lacked a conventional overseas empire and was occupied with the challenges of integration in the **European Union (EU)**, Lisbon retained another sort of informal dependency that was a new kind of empire: the empire of her scattered overseas Portuguese communities from North America to South America. Their numbers were at least six times greater than that of the last settlers of the third empire. *See also* LUSO-TROPICALISM; ROSE-COLORED MAP; ULTIMATUM, ENGLISH.

ENGLAND. *See* GREAT BRITAIN.

EQUESTRIANISM. Equestrianism or Equitation has an ancient tradition in Portugal. Although today this sport of horseback riding, which is related to the art and science of horse breeding, is a peaceful activity, for centuries Portugal's use of the horse in cavalry was closely associated with war. Beginning in the 18th century, the activity became connected to **bull-fighting**. In war, the Portuguese used horse cavalry longer than most other European nations. While most armies gave up the horse for mechanized cavalry or tanks after World War I, Portugal was reluctant to change this tradition. Oddly, Portugal used a specialized form of cavalry in combat as late as 1969–1971, in **Angola**, a colony of Portugal until 1975. Portugal's army in Angola, engaged in a war with Angolan nationalist forces, employed the so-called "Dragoons," a specialized cavalry in rural areas, until 1971, a case perhaps of the last use of cavalry in modern warfare.

Soccer, or *futebol*, is Portugal's favorite mass sport today, but equestrianism retains a special place in sports as a now democratized, if somewhat elite, sport for both Portuguese and visiting foreign riders. As of 1900, equestrianism was still the sport of royalty and aristocracy, but in the 21st century persons from all classes and

groups enjoy it. The sport now features the unique **Lusitano** breed of horse, which evolved from earlier breeds of Iberian ponies and horses. Touring equestrianism recently has become an activity of niche **tourism**, and it is complemented by international competitive riding. Following the early 20th century, when the Olympics were revived, Portuguese competitors have excelled not only in sailing, field hockey on roller-skates, rowing, and marksmanship, but also in equestrianism. Notable Portuguese riders were medal winners in summer Olympics such as those of 1948 and 1988. This sport is engaged in primarily if not exclusively in regions with a history of horse breeding, riding, and cattle herding, in Ribatejo and Alentejo provinces, and has featured career military participants.

Portuguese equestrianism, including the use of horses in bull-fighting, hunting, and other forms of sport, as well as in horse cavalry in war, was long associated with the lifestyles of royalty and the nobility. The use of traditional, Baroque riding gear and garb in competitive riding, instruction, and bull-fighting reflects such a tradition. Riders in bull-fighting or in exhibitions wear 18th-century male costumes that include a tricornered hat, long frock coats, breeches, stockings, and buckled shoes. The Ribatejo “cowboy” or riding herder wears the regional costume of a green and red cap, red tunic, white breeches and stockings, Portuguese bridles, and chaps sometimes made of olive leaves.

Although their prestigious classical riding academy remains less well known than the famous Spanish Riding School of Vienna, Portugal has preserved the ancient tradition of a classical riding school in its Royal School of Portuguese Equestrian Arts, at Queluz, not far from the National Palace of Queluz, a miniature Portuguese Versailles, with a hall of mirrors, tiled garden, and canal. One of the great riding masters and trainers was the late Nuno Oliveira (1925–89), whose work generated a worldwide network of students and followers and who published classic riding manuals. Oliveira’s widely admired method of instruction was to bring about a perfect harmony of action between horse and rider, an inspiration to new generations of riders. *See also* QUELUZ, NATIONAL PALACE OF.

ESTADO NOVO. The name of the Portuguese regime from 1930 until the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**. The term “New State” may have

been influenced by an earlier regime's name for itself, República Nova or "New Republic," led by President **Sidónio Pais** (1917–18) during in the First Republic (1910–26). The name Estado Novo appears for the first time in 1930, during the military phase; it caught on with supporters of the regime and became official. The Estado Novo was a version of the extremely nationalistic regimes that came to power in Europe after World War I. The Portuguese version was strongly influenced by conservative **Catholic** social doctrines, which held that society was organically hierarchical and church and state were closely allied. The relationship of the individual to society and the state was mediated through his or her membership in natural "orders," such as the family. The conservative Catholicism of the Estado Novo emphasized discipline, obedience, dedication, and sacrifice. It was opposed to the liberal doctrines of the French Revolution (individualism, separation of church and state, democracy), as well as to the socialist doctrines of the Russian Revolution (collectivism, atheism, etc). *See also* CORPORATIVISM; SALAZAR, ANTÓNIO DE OLIVEIRA; SALAZARISM; TWENTY-EIGHTH OF MAY.

ESTORIL. Composed of the towns of São Pedro, São João, Monte Estoril, and Estoril, and located about 32 kilometers (15 miles) west of **Lisbon** along the coast, Estoril forms the heart of a **tourist** region. Once described in tourist literature as the Sun Coast (*Costa do Sol*), this coast—in order not to be confused with a region with a similar name in neighboring Spain (Costa del Sol)—has been renamed the "Lisbon Coast." Its origins go back to several developments in the late 19th century that encouraged the building of a resort area that would take advantage of the coast's fine climate and beaches from Carcavelos to Cascais. Sporty **King Carlos I** (r. 1889–1908) and his court liked summering in Cascais (apparently the first tennis in Portugal was played here), then only a simple fishing village. There are medicinal spring waters in Estoril, and the inauguration (1889) of a new train line from Lisbon to Cascais provided a convenient way of bringing in visitors before the age of automobiles and superhighways.

As a high-class resort town, Estoril was developed beginning in the 1920s and 1930s, due in part to the efforts of the entrepreneur Fausto de Figueiredo, whose memorial statue graces the now famous Casino Gardens. Soon Estoril possessed a gambling casino, restaurants, and several fine hotels.

Estoril's beginnings as a small but popular international resort and watering spot were slow and difficult, however, and what Estoril became was determined in part by international economy and politics. The resort's backers and builders modeled Estoril to a degree on Nice, a much larger, older, and better-known resort in the French Riviera. The name "Estoril," in fact, which was not found on Portuguese maps before the 20th century, was a Portuguese corruption of the French word for a mountain range near Nice. Estoril hotel designs, such as that of reputedly the most luxurious hotel outside Lisbon, the Hotel Palácio-Estoril, looked to earlier hotel designs on the French Riviera.

It was remarkable, too, that Estoril's debut as a resort area with full services (hotels, casino, beach, spa) and sports (golf, tennis, swimming) happened to coincide with the depth of the world Depression (1929–34) that seemed to threaten its future. Less expensive, with a more reliably mild year-round climate and closer to **Great Britain** and North America than the older French Riviera, the "Sun Coast" that featured Estoril had many attractions. The resort's initial prosperity was guaranteed when large numbers of middle-class and wealthy Spaniards migrated to the area after 1931, during the turbulent Spanish Republic and subsequent bloody Civil War (1936–39). World War II (when Portugal was neutral) and the early stages of the Cold War only enhanced the Sun Coast's resort reputation. After 1939, numbers of displaced and dethroned royalty from Europe came to Portugal to live in a sunny, largely tax-free climate. In the early 1950s, Estoril's casino became known to millions of readers and armchair travelers when it was featured in one of the early James Bond books by Ian Fleming, *Casino Royale* (1953). In the 1980s and 1990s, the Casino was expanded and rehabilitated, while the Hotel Palacio Estoril was given a face-lift along with a new railroad station and the addition of more elegant restaurants and shops. In 2003, in the Estoril Post Office building, a Museum of Exiles and Refugees of World War II was opened.

ESTRELA MOUNTAINS. The Estrela mountain range (Serra da Estrela), about 120 kilometers (75 miles) long, in the Beira Alta district of north-central Portugal, boasts the highest peaks in the country. The highest point is about 1,992 meters (6,532 feet). Frequently seen

from neighboring areas, the snowcapped peaks of the Estrela (“star” in Portuguese) mountains feature Portugal’s only winter downhill skiing facilities. Iberian wolves still roam the Estrela Mountains and are featured in local oral traditions.

ETHNIC MINORITIES. Traditionally and for a half millennium, Portugal has been a country of emigration, but in recent decades it has become a country of net immigration. During Portugal’s long period of overseas **empire**, beginning in the 15th century, there was always more emigration overseas than immigration to Portugal. There were, nevertheless, populations of natives of Africa, Asia, and the Americas who came to Portugal during the 1450–1975 era. Historians continue to debate the actual numbers of migrants of African descent to Portugal during this period, but records suggest that the resident African population in Portugal during the 16th, 17th, and 18th centuries was a minority of some consequence but not as large as previously imagined.

After the wars of independence in Africa began in 1961, and after India conquered and annexed former Portuguese Goa, Damão, and Diu in December of that year, Portugal began to receive more migrants from Asia and Africa than before. First came political refugees carrying Portuguese passports from former Portuguese India; these left India for Portugal in the early 1960s. But the larger numbers came from Portugal’s former colonial territories in Africa, especially from Angola, Mozambique, and Guinea-Bissau; these sought refuge from civil wars and conflicts following the end of the colonial wars and independence from Portugal. While a considerable number of the refugee wave of 1975–76 from these territories were of African as well as Afro–European descent, larger numbers of African migrants began to arrive in the 1980s. A major impetus for their migration to Portugal was to escape civil wars in **Angola** and **Mozambique**.

Another wave of migrants of European descent came beginning in the 1990s, primarily from Ukraine, Russia, Rumania, and Moldova. Following the fall of the Berlin Wall in November 1989, and the implosion of the Soviet Union, migrants from these countries arrived in Portugal in some number. At about the same time, there arrived migrants from **Brazil** and another former colony of Portugal, the isolated, poverty-stricken **Cape Verde Islands**. The largest number of

foreign immigrants in Portugal continue to be the Brazilians and the Cape Verdeans, whose principal **language** is also Portuguese.

Different ethnic migrant groups tended to work in certain occupations; for example, Brazilians were largely professional people, including dentists and technicians. Cape Verdeans, by and large, as well as numbers of other African migrants from former Portuguese African territories, worked in the construction industry or in restaurants and hotels. As of 2004, the non-**European Union (EU)** migrant population was over 374,000, while the EU migrant numbers were about 74,000.

Of the foreign migrants from EU countries, the largest community was the British, with as many as 20,000 residents, with smaller numbers from France, Germany, Italy, and **Spain**. About 9,000 Americans reside in Portugal. Unlike many migrants from the non-EU countries noted above, who sought safety and a way to make a decent living, migrants from Europe and the **United States** include many who seek a comfortable retirement in Portugal, with its warm, sunny climate, fine cuisine, and security.

Legal Foreign Residents from non-European Union Countries (1999–2004)

| 1999 | 2004 |
|----------------------|------------------------|
| Brazil 20,851 | Brazil 66,907 |
| Cape Verde Isl. | Cape Verde Isl. 64,164 |
| Angola 17,721 | Angola 35,264 |
| Guinea Bissau 25,148 | |
| São Tomé 10,483 | |
| Mozambique 5,472 | |
| Ukraine 66,227 | |
| Romania 12,155 | |
| Moldova 13,689 | |

EUROPEAN ECONOMIC COMMUNITY. *See* EUROPEAN UNION.

EUROPEAN UNION (EU). In 1978, Portugal began accession negotiations with the EU. In January 1986, along with **Spain**, Portugal joined that organization. Since joining the EU, Portugal's economy has received many benefits: loans, grants, technical assistance, and

other economic, social, and educational advantages that are worth billions of dollars. Most of Portugal's trade is with EU members, and Portugal's economy is tied now to EU plans and planning, standards and rules, and philosophy. Starting in January 1993, by previous agreement, all EU tariff barriers for many goods (excluding agricultural goods until 1995–96, in Portugal's case) were removed, and there is concern in Portugal that many small and medium-sized businesses (which are the norm) will not survive the new competition from richer member state. Next to Greece, Portugal remains the poorest, least-developed EU member state, and there is anxiety in Lisbon that, following new pressures for the EU to give massive assistance to former Soviet bloc countries in Eastern Europe and to allow them in time to join the EU, Portugal will be at a disadvantage. Despite complaints about the bureaucracy inherent in the EU, many Portuguese value the connection and acknowledge that Portugal has benefited from EU technical assistance, networking, loans, and grants. In 1999, Portugal joined the European Monetary Union (EMU) and, in January 2000, adopted the *euro*. This has helped Portugal stabilize its currency and financial connections. In 2004, **José Durão Barroso**, a Portuguese politician, was elected President of the Commission of the European Union. *See* ECONOMY; CURRENCY.

ÉVORA, CITY OF. Located about 140 kilometers (68 miles) southeast of **Lisbon**, the city of Évora is the capital of Évora district, and formerly the capital of old Alentejo province. Its current population is over 35,000. In Roman **Lusitania**, its name was Liberalitas Julia. Conquered by various invaders thereafter, including the Muslims, the city was reconquered by the Christian Portuguese in 1165. For a time during the 15th and 16th centuries, Évora was the site of the royal court's residence. It has a unique architectural heritage, and its center includes a Roman temple (Temple of Diana), as well as many medieval and Renaissance buildings in Gothic, **Manueline**, and the later Baroque styles. Like Tomar, Santarém, **Braga**, **Coimbra**, and Óbidos, Évora can be classified as a museum-city. Recognizing this, on 25 November 1986, UNESCO declared Évora's city center to be protected and registered as a "World Treasure" and a "Patrimony of Humanity," the first time such honors were granted to a Portuguese city. In addition to the Corinthian-styled Roman Temple of Diana,

Évora has the oldest standing aqueduct in Portugal (ca. mid-16th century). In the 1980s, the University of Évora was revived. There is also a reconstructed Roman aqueduct in Évora, as well as a 13th-century Gothic cathedral. *See also* PROVINCES, PORTUGAL'S HISTORIC.

EXPO '98. Portugal's world's fair, held from May to October 1998, set in **Lisbon**. Designed to commemorate and celebrate the 500th anniversary of **Vasco da Gama's** 1498 discovery of an all-water route to India, this was an ambitious undertaking for a small country with a developing economy. The setting of the exposition was remote eastern Lisbon, along the banks of the **Tagus** estuary. To facilitate logistics, Portugal opened a new Metro station (Oriente) for the Expo and the new Vasco da Gama Bridge, just northeast of the site. More than 10 million visitors, many of them from abroad but a large proportion from **Spain** and Portugal, arrived at the site by Metro, bus, taxi, or car and were guided by signs in three languages: Portuguese, Spanish, and English. To the dismay of Francophones, the choice of English and Spanish reflected both the nature of the globalization process and Portugal's growing connections with Europe and the wider world.

The theme of Expo '98 was "The Oceans, Heritage for the Future," and the official mascot-symbol was "Gil," a cartoon characterization of a drop of ocean water, based on the suggestion of schoolchildren from the small town of Barrancos. Somewhat in the spirit of Disney's Mickey Mouse, "Gil" reflected cheeriness, but his message was serious, alerting the public to the fact that the oceans were endangered and fresh drinking water increasingly in short supply for a burgeoning world population. Among the outstanding structures at Expo '98 was the Pavilion of Portugal, designed by Portuguese architect **Álvaro Siza Vieira**, and the Pavilion of the Oceans or the Oceanarium (which remained open to the public after the exposition closed), which was designed by an American architect.

Despite the general success of the fair, critics gave mixed reviews to the historic commemoration of the Discoveries facets of the effort. No vessel from Vasco da Gama's 1497–99 famous voyage was reproduced at the fair's dockside exhibit—although there was a 19th-century sailing vessel and a reproduction of one of the vessels from Christopher Columbus's first voyage, constructed by Portuguese in

Madeira—nor was there much else on Vasco da Gama in the Pavilion of Portugal. Instead, visitors were impressed with a multimedia show based on knowledge of a Portuguese shipwreck, a 17th-century nau, found by archaeologists in recent years. The sound and light show in this lovely space was magnificent. The most popular exhibits were the Oceanarium and the Utopia Pavilion, where lines could be hours long. Despite the fact that Expo '98 made only a weak effort to attract visitors from outside Europe, the general consensus was that it was a successful enterprise, unique in Portugal's record of historic and contemporary expositions since 1940. *See also* COMMEMORATIONS, PORTUGUESE HISTORIC.

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FADO. Traditional urban song and music sung by a man or woman, to the accompaniment of two stringed instruments. The Portuguese word, *fado*, derives from the Latin word for fate (*fatum*), and the *fado*'s usage does not distinguish the sex of the singer. Traditionally, wherever the *fado* is performed, the singer, the *fadista*—who is often but not always a woman wearing a shawl around her shoulders—is accompanied by the Portuguese *guitarra*, a 12-stringed mandolin-like instrument or lute, and the *viola*, a Spanish guitar. There are at least two contemporary variations of the *fado*: the Lisbon *fado* and the Coimbra or university student *fado*. While some authorities describe the song as typical of the urban working classes, its popularity and roots are wider than only this group and it appears that, although the song's historic origins are urban and working class, its current popularity is more universal. The historic origins of the *fado* are not only obscure but hotly debated among scholars and would-be experts. Some suggest that its origins are Brazilian and African, while others detect a Muslim, North African element mixed with Hispanic.

After the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, there was talk that the *fado*'s days were numbered as a popular song because it seemed an obsolete, regime-encouraged entertainment, which, like a drug or soporific, encouraged passivity. In the new Portugal, however, the *fado* is still popular among various classes, as well as among an increasingly large number of visitors and **tourists**. The *fado* is

performed in restaurants, cafes, and special *fado* houses, not only in Portugal and other Lusophone countries like **Brazil**, but wherever Portuguese communities gather abroad. Although there do not appear to be schools of *fado*, *fadistas* learn their trade by apprenticeship to senior performers, both men and women.

In *fado* history, Portugal's most celebrated *fadista* was **Amália Rodrigues**, who died in 1999. She made her premier American debut in New York's Carnegie Hall in the 1950s, at about the same time Americans were charmed by a popular song of the day, *April in Portugal*, an American version of a traditional Portuguese *fado* called *Fado de Coimbra*, about **Coimbra University's** romantic traditions. The most celebrated *fadista* of the first decade of the 21st century is **Marisa dos Reis Nunes**, with the stage name of **Mariza**, who embodies a new generation of singers' contemporary interpretation of *fado*. The predominant tone of the Lisbon variation of the *fado*, sung often in the areas of Alfama, Mouraria, Bairro Alto, and Alcântara, is that of nostalgia and *saudade*—sadness and regret. Traditionally, the Coimbra version has a lighter, less somber tone. *See also* SANTOS, JOSE MANUEL CERQUEIRA AFONSO.

FÁTIMA. Village in central Portugal, site of a Catholic shrine and pilgrimage center, and place associated with the cult of Our Lady of Fátima. Near this small village in the so-called “Cove of the Lions,” the Virgin Mary reportedly appeared before three peasant children, on the 13th of each month, from May to October 1917. The children were told that they were being addressed by Our Lady of the Rosary, and that a chapel should be built there in her honor. Fátima soon became, in effect, the Portuguese Lourdes, one of the great Catholic shrines and pilgrimage centers. In 1932, the **Catholic Church** authorized devotion to Our Lady of Fátima, and a large shrine and basilica were constructed near the site of the incidents. In 1967, Pope Paul VI visited Fátima. Fátima has become a center of devotion for millions of persons in recent decades, as well as the topic of a continuing controversy between believers and skeptics and critics. Debates about the significance of what happened at Fátima in 1917 and the aftermath will continue, but it is a fact that the development of Fátima as a Catholic shrine and pilgrimage center occurred amidst a Catholic revival in Portugal during the first third of the 20th century.

FERRO, ANTÓNIO (1895–1956). Writer, journalist, cultural leader, and diplomat in the early and middle phases of the **Estado Novo**. Born into a family with strong republican sympathies and enrolled as a student in Lisbon University's Law Faculty, Ferro soon abandoned his faith in the chaotic republic, quit studying law, and became a poet, writer, and journalist. His reputation as a modernist and nationalist who was also a cosmopolitan, celebrated, prolific, and well-traveled journalist was acquired during the years 1917–33, when his publications attracted much public attention. Ferro published best-selling accounts include exclusive personal interviews of right-wing dictators in Italy, **Spain**, and other countries; portraits of the **United States**, including Hollywood in the 1920s; and a depiction of the turbulent Spanish Republic prior to the Spanish Civil War.

The best-selling book that brought Ferro a key government job with the Estado Novo was composed of a series of 1932 interviews with Portugal's dictator, *Salazar-O Homem e a Sua Obra* (1933). This sensational book advanced an appealing image of **António de Oliveira Salazar**, recently appointed premier by the military. The next year, Salazar invited Ferro to head the government's new information arm, Secretariado de Propaganda Nacional, which was renamed Secretariado Nacional da Informação (SNI) in 1944. From 1933 to 1949, Ferro directed this agency. Later alienated by the political situation, he was posted as a diplomat to Berne and Rome. Ferro married the Lisbon-based writer Maria Fernanda de Castro (1900–94). She collaborated with him on many writing and film projects. Ferro's so-called "policy of the Spirit" was a cultural policy that blended modernism, nationalism, and conservative values in the plastic and performing arts, film, and literature. After his diplomatic service abroad, he died in Lisbon. *See also* ART; CINEMA; LITERATURE.

FIDALGO. Refers to a noble or person of noble lineage. The word derives from the expression *filho de algo* (son of something), which came into common usage during the 13th century in Portugal, with an equivalent in neighboring **Spain**. Eventually, the word became synonymous with "noble" and implied possession of "wealth." Entry into the class of *fidalgos* was highly desirable, and service in the overseas **empire** after 1415 could provide the impetus for such social mobility.

FIFTH OF OCTOBER. An important national holiday called “Republic Day” in Portugal. It commemorates 5 October 1910, when republican forces overthrew the monarchy and established the first Portuguese republic (1910–26). During the **Estado Novo** (1926–74), republicans and other opponents of the authoritarian regime would mark that day in pilgrimages and political meetings at **Lisbon** cemeteries where the honored dead from the First Republic lie in tombs and graves. Since the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, the Fifth of October has reassumed greater importance as a national holiday.

FILIPE I, KING (1527–1598). Known to history usually as Phillip II of **Spain**, this Spanish monarch was the first king of the Phillipine dynasty in Portugal, or Filipe I. He ruled Portugal and its **empire** from 1580 to 1598. The son of Carlos V (Charles V) of Spain and the Hapsburg empire and of Queen Isabel of Portugal, Filipe had a strong claim on the throne of Portugal. On the death of Portugal’s **King Sebastião** in battle in Morocco in 1578, Filipe presented his claim and candidacy for the Portuguese throne. In the **Cortes** of Almeirim (1579), Filipe was officially recognized as king of Portugal by that assembly, which was dominated by the clerical and noble estates. This act, however, did not take into account the feeling of the Portuguese people. A portion of the people supported a Portuguese claimant, the **Prior of Crato**, and they began to organize armed resistance to the Spanish intrusion. In 1580, Filipe sent a Spanish army across the Portuguese frontier under the Duke of Alba. Both on land and at sea, Spanish forces defeated the Portuguese. At the Cortes of Tomar (1581), Filipe was proclaimed king of Portugal. Before returning to Spain in 1583, Filipe resided in Portugal.

There were grave consequences for Portugal and its scattered imperial holdings following the Spanish overthrow of Portugal’s hard-won independence. Just how bitter these consequences were is reflected in how Portuguese history and literature traditionally term the Spanish takeover as “The Babylonian Captivity.” Portugal suffered from the growing decline, decadence, and weaknesses of its Spanish master. Beginning with the destruction of the Spanish Armada (1588), which used Lisbon as its supply and staging point, Spanish rule over Portugal was disastrous. Not only did Spain’s inveterate enemies—especially **England**, **France**, and Holland—at-

tack continental Portugal as if it were Spain, they also attacked and conquered portions of Portugal's vulnerable, far-flung empire.

FIRST OF DECEMBER. Until recently, an official Portuguese national holiday each year. On 1 December 1640, in Lisbon, a Portuguese revolution overthrew Spanish rule and restored an independent monarchy. Afterward, the First of December was celebrated as a holiday to impart feelings of national loyalty and patriotism in the people and mark the end of the 60-year period of Portugal's subjugation to Phillipine **Spain**. *See also* FILIPE I, KING; WAR OF RESTORATION.

FIRST OF MAY. An important holiday for organized labor, and a Labor Day for many countries in Europe, among them Portugal. Traditionally, beginning in the last decades of the monarchy, this was a day when labor groups, including unions of laborers, would demonstrate and commemorate European Labor Day in Portugal. When trade unions were given legal status during the First Republic, the First of May was a day during which labor openly organized demonstrations of solidarity and strength. During the **Estado Novo**, when traditional unions did not enjoy legal status but were required to be part of official labor syndicates in the **corporatist** system, May First was a day when labor challenged the regime's labor policies and its control of the streets. An important test of democratic Portugal occurred on 1 May 1974, following the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**. Freedom to celebrate that labor holiday was present, but some observers feared violence, disorder, and confusion as long-repressed forces of labor emerged in the streets. That May First celebration, however, went smoothly; media estimates were that 1 million Portuguese marched in the capital's streets peacefully that day.

FISHING. Portugal's long coastline and seafaring tradition have made fishing an important economic activity. The country's main fishing ports and centers of commercial fish processing are **Lisbon**, Setúbal, Matosinhos, and Portimão. The most important of the 200 species of fish caught in adjacent waters are anchovy, sardines, mackerel, stickleback, and tunny. While most fish caught by Portuguese fishermen is consumed locally, sardines, canned in oil, are exported.

During the **Estado Novo**, fishermen were organized into mixed employer–employee organizations called *casas dos pescadores*, but these were underfunded, and, because no attempt was made to modernize the industry, fishing stagnated. Cod fishing off Greenland and Newfoundland, at one time a major aspect of the Portuguese fishing industry, went into decline and has all but disappeared owing to the failure of Portugal to modernize its cod-fishing fleet and adopt modern fishing techniques. This has meant that Portugal has had to purchase foreign-caught cod to satisfy local demand for *bacalhau* (codfish), the country's national dish since the 15th century. *See also* ECONOMY.

FLAG, PORTUGUESE NATIONAL. Portugal's national flag was adopted under the First Republic on 19 June 1911. In the center of two fields of bright green and red, which symbolize Portugal's land and the blood shed for the good of the nation, are two shields superimposed on an armillary sphere in yellow. Most significant is the use of the symbol of the armillary sphere, which suggests Portugal's historic role in exploration of the globe and the spirit of scientific discovery. All regimes since the First Republic have adopted this flag unchanged. The armillary sphere was an ancient astronomical device comprised of a globe surrounded by rings, which represented celestial movements and their measurement.

FOREIGN POLICY. The guiding principle of Portuguese foreign policy since the founding of the monarchy in the 12th century has been the maintenance of Portugal's status first as an independent kingdom and, later, as a sovereign nation-state. For the first 800 years of its existence, Portuguese foreign policy and diplomacy sought to maintain the independence of the Portuguese monarchy, especially in relationship to the larger and more powerful Spanish monarchy. During this period, the **Anglo–Portuguese Alliance**, which began with a treaty of commerce and friendship signed between the kings of Portugal and England in 1386 (the **Treaty of Windsor**) and continued with the **Methuen Treaty** in 1703, sought to use England (**Great Britain** after 1707) as a counterweight to its landward neighbor, **Spain**.

As three invasions of Portugal by Napoleon's armies during the first decade of the 19th century proved, however, Spain was not the

only threat to Portugal's independence and security. Portugal's ally, Britain, provided a counterweight also to a threatening **France** on more than one occasion between 1790 and 1830. During the 19th century, Portugal's foreign policy became largely subordinate to that of her oldest ally, Britain, and standard Portuguese histories describe Portugal's situation as that of a "protectorate" of Britain. In two key aspects during this time of international weakness and internal turmoil, Portugal's foreign policy was under great pressure from her ally, world power Britain: responses to European conflicts and to the situation of Portugal's scattered, largely impoverished overseas **empire**. Portugal's efforts to retain massive, resource-rich **Brazil** in her empire failed by 1822, when Brazil declared its independence. Britain's policy of favoring greater trade and commerce opportunities in an autonomous Brazil was at odds with Portugal's desperate efforts to hold Brazil.

Following the loss of Brazil and a renewed interest in empire in tropical Africa, Portugal sought to regain a more independent initiative in her foreign policy and, especially after 1875, overseas imperial questions dominated foreign policy concerns. From this juncture, through the first Republic (1910–26) and during the **Estado Novo**, a primary purpose of Portuguese foreign policy was to maintain **Portuguese India**, **Macau**, and its colonies in Africa: **Angola**, **Mozambique**, and **Guinea-Bissau**. Under the direction of the dictator, **António de Oliveira Salazar**, further efforts were made to reclaim a measure of independence of foreign policy, despite the tradition of British dominance. Salazar recognized the importance of an Atlantic orientation of the country's foreign policy. As Herbert Pell, U.S. Ambassador to Portugal (1937–41), observed in a June 1939 report to the U.S. Department of State, Portugal's leaders understood that Portugal must side with "that nation which dominates the Atlantic."

During the 1930s, greater efforts were made in Lisbon in economic, financial, and foreign policy initiatives to assert a greater measure of flexibility in her dependence on ally Britain. German economic interests made inroads in an **economy** whose infrastructure in transportation, communication, and commerce had long been dominated by British commerce and investors. Portugal's foreign policy during **World War II** was challenged as both Allied and Axis powers tested the viability of Portugal's official policy of neutrality,

qualified by a customary bow to the Anglo–Portuguese Alliance. **António de Oliveira Salazar**, who served as minister of foreign affairs, as well as prime minister, during 1936–45, sought to sell his version of neutrality to both sides in the war and to do so in a way that would benefit Portugal’s still weak economy and finance. Portugal’s status as a neutral was keenly tested in several cases, including Portugal’s agreeing to lease military bases to Britain and the **United States** in the **Azores Islands** and in the wolfram (tungsten ore) question. Portugal’s foreign policy experienced severe pressures from the Allies in both cases, and Salazar made it clear to his British and American counterparts that Portugal sought to claim the right to make independent choices in policy, despite Portugal’s military and economic weakness. In tense diplomatic negotiations with the Allies over Portugal’s wolfram exports to Germany as of 1944, Salazar grew disheartened and briefly considered resigning over the wolfram question. Foreign policy pressure on this question diminished quickly on 6 June 1944, as Salazar decreed that wolfram mining, sales, and exports to both sides would cease for the remainder of the war. After the United States joined the Allies in the war and pursued an Atlantic strategy, Portugal discovered that her relationship with the dominant ally in the emerging United Nations was changing and that the U.S. would replace Britain as the key Atlantic ally during succeeding decades. Beginning in 1943–44, and continuing to 1949, when Portugal became, with the United States, a founding member of **North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO)**, Luso–American relations assumed center stage in her foreign policy.

During the Cold War, Portuguese foreign policy was aligned with that of the United States and its allies in Western Europe. After the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, the focus of Portuguese foreign policy shifted away from defending and maintaining the African colonies toward integration with Europe. Since Portugal became a member of the **European Economic Community** in 1986, and this evolved into the **European Union (EU)**, all Portuguese governments have sought to align Portugal’s foreign policy with that of the EU in general and to be more independent of the United States. Since 1986, Portugal’s bilateral commercial and diplomatic relations with Britain, France, and Spain have strengthened, especially those with Spain, which are more open and mutually beneficial than at any other time in history.

Within the EU, Portugal has sought to play a role in the promotion of democracy and human rights, while maintaining its security ties to NATO. Currently, a Portuguese politician, **José Manuel Durão Barroso**, is president of the Commission of the EU, and Portugal has held the six-month rotating presidency of the EU three times, in 1992, 2000, and 2007.

FRANCE. The continental European country with which Portugal has had the closest and most friendly relations since the Middle Ages and whose culture since early modern times has been the most important model for Portugal's culture. Beginning in the Reconquest, French groups assisted the Portuguese in fighting the Muslims, and Portugal's first royal dynasty was Burgundian. Various French religious orders settled in Portugal and brought new skills and ideas. Franco-Portuguese relations in diplomacy went through various phases after a virtual break between the two monarchies during the Hundred Years' War and Castile's campaigns to conquer Portugal up to the **battle of Aljubarrota** (1385), when France was the main ally of Castile. France gave Portugal vital assistance in the 16th and 17th centuries against Spanish aggression. French aid was given to Dom António, **Prior of Crato**, who opposed **Filipe's** domination of Portugal, and to restoration Portugal during the **War of Restoration** (1640–68). With the important exception of the disastrous Napoleonic invasions and war (1807–11), Franco-Portuguese relations in diplomacy, **trade**, and culture were exceptionally good from the first quarter of the 19th century.

In part as a response to unpopular Castilianization during **Spain's** domination, the Portuguese found French culture a comforting, novel foil and prestigious alternative. Despite **Great Britain's** dominance in matters commercial, diplomatic, and political under the **Anglo-Portuguese Alliance**, French culture and politics came to enjoy primary importance in Portugal. Even in commerce, France was Portugal's third or fourth best customer during the 19th century. Especially between 1820 and 1960, French influence provided a major model for the well-educated.

A brief list of some key political, literary, philosophical, and artistic ideas Portugal eagerly embraced is suggestive. **King Pedro IV's** 1826 Charter (A *Carta*) was directly modeled on an early French

constitution. French models of liberalism and socialism prevailed in politics; impressionism in **art**; romanticism and realism, Parnassianism, and symbolism in **literature**; positivism and Bergsonianism in philosophy, etc. During the 18th and 19th centuries, the Portuguese **language**, including vocabulary and orthography (spelling), experienced extensive Frenchification. French became the second language of Portugal's elite, providing access to knowledge and information vital for the **education** and development of isolated Portugal.

French cultural influences became pervasive and entered the country by various means: through the French invasions before 1811, trade and commerce, improved international communication and transportation, Portuguese **emigration** to France (which became a mass movement after 1950), and close diplomatic and intellectual relations. An example of the importance of French culture until recently, when British and American cultural influences have become more significant, was that works in French dominated foreign book sections in Portuguese bookstores. If Portugal retained the oldest diplomatic link in world history with Britain, its chief cultural model until recently was France. Until after the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, the largest portion of Portugal's educated elite studying abroad resided in France and took French higher degrees. The pattern of Portuguese students in higher education abroad has diversified in the years since, and now a significant portion are studying in other European continental states as well as in Britain and the **United States**. Diplomatic posts in France rank high in the pecking order of Portugal's small foreign service.

FRANCO, GENERALÍSSIMO FRANCISCO (1892–1975). Spain's soldier-dictator whose Nationalists won the Spanish Civil War (1936–39) and who ruled Spain from 1939 until his death in 1975. General Franco's personal and diplomatic relations with Portugal's prime minister **António de Oliveira Salazar** since the late 1930s were a significant element in the **Estado Novo's foreign policy** in **World War II** and the Cold War. Salazar played a key role in helping convince Franco and his ruling group during the menacing years of 1939–41 not to join the Axis powers in World War II. For his part, Franco supported Salazar's concept of an Iberian bloc of states in various diplomatic and political initiatives, beginning with the

Luso–Spanish agreements signed in 1939 and 1940. During the Cold War, Franco’s Spain pursued a policy that gave support to Salazar’s Estado Novo.

FREITAS DO AMARAL, DIOGO (1941–). Legal scholar and teacher, jurist, civil servant, and politician. Born in Povoia de Varzim, Freitas do Amaral’s father became a member of parliament in the **Estado Novo**’s National Assembly. A superb student, the young Freitas do Amaral studied law at the Law Faculty, University of Lisbon, and became the top law student and protégé of Professor **Marcello Caetano**, who in 1968 was selected to replace an ailing **António de Oliveira Salazar** as prime minister. Freitas do Amaral received his doctorate in law in the late 1960s and remained close to his former law professor, who was now prime minister. In his scholarship on the history of Portuguese law, as well as in his political and social ideology as a conservative, Freitas do Amaral in many respects remained a student, protégé, and follower of Caetano through the period of Caetano’s premiership (1968–74) and into the era of the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**. More than 20 years later, Freitas do Amaral published his memoirs, which focused on the 1968–74 political era, *O Antigo Regime E A Revolução. Memórias Políticas (1941–75)*. This personal portrait of Caetano’s tribulations as a sometimes reluctant, well-prepared but probably inappropriately selected national leader remains an invaluable primary source for historical reconstruction.

During the early months after the Revolution of 25 April 1974, Freitas do Amaral entered politics and became a founder of the right-wing **Christian Democratic Party (CDS)**. He served as the party’s leader to 1985 and again from 1988 to 1991, and was a member of parliament, the Assembly of the Republic, from 1975 to 1983 and from 1992 to 1993. When the Democratic Alliance, of which the CDS was a part, won elections in 1979–80, Freitas do Amaral served as deputy prime minister and minister of defense and, when **Francisco de Sá Carneiro** died in a mysterious air crash, Freitas do Amaral briefly served as interim prime minister. He was a candidate for the presidency in the 1986 presidential election, although he lost to **Mário Soares**. In 1995, he served as President of the United Nations General Assembly. As a European federalist who disagreed

with the CDS Euroskeptic line followed by **Paulo Portas**, Freitas do Amaral broke with his party and resigned from it. Although he was usually regarded as a right-winger, Freitas do Amaral backed the **Social Democratic Party** in the 2002 Assembly of the Republic elections. Disillusioned with the government's policies and critical of its endorsement of the U.S. invasion of Iraq in March 2003, Freitas do Amaral shifted his support to the **Socialist Party** in the 2005 election. The new prime minister **José Sócrates** named Freitas do Amaral minister of foreign affairs in the XVII Constitutional Government, but the senior jurist and politician resigned after a year in office, for health reasons.

After many years as a law professor at the New University of Lisbon, in 2007, Freitas do Amaral delivered a final public lecture and retired from academia. He is the author of a biography of King Afonso I, a play, and of various legal and juridical studies and is considered the most eminent living scholar in the fields of administrative and constitutional law.

FREYRE, GILBERTO (1900–1987). World famous Brazilian sociologist and scholar whose writings (1933–60) formed the basis for the so-called theory of **Luso-Tropicalism**. Born in Recife, but receiving his higher degrees in the United States under American scholars, Freyre wrote a pioneering volume on the history of the colonization of **Brazil**, under the influences of the Portuguese, Amerindians, and black Africans. This first major work on Brazil, with the English title of *The Masters and the Slaves*, generated controversy over the precise role of Portugal in expansion and colonization in the world. The 1933 book and later writings up to the 1960 commemoration of the 500th anniversary of the death of **Prince Henry of Aviz** (Prince Henry the Navigator) formed the foundation for certain interpretations that the **Estado Novo** later used to support its policy of continuing Portuguese colonial rule in Africa and Asia.

FUTEBOL (FOOTBALL OR SOCCER). Portugal's most popular sport or game, for decades the national sport. There are at least two different theories about how soccer was introduced to Portugal and both are set in the late 1880s. One story is that soccer was introduced when Portuguese students with a soccer ball returned from **England**.

Another version is that the sport was brought to Portugal by resident or visiting Britons. The game was first played only by foreigners, but soon became popular among Portuguese. Some of the earliest soccer games were played on fields in the property of the Eastern Telegraph Company in Carcavelos, outside **Lisbon**. The word in Portuguese, *futebol*, derives from the English word *football*. Organized by the entrepreneur Guilherme Pinto Basto, the first exhibition game between Portuguese and Britons was in 1888, and the first match, between **Oporto** and Lisbon was held in 1894, with **King Carlos I** in attendance.

Especially after World War I, *futebol* acquired a mass, popular following. By midcentury, Portugal's periodical with the largest circulation was Lisbon's soccer newspaper *Bola* ("Ball"). After 1939, many soccer stadiums were constructed, and Portuguese fans became divided into supporters of two rival professional soccer teams: Sporting or Benfica, both from the Lisbon region. In the World Cup soccer games of 1966, Portugal's national team achieved fame and distinction, reaching the semifinals, only to lose to the Brazilians. Starring on Portugal's 1966 World Cup team was the celebrated Mozambique-born Eusébio. In that World Cup contest, Portugal became the first national team to reach the semifinals in their first appearance in the contest. In 2004, Portugal hosted the Euro cup, and Portugal's national team was defeated in the final by Greece. In May 2006, Portugal's national soccer team was ranked seventh out of 205 countries by the world soccer association (FIFA).

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GALVÃO, HENRIQUE (1895–1970). Army officer and oppositionist of the **Estado Novo**. A career army officer with considerable service in the African colonies, especially as an administrator in **Angola** in the 1930s, Galvão was an enthusiastic supporter of the Estado Novo in its early phase (1926–44). As a young officer, he supported the **Twenty-eighth of May** coup against the republic, and soon held middle-level posts in the Estado Novo. An early booster of the cultural and political potential of the radio and public spectacles, Galvão did little soldiering but more administration in radio and

was appointed to manage the June–December 1940 Exposition of the Portuguese World in Lisbon. After a tour of the African colonies as inspector-general, he presented a confidential report (1947) to the regime’s National Assembly in Lisbon. His findings revealed widespread abuse of authority and forced labor and semislavery in Angola and other colonies.

The regime’s suppression of this report and its negative response precipitated Galvão’s break with Prime Minister **António de Oliveira Salazar**’s government. Galvão was harassed by the political police (**PIDE**) and arrested and tried for treason in 1952. Imprisoned, he escaped, disguised as a woman, from Santa Maria hospital in 1959 and fled to South America, where he organized opposition groups to the Estado Novo. In early 1961, Galvão got world media coverage when he led a group of about a dozen Iberian dissidents who participated in an early act of political terrorism: the hijacking at sea of the Portuguese ocean liner *Santa Maria*, drawing the attention of the world’s journalists and public to the flaws in the Estado Novo and attempting to arouse a revolution against the Lisbon authorities by sailing the liner to Portuguese Africa (**São Tomé** or **Angola**). This bold enterprise failed, the liner and the hijackers were interned in **Brazil**, and Galvão continued in the political wilderness as an adventurer/oppositionist. He died in South America in 1970, the same year as his *bête noire*, Dr. Salazar.

GAMA, VASCO DA (1468?–1524). Navigator, conqueror, and fleet commander of the Portuguese ships that discovered the sea route to India in 1497–98. Born in Sines and trained in navigation, Vasco da Gama was named commander of four—by today’s standards very small—vessels, which left the **Tagus** from Belém on 8 July 1497. The fleet sailed via the **Cape Verde Islands** down the African coast and passed the Cape of Good Hope, South Africa, on 18 November 1497. After cruising up the coast of East Africa, Vasco da Gama’s ships reached Mombasa and then Melinde, where a friendly sultan permitted an Indian Ocean pilot to assist da Gama in the voyage east to the west coast of what became **Portuguese India**. The Portuguese reached Calicut, India, on 18 May 1498. Vasco da Gama’s missions were to discover the route to India, tap into the spice markets of Asia, and contact and make treaties with Christian rulers there.

Perhaps the greatest of Portugal's discoverers and sea explorers, da Gama accomplished these missions, although liaison with Christian princes proved illusory; Portugal broke the spice monopoly of the Venetian–Asian system and began the process of prying open Asia to Western trade, conquest, and **empire**.

The first of da Gama's ships returned to **Lisbon** in July 1499, and da Gama himself returned later in the summer. In the age of exploration, in a different league even than Christopher Columbus's first voyage to the West Indies, da Gama's feat stands unequalled: the distance from Portugal to India by the most direct route around the Cape of Good Hope was 16,000 kilometers (10,000 miles) by sea under severe conditions typical of the age of sail. The entire round trip took two years, and out of about 170 crew members only 55 returned to Lisbon. **King Manuel I** showered the navigator–commander with honors. Da Gama made another voyage to Calicut (1502–04) and died in government service in India in 1524. Along with other famous navigator–conquerors of the Age of Discoveries, as well as the national epic poet **Luís de Camões**, Vasco da Gama is buried in the **Jerónimos Monastery**. *See also* **COMMEMORATIONS, PORTUGUESE HISTORIC**.

GARRETT, JOÃO BAPTISTA DE ALMEIDA (1799–1854). One of Portugal's greatest 19th-century writers, Garrett was a diplomat, civil servant, journalist, and intellectual. In exile abroad due to his adherence to the cause of constitutional liberal monarchy, during the period 1823–36 especially, Garrett studied and was influenced by his readings of Shakespeare and romantic writers such as Lord Byron and Walter Scott. He studied law at the **University of Coimbra**. Following the triumph of **King Pedro IV's** cause in the **War of the Brothers**, Garrett served in the new government as a diplomat in Belgium. In a later second residence abroad, he was influenced by his study of German literature.

It was in the field of letters that Garrett made his greatest mark, and he was active in all aspects of literary endeavor: poetry, essays, theater, journalism, and the novel. He was the founder of Portugal's national theater, Teatro Nacional de D. Maria II, and several of his plays become standard in Portuguese theater repertory, including his adaptations of plays by **Gil Vicente**. Government censorship,

however, prevented the staging of several of his plays. His classic play *Frei Luís de Sousa* premiered in 1843, in a private theater.

Like so many other romantic writers of his era in Europe, Garrett collected, edited, and published Portuguese folk stories, poems, and songs from a rich rural heritage and preserved them for later generations. Many were collected in his *Romanceiro e Cancioneiro*, in three volumes. Uncomfortable in the maelstrom of unstable politics and already named a peer of the realm, Garrett accepted the post of minister of foreign affairs in 1852. Quickly disillusioned, he retired in 1853 to private life and to writing another novel, left unfinished at his death in the following year. *See also* LITERATURE.

GENERATION OF 1870. A generation of Portuguese writers and intellectuals and a postregeneration phase of the country's intellectual history in the last third of the 19th century. Many of them graduates of **Coimbra University**, these writers, whose work challenged conventional wisdom of their day, included J. Oliveira Martins, economist and social scientist; **Eça de Queirós**, novelist; Antero de Quental, poet; Ramalho Ortigão, editor and essayist; Teófilo Braga, literary historian; and the geographer and diplomat abroad, Jaime Batalha Reis. Coming of political age at the time of the Franco-Prussian War, the French Commune, and the French Third Republic (1870–71), these Portuguese intellectuals believed that economically weak Portugal had a polity and society in the grip of a pervasive decadence and inertia. They called for reform and renewal.

Critical of romanticism, they were realists and neorealists and espoused the ideas of Karl Marx, Pierre Proudhon, and Auguste Comte. They called for revolution through the establishment of republicanism and socialism, and they were convinced that Portugal's backwardness and poverty were due primarily to the ancient influences of a weakened monarchy and the **Catholic Church**. This group of like-minded but also distinctive thinkers had an important impact on Portuguese letters and elite culture, but only a minor effect on contemporary politics and government.

Like so many other movements in modern Portugal, the Generation of 1870's initiatives began as essentially a protest by university students of Coimbra, who confronted the status quo and sought to change their world by means of change and innovation in action and

ideas. In certain respects, Portugal's Generation of 1870 resembled neighboring Spain's Generation of 1898, which began its "rebellion" in ideas following a disastrous foreign war (the Spanish–American War, 1898).

GENERATION OF 1895. Refers to a historic group of soldiers and war heroes who fought in Portuguese African colonial wars and, more specifically, to those Portuguese soldiers who participated as combatants in the 1895 campaign in southern **Mozambique** against the African Gaza kingdom of King Gungunyane. Among the soldiers who were part of this victorious but bloody campaign in Portuguese East Africa were **Joaquim Mousinho de Albuquerque**, Eduardo Costa, Aires de Ornelas, Paiva Couceiro, and **Gomes da Costa**, some of whom later played roles in domestic politics in Portugal.

GODINHO, VITORINO MAGALHÃES (1918–). Historian, academic, political figure. Internationally, Portugal's most celebrated historian of the 20th century. Born into a family with strong republican and antidictatorial tendencies, Godinho chose an academic career following his graduation (1940) in history and philosophy from the Faculty of Letters, University of Lisbon. He taught history at the same institution until 1944, when his academic career was cut short by the **Estado Novo's** orders. He resumed his academic career in **France**, where he taught history and received his doctorate in history at the Sorbonne (1959). He returned briefly to Portugal but, during the academic/political crisis of 1962, he was fired from his faculty position at the Instituto Superior de Estudos Ultramarinos in Lisbon.

In the 1960s and early 1970s, Godinho's scholarly publications on the social and economic history of the Portuguese overseas **empire** (1400–1700) first made a lasting impact both in Portuguese historiography and world historiography regarding the Age of Discoveries. His notion of a world system or economy, with ample quantitative data on prices, money, and trade in the style and spirit of the French Annales School of History, had an important influence on social scientists outside Portugal, including on American scholar Immanuel Wallerstein and his world system studies. Godinho's work emphasized social and economic history before 1750, and his most notable

works included *Prix et monnaies au Portugal* (1955), *A Economia dos Descobrimentos Henriquinos* (1962), and, in three volumes, *Os Descobrimentos e a Economia Mundial* (1963–71).

As a staunch opponent of the Estado Novo who had been dismissed yet again from 1962 to 1971, Godinho concentrated on his research and publications, as well as continuing activity in oppositionist parties, rallies, and elections. Disillusioned by the false “Spring” of freedom under Prime Minister **Marcello Caetano** (1968–74), he returned to France to teach. Following the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, Godinho returned to newly democratic Portugal. During several provisional governments (1974–75), he was appointed minister of education and initiated reforms. The confusing political maelstrom of revolutionary Portugal, however, discouraged his continuation in public office. He returned to university teaching and scholarship, and then helped establish a new institution of higher learning, the Universidade Nova de Lisboa (New University of Lisbon), where he retired, loaded with honors and acclaim, at age 70 in 1988. *See also* EDUCATION.

GÓIS, DAMIÃO DE (1502–1574). Portuguese Renaissance humanist writer, cosmopolite, diplomat, and royal servant. The son of a Portuguese noble father and a mother of Flemish descent, De Góis was widely traveled in Europe and studied for four years at the University of Padua, Italy. Later, he became associated with Martin Luther and Erasmus. For a period, he settled in Louvain. For a while in Antwerp, De Góis was employed at the Portuguese Factory. After his return to Portugal and his authorship of the famous *Crónica* dedicated to **King Manuel I**, he was persecuted by conservative, jealous nobles as well as by the **Portuguese Inquisition**. As a writer, correspondent, and lay humanist, De Góis, although a late student of Latin, cultivated the use of Latin in his extensive correspondence with other humanists, such as Erasmus, as well as in his historical works. Arrested by the Inquisition in 1571 and accused of heterodoxy, De Góis died at his home some years later, under mysterious circumstances.

GOLPISMO. Portuguese word for the tendency or practice of military intervention in public affairs or politics, or the fact of military coups overthrowing governments. This expression derives from the word

golpe (“blow” or “coup”). It came into use in the 19th century, when the word *pronunciamento* also became part of the common vocabulary.

GOMES DA COSTA, MANUEL DE OLIVEIRA (1863–1929). Marshal of the Portuguese Army, commander of Portugal’s forces in Flanders in World War I, and leader of the military coup that overthrew the First Republic in May 1926. Trained at the Military College, Gomes da Costa rose from the rank of private to general during the period 1883–1917. His career began with important colonial service in **Portuguese India** and **Mozambique** in suppressing insurgencies in the 1890s. He served with **Mousinho de Albuquerque** in the Gaza campaigns (1896–97), in **Mozambique**, and later in **Angola** and **São Tomé**. His most notable service was in Portugal’s intervention in World War I as he helped organize the first brigade and commanded the first division of Portugal’s Expeditionary Corps (CEP), which entered combat on the western front in May 1917. For his role in the battle of Lys, in April 1918, when German forces badly mauled the Portuguese sector, Gomes da Costa was decorated by Portugal with the Tower and Sword medal. During the latter part of the First Republic, he was dispatched to the colonies on missions to divert him from domestic politics, since he had joined the Reformist Party (PR).

As the most senior and best-known career army officer, Gomes da Costa was invited by former CEP comrades to join in military conspiracies to overthrow the democrat-dominated First Republic. On 28 May 1926, in Braga, he launched the military coup with the pronouncement “To Arms, Portugal!” The general’s famous name and forceful personality gave the military movement the necessary prestige and won public opinion’s confidence for the political moment. Gomes da Costa, however, was not suited for political maneuvering and administrative efficiency and, on 9 July 1926, he was dismissed as minister of war by other generals, including future president **Óscar Carmona**, and then exiled to the **Azores**. For political effect and as a consolation prize to the leader whose individual daring had helped create the *abertura* (opening) that allowed the coup to succeed, the military dictatorship honored Gomes da Costa, even in exile, with promotion to marshal of the army. In ill health on his return from the isolated Azores in late 1927, he died less than two

years later in Lisbon. There is a statue of Gomes da Costa in a square in Braga, designed by Barata Feyo, which honors the general of the **Twenty-eighth of May** coup d'état.

GRAMIDO, CONVENTION OF (1847). Agreement signed by representatives of the parties in conflict in the **Patuleia civil war** (1846–47), involving the siege of **Oporto**. At Gramido, near Oporto, the Oporto junta led by José Passos, the Lisbon government of **Queen Maria II**'s constitutional monarchy, and the emissaries of the intervening foreign powers of **Great Britain, France, and Spain** negotiated and signed a convention to stop the armed conflict. While the force of the intervening foreign armies and fleets convinced the Oporto rebels to negotiate and eventually capitulate, the provisions of the Convention of Gramido were not recognized, ratified, or fulfilled by the triumphant Portuguese government in Lisbon nor by the foreign powers that had dispatched armed forces to Portugal.

GREAT BRITAIN (ENGLAND BEFORE 1707). Next to **Spain**, the country with which Portugal has had the closest diplomatic, political, and economic relations into contemporary times and during much of its history as a nation. Today, the two countries retain the formal bonds of the world's oldest diplomatic alliance. Whatever the diplomatic ups and downs of the alliance, Britain and Portugal increasingly linked their economies, starting with the **Methuen Treaty (1703)** in the early 18th century. "English woollens for Portuguese wines" was the essence of this **trade** arrangement, but many other products were traded between these two peoples with quite different religious and cultural features. Among economic links, now traditional, are those in **banking** and finance, manufacturing, **agriculture**, and trade.

Portugal joined Britain in several international economic organizations well before Portugal entered the **European Economic Community (EEC)**, the predecessor of the **European Union (EU)**, in 1986, among these the European Free Trade Association (in 1959), the International Monetary Fund, the World Bank, and the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade. Tourism, too, has long been a key connection. Ever since the 1700s, privileged **tourists** have enjoyed the sun and citrus fruits of Portugal and **Madeira** for their health. Another significant link is that Britons comprise one

of the largest foreign communities in Portugal. Tourism and foreign communities have increased considerably since the early 1960s, when cheap airfares began. Among EU members, Britain remains one of Portugal's largest foreign investors. *See also* ANGLO–PORTUGUESE ALLIANCE; BUÇACO, BATTLE OF; CATHERINE OF BRAGANZA; METHUEN TREATY; PORT WINE; WINDSOR, TREATIES OF.

GUADIANA, RIVER. The Guadiana River is about 828 kilometers (515 miles) long in **Spain** and Portugal, one of the peninsula's longest rivers, along with the **Tagus** and **Douro**. It rises in south-central Spain, flows west to Portugal's border, turns south, and forms two sections of the frontier between Spain and Portugal. It then empties into the bay of Cadiz. Sections of the Guadiana form the border between the Algarve district and Spain.

GUARDA NACIONAL REPUBLICANA (GNR). The Republican National Guard is Portugal's national highway and traffic police, and forms its rural and urban constabulary. A paramilitary force, it was established in 1911, under the First Republic, to protect the novice regime in the capital and other main cities. While it was recruited from the career army officer corps and noncommissioned ranks, the GNR was based on a historic precedent (the monarchy had a life guard with similar functions) and a political necessity (the need to be a deterrent and bulwark against threatening army insurrections) during a time of political instability. With increasingly heavy weaponry, a much enlarged GNR became a source of controversy as the First Republic ended and the military dictatorship was established (1926–33) and grew into the **Estado Novo**. The Estado Novo eventually reduced its strength, but maintained it as a reserve force that might confront a potentially unreliable army in the capital and main cities and towns. Since the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, the GNR has been used as a kind of state police. Its personnel can be seen in their distinctive uniforms, dealing with highway safety, traffic, the drug problem, and serious crimes. While the main headquarters is at Carmo barracks (Carmo Square), **Lisbon**, where **Prime Minister Marcello Caetano** surrendered to the **Armed Forces Movement** on 25 April 1974, GNR detachments are found all over the country.

GUIMARÃES. This city in Braga district, which is known as the cradle of Portuguese nationality, has origins that precede both the monarchy and the nation. Portugal's first king, **Afonso Henriques**, was born in Guimarães, and it was here that the first **Cortes** was held, where it was decided in 1093 to give the government of the county of Portugal to the Burgundian Count Henry, the father of Afonso Henriques, later king of Portugal. In 1853, Guimarães was declared a city by **Queen Maria II**. Long a symbol of the founding of Portugal, Guimarães's classic granite castle has many historic associations. It was here that the official opening of the 1940 Double Centenary celebrations occurred. With only a small population, Guimarães has a large number of medieval monuments, including churches, palaces, and chapels.

GUIMARÃES, JOSÉ DE (1939–). Portugal's most celebrated living sculptor was born José Maria Fernandes Marques in **Guimarães**. He studied engineering, receiving his degree in 1965 after which he studied painting with Teresa de Sousa, drawing with Gil Teixeira Lopes, and engraving at the Sociedade Cooperativa da Gravadores Portugueses. Color plays a principal role in Guimarães's work, and his principal theme is the human body. His work has been exhibited in many one-man shows and is owned by many **art** museums around the world. He has also received numerous prizes and medals, including the Ordem do Infante Dom Henrique from the Portuguese Republic.

GUINEA-BISSAU. Former West African colony of Portugal until its independence in September 1974, Guinea-Bissau (not to be confused with Guinea-Conakry, its neighbor to the east and south) was the scene of Portuguese activity, at least on the coast, since the mid-15th century. Its area is about 22,256 square kilometers (14,000 square miles). Portugal established a few forts and trading posts on the coast of what became Guinea-Bissau, and the **slave** trade became the major economic activity until the mid 19th century. Portugal's coastal presence was not expanded to the tropical interior until the 19th century, when Lisbon supported various so-called "pacification" campaigns. African resistance continued, however, to 1936.

With the formation of the African Party for the Independence of Guinea and Cape Verde (PAIGC), the principal nationalist move-

ment, in 1956, African resistance increased. Between 1963 and 1974, a war of insurgency against Portuguese colonial rule was fought in the country. Unlike Portugal's territories in southern Africa—**Angola** and **Mozambique**—Guinea-Bissau did not have Portuguese settlement of any consequence, and the major private company that dominated the territory's economy (Companhia União Fabril) withdrew most of its assets by 1972. An important part of the alienation and radicalization of the **Armed Forces Movement's** officers took place in the grueling bush war in Guinea-Bissau. After the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, Portugal granted independence to this colony.

GULBENKIAN, CALOUSTE SARKIS (1869–1955). Armenian oil tycoon, philanthropist, and **art** connoisseur–collector who settled in Portugal in World War II and whose donated wealth forms the basis for the **Gulbenkian Foundation**, situated in **Lisbon**. Born in Scutari, Turkey, when it was part of the Ottoman Empire, Calouste Gulbenkian made a huge fortune and became one of Europe's wealthiest individuals through investment in Iraqi petroleum. While the oil business and investments were his work, the appreciation and collection of rare art represented his passion. During the 1920s and 1930s, he purchased a rich collection of Western and Oriental art. Some of it was loaned to great museums in London and Washington, and some of it was displayed in his mansion in Paris on Avenue d'Iena.

Gulbenkian's life and the fate of his possessions were changed by the fortunes of World War II and by his residence in Portugal. In April 1942, Gulbenkian fled Vichy France and settled in Portugal. Between his arrival and his death in July 1955, he made dispositions of his possessions and wealth, which have had an almost incalculable impact on Portugal's arts, culture, science, and **education**. After declining to build a museum for his unmatched art collection either in London or Washington, D.C., Gulbenkian decided to build such a home in Portugal and to endow an international foundation in Lisbon. Since his death in 1955 and inauguration of the foundation headquarters in the late 1960s, a museum and a contemporary arts museum have opened, and Portuguese and other Lusophone arts and science circles have greatly benefited.

GULBENKIAN FOUNDATION AND ASSOCIATED MUSEUMS

AND INSTITUTES. In 1956, a year after the death of the Armenian philanthropist and art collector **Calouste Sarkis Gulbenkian**, a foundation was established in Portugal, Gulbenkian's adopted country of retirement. The work of this foundation has had both an internal impact on Portugal's **arts**, sciences, health, and **education** and an international impact in the advancement of Portuguese studies in the world. The modern building housing the foundation's offices and library on the Avenida de Berna, **Lisbon**, was completed in the late 1960s, and Gulbenkian's art collection was moved from Paris and other cities to a museum adjacent to the foundation offices. In the early 1980s, a museum of contemporary arts was completed nearby. The income from the Gulbenkian endowment of the foundation supports not only philanthropic social projects, but a wide variety of the arts, including organizations that offer performance seasons such as Ballet Gulbenkian and orchestras. In addition to the headquarters, museum, and contemporary arts museum in Lisbon, the foundation supports institutions in other districts of Portugal and has a program of scholarly grants for Portuguese, as well as international scholars and students in various disciplines. The foundation, in terms of annual giving, is one of the largest such institutions in Western Europe. *See also* DANCE.

GUTERRES, ANTÓNIO MANUEL DE (1949–). Socialist Party leader, engineer, and politician, prime minister of Portugal (1995–2002). Born in Lisbon in a lower-middle-class family with roots in Beira Alta district (central Portugal), Guterres was trained as an electrical engineer and physicist. In his twenties, he abandoned academic pursuits to enter politics and was active in the university Catholic youth movement. Following the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, Guterres became active in the **Socialist Party (PS)** leadership and joined several administrations' ministries during provisional governments (1974–75). From 1976 to 1983, he was an elected deputy for the Assembly of the Republic and was reelected to the same body as a deputy in 1985, serving until 1988. In the late 1980s, he reached the top rungs of the PS leadership. He directed the PS's electoral campaign of 1987. When the PS defeated the **Social Democratic Party (PSD)** in both the general legislative elections of 1995 and 1999, Guterres was named and served as prime minister.

Following the PSD's defeat of the PS in the December 2001 municipal elections, Guterres unexpectedly resigned as chief of the PS and became a caretaker prime minister as President **Jorge Sampaio** called for parliamentary elections in March 2002. Guterres was replaced as PS leader and candidate for prime minister by Ferro Rodrigues. In the 17 March 2002 elections, the PSD defeated the PS, but only by a slim margin. Guterres left the premiership and withdrew from active politics.

GYPSIES, PORTUGUESE. Since the late 15th century, gypsies or *ciganos* (Portuguese) have resided in Portugal. Gypsies, whose ancestors originated in India many centuries before, today call themselves *Roma*. Gypsies have long cultivated a strict social and legal code, as well as their own language and customs. The gypsies speak an ancient language, Romany, which includes elements of Hindi and other languages encountered during their migrations from the east. In 2007, it was estimated that approximately 40,000 gypsies resided in Portugal, primarily near larger urban areas, including **Lisbon, Estoril**, and other cities. In historical tradition, the gypsies were migratory or lived isolated in slums or ghettos and suffered persecution. Among the groups murdered by Adolf Hitler's Nazis before and during World War II were large numbers of gypsies in Germany, Poland, Russia, and other countries. In democratic Portugal, there has been a greater governmental effort to integrate the Roma into Portuguese polity and society by enforcing public school attendance and providing social and health services. Like the Roma of other countries in Western Europe, the Roma of Portugal have become better organized to advocate for their identity, traditions, and civil and human rights. Like other groups of minorities in the country, they have received attention from various organizations of the **European Union**, as well as from nongovernmental organizations.

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HEALTH. Although public health has improved considerably in the past two decades, and there has been a greater rate of improvement in this area since the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, severe public health problems continue to plague Portugal. The death rate has

decreased and life expectancy has increased (in 1989–90, life expectancy was about 71 for males and 78 for females, and by 2000 this had increased), but public health problems in Portugal continue to be severe; statistics especially in rural Portugal were typical of many poor countries. Recent improvements in the health picture include an improved medical educational system, better medical technology, and an increased number of doctors and medical personnel. There has also been some increase in the number of hospitals (in 1975, there were 229 hospitals and, in 1990, 239) and the number of beds available for patients. Basic health knowledge in the general population, however, remains low, especially in rural areas. Traditionally, medical resources continue to be most available in the major cities of **Lisbon, Oporto, and Coimbra**.

Along with increased migration from Portugal's former colonies and with **European Union** membership and its concomitant freer traffic across land frontiers, there has been an increase in the numbers of human immunodeficiency virus/acquired immune deficiency (HIV/AIDS) cases. Although not on the scale of some other Western European or North African countries, Portugal's HIV/AIDS situation has aroused national concern.

An important sign of improving health care is that, as more women enter professional fields, more women choose to become doctors. Observers note that public health and medical improvements remain closely linked to reforms in **education** and better living conditions in both urban and rural areas where substandard housing, sanitation facilities, hygiene, and clean water supplies remain persistent problems. *See also* ECONOMY; EDUCATION.

HENRIQUES, KING AFONSO I (1105?–1185). The first king of Portugal, known as “The Founder” in Portuguese history and tradition. The son of a former Burgundian count, Afonso Henriques established Portugal as a kingdom independent from Castile and León. The independence of the Portuguese monarchy was established on the field of battle by 1139 or 1140. Afonso Henriques had his main capital at **Coimbra**, and devoted most of his reign to 1185 to two main enterprises: ensuring the continued separation of the kingdom of Portugal from the kingdoms of Castile and Leon and the reconquest from the Muslims of the western parts of the Iberian Peninsula

and their incorporation into his kingdom. In 1147, with the assistance of English and Flemish crusaders on the way to the Holy Land, Afonso Henriques's army took the city of **Lisbon** from the Muslims following an extended siege. Beginning in 1143, Afonso Henriques had received formal recognition of the independence of Portugal and of his legitimacy as king of Portugal from the pope in Rome, but it was only in 1179 that papal communications first began to employ the royal title Afonso Henriques had created and established as "The Founder" of the state of Portugal. Afonso Henriques died in 1185, at the unusually advanced age of nearly 80 years and is known in Portuguese history as Afonso I.

HENRY OF AVIZ, PRINCE (1394–1460). Known to the Portuguese as "O Infante Dom Henrique," as an heir to his father's throne, Prince Henry the Navigator was born in **Oporto**. His Father was **King João I** (r. 1357–1433) and his mother was **Philippa of Lancaster**, daughter of John of Gaunt. As a young prince, Henry won his knighthood as a member of the Portuguese expedition that captured the Moroccan city of Ceuta in 1415, the beginning of Portugal's overseas expansion and the onset of the European age of exploration and discovery.

The life and work of Prince Henry are steeped in centuries of myth and legend. Reliable historical research suggests that the prince played a key role in the early phases of the Portuguese discoveries due to his patronage of expeditions, sailors, and navigators and his use of the important funds of the knightly Order of Christ, of which he was in control. Prince Henry, nevertheless, was not solely responsible for more than one-third of the exploration ventures during his time, possessed strongly medieval ways, did not create the so-called "School of Sagres" for navigators, and certainly was ignorant of much Renaissance science. Although he did participate nobly in the Ceuta adventure, as far as the voyages down the coast of Africa and into the Atlantic until his death in 1460 are concerned, Prince Henry was an armchair navigator who did not visit Africa beyond Morocco. *See also* **COMMEMORATIONS, PORTUGUESE HISTORIC.**

HERCULANO, ALEXANDRE (1810–1877). One of Portugal's greatest historians and one of its giants in 19th-century writing and **literature**. Born in **Lisbon** to a middle-class family, Herculano studied

commerce and diplomacy. At age 21, he enlisted in the liberal armed forces of **King Pedro IV** but was forced to flee to exile in **Great Britain** and then **France**. Later, he was part of the victorious liberal expeditionary force that landed near **Oporto**. He began his serious studies in Oporto, but soon relocated to Lisbon, where he worked as a journalist. In 1839, he was named to the post of director of the Royal Library at **Ajudá Palace** and at **Necessidades Palace**, and thus began to prepare to write his classic work, *História de Portugal*, a major study that when completed took the history of the country only up to the end of the 13th century. The first volume of this work, with which his fame as a historian is most closely associated, was published in 1846, but Herculano was a versatile writer who wrote novels, essays, and poetry as well as history.

In addition to being a man of words, he was a man of action who was active in exchanges with other *literati* and who did government service. Herculano, for example, was on the commission that revised the civil code of Portugal. His historical writings influenced future generations of writers because of his literary style, because he broke through the legend and myth that had surrounded ancient and medieval Portuguese history, and above all because of his objective, scientific approach to research and conclusions. Dissatisfied with politics and public life, Herculano retired to a farm in the country (at Vale de Lobos) in 1859 and worked as a farmer until 1866.

HOUSING. In a country with a chronic housing shortage, it is ironic that Portugal has preserved and restored one of Europe's finest collections of historic castles and palaces. For decades, well before the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, Portugal has endured a shortage of decent, affordable housing, whether rented or purchased, as well as the growth of sprawling urban shantytowns outside **Lisbon, Oporto**, and smaller towns such as **Estoril**. Known as *bairros da lata*, literally, "neighborhoods or boroughs of tin," these poorly constructed dwellings lack electricity, water, or sewage systems. The flimsy buildings are made of any kind of building materials, including sheets of galvanized tin that serve as roofs, walls, and doors. As of the early 1980s, it was estimated that there were at least 700,000 illegally constructed buildings in Portugal, some 200,000 of which were in the greater Lisbon area, an example of the worst kind of urban

sprawl. Many of these structures were built on unused private lands or on public lands.

Even after Portugal's economy began to benefit from membership in the **European Economic Community (EEC)**; later the **European Union**), a significant portion of housing remained substandard, whether in rural or urban areas. By the early 1990s, electrification in rural areas was still not complete, and running water and sewage systems were lacking. As of the early 21st century, improvement in housing has occurred, but with population growth and the arrival of migrants from Europe, Brazil, and former colonies in Africa, the basic components of a housing crisis persist: shortage of decent rental or purchased housings; persistent urban shantytowns, which in some areas have expanded; and substandard living conditions.

A majority of the Portuguese people (60 percent; and in Lisbon and Oporto, 80 percent) rent their housing. Improving or expanding such rental housing has been challenging in part because of rigid rent control laws that, between 1948 and 1985, tended to discourage either the maintenance and improvement or the construction of apartments. In suburbs outside Lisbon, large apartment houses were built after 1980 for the more prosperous new urbanites, but, as in the past, the supply of good, affordable housing lagged behind demand. Many Portuguese governments confronted and engaged the housing problem, and some excellent reforms were instituted. The contemporary housing crisis nevertheless persists and, after 2007, was complicated by the worldwide economic crisis.



IBERIANISM. The belief or ideology that a unified Iberian Peninsula in which **Spain** and Portugal would be incorporated in the same political unit would enhance those countries' place in Europe, lay a basis for revival of the Iberian states from a position of decline, and lead to needed social improvements. Iberianism became popular with certain leftist groups, including socialists, in both countries in the 19th century, although it was a more popular idea in Spain than it was in Portugal. Sometimes Iberianism was expressed in the form of advocating an Iberian federal union or federation.

INDIA, PORTUGUESE. Formerly a Portuguese colony, and all that remained of Portugal's Indian holdings of the 16th and 17th centuries, Goa, Damão, and Diu are located on the western coast of the Indian subcontinent. These three enclaves, comprising an area of about 2,473 square kilometers (1,537 square miles), were acquired by Portugal during the 16th century after the initial voyage of **Vasco da Gama** (1497–99), which discovered the sea route to the Indies from Portugal. Beginning in 1510, Goa was the capital of the Portuguese State of India, which had jurisdiction over Portugal's holdings in eastern Africa as well as in Asia. Goa became not only an administrative capital but a center for religion and education. Various **Catholic** religious orders, such as the Franciscans, Dominicans, and Jesuits, used Goa as a base for missionary efforts in Asia. Most notable among them was **St. Francis Xavier**. Goa had a colonial golden age in the 16th and 17th centuries, as churches, seminaries, and colleges flourished. In time, Goa was bypassed, and the capital of Portuguese India was transferred first to Mormugao and then to Pangim.

For religious and political reasons, not economic, Portugal held on to Portuguese India when confronted after World War II with Indian nationalism. Pressures to leave Goa, Damão, and Diu mounted throughout the 1950s, following the independence of India in 1947. In December 1961, after numerous alarms and efforts by Indian and Goan nationalists to employ passive resistance to oust Portuguese control, India's Nehru ordered the Indian army to invade, conquer, and annex Goa, Damão, and Diu and incorporate them as part of the Indian Union. With most of its armed forces in the African territories at the time and with Britain refusing to allow the use of British bases to reinforce Portugal's small garrison in Portuguese India, Portuguese armed forces resisted only briefly. **Salazar's** government dealt harshly with the forces that surrendered in India and were made prisoners of war. Lisbon negotiated their release without enthusiasm. Lisbon affected to ignore the facts of India's conquest, annexation, and absorption of former Portuguese India; refused to recognize the action's legality internationally; and continued to seat "deputies" from "Portuguese India" in the National Assembly of Portugal until the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**. Resentment against Salazar's treatment of the army in India was one of the stated reasons later for the military conspiracy and 1974 coup of the **Armed Forces Movement**.

INDUSTRY. Portuguese industry includes electricity, gas, water, mining, and manufacturing sectors. Manufacturing, the largest of these sectors, is concentrated in two major industrial regions: **Lisbon–Setúbal** in the south and **Oporto–Aveiro–Braga** in the north. Together, these two regions contain the factories that account for 75 percent of Portugal's industrial output. The Lisbon–Setúbal region includes major heavy industries, such as steel making, shipbuilding and repair, oil refining, chemicals, cement, automobile assembly, wood pulp, cork, and fish processing. About 140 kilometers (84 miles) to the south at Sines is a major deepwater port and associated steel-making and oil-refining complex at Sines. Light industry is located primarily in the Oporto–Aveiro–Braga industrial triangle. Here are located factories that manufacture textiles, footwear, furniture, cutlery, and electronics. Portugal's largest petroleum refinery is located in Oporto.

Industrial organization in Portugal reflects three ownership patterns: privately owned domestic factories are concentrated in light industries; publicly owned factories dominate heavy industry, such as petrochemicals, shipbuilding, steel making, petroleum refining, and electricity; subsidiaries of multinational corporations dominate electronics, automotive, pharmaceutical, and electrical machinery industries. In general, Portugal's light industries, such as textiles, footwear, food, beverage, cork products, and furniture, are labor intensive and technologically backward.

INQUISITION, PORTUGUESE. Known also as the Holy Office of the Inquisition, Portugal's Inquisition was established in 1536 under **King João III** and was finally abolished only in 1821. The initial motives for establishing this institution were more political than religious; King João III saw it as an instrument to increase central power and royal control in Portugal. Permission for its foundation was granted by the papacy in Rome, but the Inquisition's judges and officers were appointed by the Portuguese king, not by the papacy. Seven years after its establishment, the Inquisition's first victims were burned at the stake in Évora. Eventually, the Holy Office of the Inquisition became a kind of state within a state, with its own bureaucracy, censors who acted as a "thought police" over the faithful as well as over heretics or dissidents, and police who maintained their

own prisons. The period of this infamous institution's greatest power to persecute, prosecute, and execute heretics was during the 16th and 17th centuries. During the administration of the **Marquis of Pombal** (1750–77), the Inquisition's power was curtailed. By 1821, when it was abolished by reformist governments, the Inquisition no longer had much significance.

For centuries, however, the Inquisition generated fear and was able to amass wealth, goods, and property confiscated from victims. In the history of Portuguese politics and culture, the Inquisition has symbolized cruel oppression, the spirit of discrimination, and religious persecution of heretics and minorities, including Jews who were often forcibly converted. It created an era of censorship of intellectual activity, injustice, bigotry, racism, and anti-Semitism, and raised questions about the role and power of the **Catholic Church** in society and the relationship between the Church and state. Some opponents of the **Estado Novo** quite justifiably compared the Inquisition's control of free thought and action with that of the Estado Novo in its day. *See also* NEW CHRISTIANS.

INTEGRALISM. A conservative political doctrine that had some influence on the designers and managers of the **Estado Novo** after 1926. Strongly influenced by the French writer Charles Maurras and his Action Française, Portuguese integralists formed a group called “Integralismo Lusitano” and, in 1914, began publishing a periodical in **Coimbra** called *Nação Portuguesa*. This advocated restoration of the monarchy in Portugal, but a monarchy that was described as “organic, traditionalist, and anti-parliamentary,” where Portugal would be ruled by a very strong royal executive. The integralists made numerous attacks on the First Republic and, undoubtedly, Prime Minister **Salazar** and his circle were influenced by this set of ideas. Its main doctrine of a return to monarchy, however, doomed it to failure, and the death of its main ideologue and writer, António Sardinha, in 1925, deprived it of its greatest thinker. *See also* SALAZARISM.

INTELLIGENCE SERVICES. Little information, much less knowledge, has been made public regarding Portugal's various intelligence services in recent times. Some information was published about the notorious political police during the **Estado Novo** (1926–74), but

much less is known about intelligence units active during democratic Portugal (1974–). Although no comprehensive study has documented the Estado Novo's political police, the **PIDE**, which operated after 1932 under various names and was sometimes compared to the Portuguese **Inquisition** (1536–1821), more has become known since Portugal's democracy was established, on 25 April 1974. One striking feature of the pre-1974 political police's work was its multifunctional nature: in addition to terrorizing, persecuting, and sometimes murdering the opposition, PIDE operated a prison system, was empowered by special laws to detain prisoners for 90 days or more without charge, carried out criminal investigations, produced political and foreign intelligence for leaders, and exercised some censorship functions, as well as having the power of arrest.

With the end of censorship after the **Revolution of 25 April 1974** and the abolition of the political police, which had many informants among the population, more information was published on the intelligence services. Given the tragic, tangled history of the Estado Novo's political police and its impact, the new democratic regime was reluctant to set up intelligence services immediately. Care was taken to ensure that such activities under a democratic government would be conducted under strictly observed laws and would be consonant with democratic values and principles. Intelligence units were developed only in the 1980s and were oriented to report to the prime minister, as well as to the ministers of the interior and of national defense. By the late 1990s, the Serviço de Informações Estratégicas de Defesa e Militar/Strategic Defense and Military Information Service (SIEDM) was operating under the Ministry of Interior, along with Serviço de Informações de Segurança/Security Information Service (SIS), a civilian outfit responsible for domestic security. Along with the SIEDM, other military intelligence units are also responsible to the Ministry of National Defense, such as the Serviço de Informações Militares/Military Information Service (SIM) and Divisão de Informações Militares/Military Information Division (DIMIL). In the national legislature, the Assembly of the Republic, a number of permanent committees are responsible for monitoring intelligence activities.

ISABEL, SANTA (SAINT ELIZABETH OF PORTUGAL) (1269–1336). Known to the Portuguese as “Holy Queen” Isabel, she was

born in **Spain**, the daughter of Pedro III of Aragon. At the tender age of 12, she was married to Portugal's **King Dinis**, who was a better monarch than he was a husband. Isabel became widely known and famous for her peacemaking among her warring family and between Portugal and Castile, her piety and devotion, and her good works in supporting and building convents, chapels, hospitals, refuges for the homeless and wayward, orphanages, and shelters for abused women. Widowed in 1325, she moved near the Santa Clara Convent in **Coimbra** and continued her pious deeds. She died on 4 July 1336, the day now celebrated as her feast day, and was buried in Coimbra. She was beatified in 1516, and canonized in 1625 by Pope Urban VIII.

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JERÓNIMOS, MONASTERY OF (MOSTEIRO DO JERÓNIMOS). Located at Belém, west of **Lisbon**, the Monastery and Cathedral of Jerónimos is the most magnificent of the Age of Discoveries monuments. Ordered built as a gift to the monastic Order of Hieronymites by **King Manuel I (1469–1521)**, following the return of **Vasco da Gama** from India in 1499, Jerónimos was constructed between 1502 and 1525. The purpose of this massive building was to commemorate the Portuguese discovery of the sea route to India. Its location, at the time of its building very close to the water, was near the Restelo beach, the departure point for da Gama's voyage.

One of Portugal's premier **tourist** attractions, Jerónimos consists of a church and claustrum and a portion of the convent, partially destroyed in the 1755 **Lisbon earthquake**. The **Manueline architectural style** was an innovation (named for King Manuel I, who helped finance constructions from the new imperial wealth from Africa and Asia; more recently, students employ the term Atlantic Baroque), with columns, pillars, and door frames decorated elaborately with stone sculpted in the form of maritime objects such as ship ropes, coral, sea life, sailors, and seaweeds.

Jerónimos is inland from the **Monument of the Discoveries**, in an open square once the main site of the 1940 Double Centenary Exposition of the Portuguese World, a kind of Lisbon world's fair. *See*

also ARCHITECTURE; COMMEMORATIONS, PORTUGUESE HISTORIC.

JOÃO I, KING (1385–1433). An illegitimate son of **King Pedro I** (r. 1357–1367), João I was the founder of the Aviz dynasty of Portuguese kings and master of the Order of Aviz. João's reign was essential in furthering the cause of Portugal's independence from a threatening Castile (**Spain**), and João's armies, with the assistance of England, defeated the Castilian pretenders in 1385 at the great **battle of Aljubarrota**. To show gratitude to God, João ordered the beginning of the construction of the great abbey at **Batalha**. João's marriage to the English princess, **Philippa of Lancaster**, daughter of John of Gaunt, was another vital element in the strengthening of the monarchy and a prelude to overseas **empire**. Philippa gave João six children, among them the scholarly prince Dom Pedro and his brother, the Infante Dom Henrique or **Henry of Aviz**, known to his-
tory outside Portugal as "Prince Henry the Navigator."

JOÃO II, KING (1455–1495). Known in Portuguese history as "The Perfect Prince," he ruled Portugal from 1481 to 1495. The son of **King Afonso V** and Dona Isabel, his life and reign reflected Portugal's ongoing struggle with Castile, a suppression of Portugal's more powerful nobility in order to reassert royal authority, and a continuation of Portugal's search for an all-water route to India around the coast of Africa. During his reign, two further exploratory steps were taken in this overseas strategy: the key voyages of Diogo Cão (as far south as the coast of Angola) and of Bartolomeu Dias, who rounded the Cape of Good Hope and entered the Indian Ocean in 1488. As part of Portugal's quest to find and help "Prester John," supposedly a Christian king in Africa or Asia, King João also encouraged the departure in the late 1480s of Afonso de Paiva and Pero de Covilhã, at least one of whom reached Ethiopia, on an expedition overland in Africa.

JOÃO III, KING (1502–1557). Portugal's most talented and accomplished monarch of the late Renaissance period. João III was the 15th king of Portugal, the son of **King Manuel I**. Well-educated by brilliant tutors, including the humanist Luís Teixeira, João at age 12

was introduced to the study of royal governance by his father. During his reign, Portugal reached the apogee of its world imperial power at least in terms of coastal area and number of different continents over which the scattered territories were spread. Portugal had a tenuous hold on various Moroccan cities, and during João's reign was forced to abandon most of the North African fortresses, due to Muslim military pressures. It was to the colonization and exploitation of giant **Brazil**, though, that João turned imperial attention. In diplomacy, no other monarch during the Aviz dynasty was as active; negotiations proceeded with **Spain**, **France**, and the Holy See. In domestic affairs, João III reinforced absolutist tendencies and built up royal power. It was João, too, who introduced the **Inquisition** into Portugal in 1536, after lengthy negotiations. The king encouraged a flowering of humanist culture as well, and among favored intellectuals were the great writers **Gil Vicente** and Damião de Góis.

João III's reign was a vital turning point in the history of Portugal's first overseas **empire** (1415–1580). He found the empire at its zenith, yet when he died it was showing grave signs of weakness not only in Morocco, but in Asia, where rival European powers and the Turks were on the move. Portugal's very independence from Spain and even the royal succession were under a cloud when João III died in 1557 without a son to succeed him. Following tragic deaths of his children, João's only indirect heir was **Sebastião**, a grandson, who succeeded to rule a menaced Portugal.

JOÃO IV, KING (1604–1656). The duke of Braganza who headed the revolution of 1640 to restore Portugal's independence from **Spain**. He became King João IV, the first of the Braganza dynasty to rule. Under the so-called "Babylonian Captivity," Portugal was ruled by the Philippine dynasty of Spain during 1580–1640. The rebellion of Catalonia against Spain in mid-1640 and restiveness in Portugal provided the occasion for the small country to organize a revolution and overthrow Spanish rule. João, duke of Braganza, was an heir of the Aviz dynasty and Portugal's most formidable noble and largest landowner. His power base was in the Alentejo province, his palace at Vila Viçosa. The revolution of the **First of December 1640**, a day that remains a national holiday in Portugal, was successful. Portugal recovered its independence, and João was proclaimed João IV of Portugal.

With slim national resources to repel reassertions of Spanish control, King João IV built an effective administration and fought a series of wars with Spain. He was aided in the effort by Portugal's oldest ally, **England**, and was able to repel subsequent Spanish invasions. An important Anglo–Portuguese treaty that renewed the alliance was signed in 1654, but the king died only two years later and did not live to see the signing of the decisive 1668 Luso–Spanish treaty that formally ended Spain's efforts to take back Portugal. In Portuguese history, João retains the title of “The Restorer,” and is a central figure in the Restoration era.

JOÃO V, KING (1689–1750). The son of **King Pedro II** and Maria Sofia Neubourg, João was acclaimed king in 1707. By any measure, his long reign (43 years) had a significant impact on Portuguese government, arts, and culture. The early period was consumed with anxiety over continental European affairs, especially the menacing War of Spanish Succession, which ended in 1714. João then shifted his emphasis to the commercial and political interests of the Atlantic **empire**, to the **Catholic Church** and religious affairs, and to reinforcing the **Anglo–Portuguese Alliance**. Under João, there was intensive development of colonization and exploitation in Portuguese America, namely **Brazil**.

In spite of the state's usual fiscal woes, the monarchy and the nobility garnered considerable wealth from Brazilian diamonds, gold, and other materials. Large amounts of revenue were expended on royal palaces, houses, churches, chapels, and convents, and, despite the **Lisbon earthquake's** impact in 1755, a considerable portion of this conspicuous consumption survives in historic monuments. Most outstanding is the great **Mafra Palace and Convent**, a baroque monstrosity, one of the largest buildings in Europe, which was constructed during João's reign. Through his acts of piety and bribery, João was declared “Most Faithful” Majesty by the pope. Under royal largesse, Portuguese **arts** and culture were cultivated, and Italian opera was introduced in **Lisbon**.

JOÃO VI, KING (1767–1826). The second son of **Queen Maria I** and King-Consort Dom Pedro III, João was proclaimed heir to the throne in 1788, following the untimely death of his older brother Dom José.

Although unprepared for the role, he was destined to rule Portugal during one of the country's most turbulent and difficult eras. His mother went insane in 1792, so Prince João had to assume greater responsibilities of governance. In 1799, he was officially named regent, but he was proclaimed king only upon his mother's death in 1816. By nature amiable and tolerant, he presided over a regime that was supposedly absolutist in an age of revolution. His reign occurred during the French Revolution and its many international consequences: Napoleon's invasion and conquest of Portugal; the flight of the royal family and court of Portugal by sea to Brazil in 1808, where they remained until 1821; civil strife in Portugal between constitutional monarchists and absolutists; and the independence of **Brazil** in 1822, a great blow against Portugal's overseas **empire**. When, in 1821, King João was obliged to return to Portugal after residing in Brazil for 13 years, he was forced to accept a **constitution**, which limited royal powers. A seesaw conflict between constitutionalists and absolutists, the latter faction led by his son, Prince Miguel and his Spanish wife, Carlota Joaquina, and the intervention of the military on behalf of one faction or another marked this turbulent era. When King João died in 1826, Portugal faced an uncertain political future as the country struggled to adjust to the new era of constitutional monarchy and liberal politics, following the nearly catastrophic loss of the richest overseas colony, Brazil.

JUDICIAL AND LEGAL SYSTEM. The 1976 **Constitution** and 1982 revisions provide for three fundamental courts, each with different functions, as well as other special courts, including a military court. The three principal courts are the Constitutional Court, Supreme Court of Justice, and Supreme Court of Administration. The Constitutional Court determines whether legislative acts (laws) are legal and constitutional. In addition, it ascertains the physical ability of the president of the Republic to perform duties of office, as well as to determine the constitutionality of international agreements. Ten of this court's members are selected by the Assembly of the Republic.

The Supreme Court of Justice, the highest court of law, heads the court system and tries civil and criminal cases. It includes first courts to try cases and courts of appeal. The Supreme Court of Administration examines the administrative and fiscal conduct of government

institutions. All matters concerning judges, including the power to discipline judges whose conduct does not comply with the law, are overseen by the Higher Council of the Bench and the Superior Council of the Administrative and Fiscal Courts. There is also an Ombudsman, elected for a four-year term by the Assembly of the Republic, who serves as chief civil and human rights officer of the country. This officer receives 3,000–4,000 complaints a year from citizens who dispute acts of the judicial and legal system.

Portugal's system of laws is based on Roman civil law and has been shaped by the French legal system. Unlike common law in the American and British legal systems, Portugal's system of laws is based on a complete body of law so that judicial reason is deductive. Legal precedent, then, has little influence. Portuguese judges are viewed as civil servants simply applying the law from codes, not as a judiciary who interpret law. While the post-1974 judicial and legal system is freer and fairer than that under the **Estado Novo** dictatorship, it has received criticism on the grounds of being very slow, cumbersome, overburdened with cases, and sometimes corrupt. There has been a backlog of untried cases and long delays before trial because of vacant judgeships and inefficient operations.

Under Portuguese criminal law, preventive detention for a maximum of four months is legal. Much longer preventive detention terms occur due to the trial backlog. Memories persist of legal abuses under the Estado Novo system, when suspects convicted of crimes against the state could be detained legally for periods of from six months to three years. Media sensationalism and the cited problems of the judicial system exacerbated tensions in recent high-profile trials, including the 2004–05 trial of a child prostitution and pedophile ring, tried in Lisbon, with suspects including a celebrated television personality and a former diplomat.

– K –

KEIL, ALFREDO (1854–1907). Portuguese composer, musician, and painter of German descent who wrote the music for *A Portuguesa*, the official national anthem of Portugal since 1911. Kiel began his studies in Germany, where he won bronze and silver medals for his

work. He also showed his work in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. In 1890, he opened an atelier on the Avenida da Liberdade, **Lisbon**, where he presented his seascapes, landscapes, and portraits. These works sold well, and some were even acquired by King Luís I for the royal art collection: *A Saída da Igreja*, *A Primavera*, *Marinha*, and *Pôr-do-Sol*.

Having learned to play the piano, Keil began to study music with Hungarian pianist Oscar de le Cinne. Professor Ernesto Vieira taught him instrumentation and harmonization. Keil's first musical works were *Aurora*, *Teus Olhos Negros*, and *Roses, Pompons e Romança*. These were followed by *Morenita*, *Souvenir de Vienne*, and *Carnaval*. Well received, these works encouraged Keil to try his hand at opera. In 1882, he presented *Suzana*, a comic opera in one act. This was followed by other musical works, such as *Recueil*, melodies for the piano; *Pátria*, a work for piano and singer; *Orientais*, a symphony with chorus and solos; and *D. Branca*, an opera in four acts with a libretto taken from the poem by **Almeida Garrett** of the same title.

D. Branca, presented in 1888, was wildly popular, which inspired Keil to write more operas: *Irene* (1893), and *Serrana* (1902). In 1902, he wrote the *Hino do Infante D. Henrique* for a festival marking the birthday of **Prince Henry of Aviz** (Prince Henry the Navigator), which was played by four military bands and sung by massed choruses. Additional patriotic music included, in 1895, a march titled *Marcha de Gualdim Pais* and *A Portuguesa*, with words by Lopes de Mendonça, which became the Portuguese national anthem in 1911.

– L –

LANGUAGE. By 2009, the Portuguese language was spoken by more than 210 million people and the number of Portuguese-speakers exceeded the number of French-speakers in the world. Seven countries have Portuguese as the official language, Portugal, **Brazil**, **Cape Verde Islands**, **Guinea-Bissau**, **São Tomé and Príncipe Islands**, **Angola**, and **Mozambique**. Overseas Portuguese, who number 4 million, reside in another two dozen countries and continue to speak Portuguese. There are distinct differences between Brazilian and

Continental (Portugal) Portuguese in spelling, pronunciation, syntax, and grammar, but both versions comprise the same language.

Next to Rumanian, Portuguese is the closest of the Romance languages to old Latin. Like Gallician, to which it is intimately linked as a colanguage, Portuguese is an outgrowth of Latin as spoken in ancient Hispanica. It began to appear as a distinct language separate from Latin and Castilian in the ninth century, and historic Portuguese made its full appearance during the 12th and 13th centuries. Major changes in the language came under the influence of Castilian in the ninth and 16th centuries, and there was a Castilianization of Portuguese culture during the 1580–1640 era of Spanish rule of Portugal and its **empire**.

The cultural aspects of Portugal reasserting her sovereignty and restoring national independence was a reaction against Castile and Castilianization. In language, this meant that Portugal opened itself to foreign, but non-Hispanic influences. In the 17th, 18th, and 19th centuries, French culture and French language became major influences enriching the Portuguese language. In international politics, there continued the impact of the **Anglo-Portuguese Alliance**, a connection that has been less cultural than political and economic. For all the centuries of English influence in Portugal since the late 14th century, it is interesting how little cultural influence occurred, at least until recently, and how relatively few words from English have entered the language. With the globalization of English, this began to change in the late 20th century, but there remain many more loan words from Arabic, French, and Italian.

LATIFÚNDIO. Large farms and landed estates, generally south of the **Tagus River**. Located mainly but not exclusively in the Alentejo district, southeast of **Lisbon**, these large, landed estates originated in Roman and then Muslim times and, by the 19th century, were characterized by absentee landowners and vast estates of thousands of acres farmed by landless peasants who provided much of the labor. Concentrated in the wheat-growing Alentejo district, the *latifúndio* represented a chronic, severe social and economic problem that many successive governments failed to address or to solve. Agrarian reform attempts in the late monarchy, the First Republic, and the **Estado Novo** failed to deal decisively with the *latifúndio* problem.

A mere handful of well-off families, sometimes resident in the towns or in Lisbon, owned most of the land, while most of the work on this land, a crucial food-producing area of Portugal, was performed by poor peasants with little or no access to land ownership. Sporadic forcible occupation of land on a small scale by farm workers occurred during the First Republic, but the authorities soon repressed it. During the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, about 1,136,363 hectares (2.5 million acres) of *latifúndio* were forcibly occupied by farm workers and political supporters, and a program of land ownership redistribution and sharing was initiated. Agrarian reform efforts regarding both *minifúndio* and *latifúndio* have continued. *See also* AGRICULTURE; *MINIFÚNDIO*.

LEFT BLOC/BLOCO DE ESQUERDA (BE). The Left Bloc is an electoral alliance of three extreme left **political parties**, the Revolutionary Socialist Party/Partido Socialista Revolucionário (PSR), Popular Democratic Union/União Democrática Popular (UDP), and Política XXI/Politics Twenty-One, and other independent candidates. It was created prior to the 1999 **European Union (EU)** election. It did not win representation in the EU parliament but did win two parliamentary seats in the legislative elections of October 1999. This made the Left Bloc the **Portuguese Communist Party's (PCP)** rival on the left. The manner in which both parties conduct themselves in the future will determine whether the BE disappears to leave the PCP as the main left opposition, or whether the BE profits from the PCP's slow transformation in an increasingly modern society.

The Left Bloc is supported primarily by urban youth. A close analysis of its voters in the cited 1999 general elections suggests that the alliance is actually stealing more votes from the **Socialist Party (PS)** than from the PCP. In 2001, Fernando Rosas ran as BE candidate for president and received 2.9 percent of the vote.

LEGISLATURES. Legislative assemblies during Portugal's long history have had various names, roles, and functions. Under the preconstitutional monarchy, various **Cortes** were convened by the monarch. From 1834 on, the constitutional monarchy usually featured a two-chamber legislature: a House or Chamber of Deputies and a House or Chamber of Peers (Lords). During the First Republic (1910–26),

after the 1911 **Constitution** was drafted and ratified by the Constituent Assembly, the two-chamber legislature was composed of a Chamber of Deputies (or “Congress”) and a Senate. The legislature of President **Sidónio Pais**’s “New Republic,” which met only briefly, was described as a “Congress.” More consultative than law-making, the **Estado Novo**’s legislature met from January 1935 to April 1974 and was composed of a National Assembly and a Corporative Chamber. Since the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, Portugal has had a one-chamber legislature called the Assembly of the Republic. The Assembly of the Republic has 230 seats elected from 18 mainland constituencies, one each from the **Azores** and **Madeira**, one from Portuguese living in Europe, and one from among Portuguese citizens living in the rest of the world. *See also* CONSTITUTIONS.

LEVADA. Portuguese word for water course, sluice, or leat, common on the Atlantic island of **Madeira**. On Madeiran hillsides, these water conduits follow hill contours and irrigate farms and gardens. Sometimes lined with concrete, the *levadas* feature maintenance paths alongside, which have also become common hiking trails in hilly Madeira. Many guidebooks of Madeira now include maps and directions to hike along these water courses. While many of them were built relatively recently, some were laid down in the 16th century.

LISBON. *Lisboa* in Portuguese, is the capital of Portugal and capital of the Lisbon district. The city population is just over half a million; greater Lisbon area contains at least 2.5 million. Located on the north bank of one of the greatest harbors in Europe, formed from the estuary of the **Tagus River**, which flows into the Atlantic, Lisbon has a long and illustrious history. A site of Phoenician and Greek trading communities, Lisbon became an important Roman city. Its name, *Lisboa*, in Portuguese and Spanish, is a corruption of its Roman name, Felicitas Julia. The city experienced various waves of invaders. Muslims seized it from the Visigoths in the eighth century, and after a long siege Muslim Lisbon fell to the Portuguese Christian forces of **King Afonso Henriques** in 1147.

Lisbon, built on a number of hills, saw most of its major palaces and churches constructed between the 14th and 18th centuries. In the 16th century, the city became the Aviz dynasty’s main capital and

seat, and a royal palace was built in the lower city along the harbor where ships brought the **empire's** riches from Africa, Asia, and Brazil. On 1 November 1755, a devastating earthquake wrecked a large part of the main city and destroyed the major buildings, killed or displaced scores of thousands of people, and destroyed important historical records and artifacts. The king's prime minister, the **Marquis of Pombal**, ordered the city rebuilt. The main lower city center, the *baixa* ("down town"), was reconstructed according to a master plan that laid out a square grid of streets, spacious squares, and broad avenues, upon which were erected buildings of a uniform height and design. Due to the earthquake's destruction, few buildings, with the exception of the larger cathedrals and palaces, predate 1755. The *Baixa Pombalina*, as this part of Lisbon is known, was the first planned city in Europe.

Lisbon is more than the political capital of Portugal, the site of the central government's offices, the legislative, and executive buildings. Lisbon is the economic, social, and cultural capital of the country, as well as the major **educational** center that contains almost half the country's universities and secondary schools.

The continuing importance of Lisbon as the country's political heart and mind, despite the justifiable resentment of its northern rival, **Oporto**, and the university town of **Coimbra**, was again illustrated in the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, which began with a military coup by the **Armed Forces Movement** there. The **Estado Novo** was overthrown in a largely bloodless coup organized by career junior military officers whose main strategy was directed toward the conquest and control of the capital. Once the Armed Forces Movement had the city of Lisbon and environs under its control by the afternoon of 25 April 1974, its mastery of the remainder of the country was assured.

Along with its dominance of the country's **economy**, politics, and government, Lisbon's cultural offerings remain impressive. The city is a treasure house that contains hundreds of historic houses and squares, churches and cathedrals, ancient palaces, and castles, some reconstructed to appear as they were before the **Lisbon earthquake** of 1755. There are scores of museums and libraries. Among the more outstanding museums open to the public are the Museu de Arte Antiga and the museums of the **Gulbenkian Foundation**.

LISBON EARTHQUAKE. On 1 November 1755, All Saints' Day, **Lisbon** experienced the worst earthquake known during its recorded history. The earthquake destroyed large sections of the city. The greatest destruction occurred in the central downtown (*baixa*) and the great Royal Palace square, now in a different form known as "Commerce Square," but still referred to by the old name, "Square of the Palace" (Terreiro do Paço). Thousands of buildings, including more than 100 churches and 300 palaces, collapsed, and tens of thousands of people died. The shocks from the earthquake were followed by a giant tidal wave from down the **Tagus River**, which drowned many, and then by devastating fires that were started by candles' lit during the All Saint's Day religious observances.

The **Marquis de Pombal**, the king's prime minister, was decisive in his rehabilitation and reconstruction efforts. Much of the Lisbon downtown, the *baixa*, was rebuilt according to a master plan that laid out a grid pattern of streets upon which were erected buildings of a uniform height and design. The Lisbon earthquake became a great issue and discussion point in mid-18th century Europe and **Great Britain**, and the British Parliament voted 100,000 pounds in humanitarian aid and relief to Portugal and the earthquake victims, one of the first cases of massive humanitarian aid for an international disaster from a foreign nation, albeit Portugal's oldest ally.

LITERATURE. The earliest known examples of literary writing in the **Portuguese language** is a collection of songbooks (*cancioneiros*) that date from the 12th century, written by anonymous court troubadours, aristocrats, and clerics with poetic and musical talent. In the 13th and 14th centuries, ballads (*romanceiros*) became popular at court. One of these written after the **battle of Aljubarrota** is considered to be the Portuguese equivalent of the English Arthurian legend. Literary prose in Portuguese began in the 14th century, with the compilation of chronicles (*crônicas*) written by Fernão Lopes de Castenhada who was commissioned by King Duarte (1430–38) to write a history of the House of Aviz.

During the 15th and 16th centuries, Portuguese chroniclers turned their attention to the discoveries and the **Portuguese overseas empire**. The Portuguese discoveries in India and Asia were chronicled

by **João de Barros**, whose writing appeared posthumously under the pen name of **Diogo Do Couto**; Fernão Lopes de Castenhade wrote a 10-volume chronicle of the Portuguese in India. The most famous chronicle from this period was the *Peregrinação* (Pilgrimage), a largely true adventure story and history of Portugal that was as popular among 17th-century readers in Iberia as was Miguel de Cervantes's *Don Quixote*. Portugal's most celebrated work of national literature, *The Lusiads* (*Os Lusíadas*), written by **Luís de Camões** chronicled **Vasco da Gama's** voyage to India (1497–99) within the context of the history of Portugal.

During the period when Portugal was under Spanish domination (1580–1640), the preferred language of literary expression was Castilian Spanish. The greatest writer of this period was **Francisco Manuel de Melo**, who wrote in Castilian and Portuguese. His most famous work is an eyewitness account of the 1640 Catalan revolt against Castile, *Historia de los Movimientos y Separación de Cataluña* (1645), which allowed the Portuguese monarchy to regain its independence that same year.

Little of note was written during the 17th century with the exception of *Letters of a Portuguese Nun*, an enormously popular work in the French language thought to have been written by **Sister Mariana Alcoforado** to a French officer Noël Bouton, Marquise de Chamilly.

Modern Portuguese writing began in the early 19th century with the appearance of the prose-fiction of **João Baptista de Almeida Garrett** and the historian-novelist **Alexandre Herculano**. The last half of the 19th century was dominated by the **Generation of 1870**, which believed that Portugal was, due to the monarchy and the **Catholic Church**, a European backwater. Writers such as **José Maria Eça de Queirós** dissected the social decadence of their day and called for reform and national renewal. The most famous Portuguese poet of the 20th century is, without doubt, **Fernando Pessoa**, who wrote poetry and essays in English and Portuguese under various names. **António Ferro** (1895–1956) published best-selling accounts of the right-wing dictatorships in Italy and Spain that endeared him to Prime Minister **António de Oliveira Salazar**, who made him the **Estado Novo's** secretary of national propaganda.

The various responses of the Portuguese people to the colonial African wars (1961–75) were chronicled by **António Lobo Antunes**. In 1998, the noted Portuguese novelist, poet, essayist, and travel writer, **José Saramago** was awarded the Nobel Prize in Literature, the first writer in the Portuguese language of whatever nationality to be so honored. His most famous novels translated into English include: *Baltazar and Blimunda* (1987), *The Year of the Death of Ricardo Reis* (1991), and *The History of the Siege of Lisbon* (1996). See also CASTELO BRANCO, CAMILO; GARRETT, JOÃO BAPTISTA DE ALMEIDA; QUEIROS, JOSÉ MARIA EÇA DE; PINTO, FERNÃO MENDES; THEATER.

LUÍS I, KING (1838–89). King Luís I was the second son of **Queen Maria II** and Dom Fernando. When his older brother, **King Pedro V**, died suddenly in October 1861, he ascended the throne. Well-educated, with the temperament of a writer and artist, Luís probably preferred the literary life to politics and public affairs. In the history of Portugal's **literature**, Luís is noted for his translations into Portuguese of several of Shakespeare's plays. During his 28-year reign, Portugal experienced a phase of the **Regeneration** and, for part of the period after 1870, relatively stable politics and a lack of military intervention in public life. During his reign, too, there was material progress and great literary accomplishment; for example, the famous novels of **José Maria Eça de Queirós** and the poetry of Antero de Quental. While republicanism became a greater force after 1871, and the first republican deputy was elected to the Chamber of Deputies in 1878, this party and its ideology were not a threat to the monarchy until after the reign of Dom Luís. When King Luís died in 1889, he was succeeded by his oldest son, Dom Carlos, whose stormy reign witnessed the rise of republicanism and serious degeneration of the monarchy.

LUSIADS, THE. Portugal's national epic poem of the Age of Discoveries, written by the nation's most celebrated poet, **Luís de Camões**. Published in 1572, toward the end of the adventurous life of Camões, *Os Lusíadas* is the most famous and most often-quoted piece of literature in Portugal. Modeled in part on the style and format of

Virgil's *Aeneid*, *Os Lusíadas* is the story of Portugal's long history, and features an evocation of the Portuguese navigator **Vasco da Gama**'s epic discovery of the sea route from Portugal to Asia. Part of the epic poem was composed when Camões was in royal service in Portugal's Asian empire, including in **Goa** and **Macau**. While the dramatic framework is dominated by various deities from classical **literature**, much of what is described in Portugal, Africa, and Asia is real and accurately rendered by the classically educated (at **Coimbra University**) Camões, who witnessed both the apogee and the beginning of decline of Portugal's seaborne **empire** and world power.

While the poet praises imperial power and greatness, Camões features a prescient naysayer: "The Old Man of Restelo," on the beach where Vasco da Gama is about to embark for Indian adventures, criticizes Portuguese expansion beyond Africa to Asia. Camões was questioning the high price of an Asian empire, and gave voice to those anti-imperialists and "Doubting Thomases" in the country who opposed more overseas expansion beyond Africa. It is interesting to note that in the Portuguese **language** usage and tradition since the establishment of *The Lusíads* as a national poem, "The Old Man of Restelo" ("O Velho do Restelo") came to symbolize not a wise Cassandra with timely warnings that Portugal would be fatally weakened by empire and might fall prey to neighboring **Spain**, but merely a Doubting Thomas in popular sentiment. *The Lusíads* soon became universally celebrated and accepted, and it has been translated into many languages. In the history of criticism in Portugal, more has been written about Camões and *The Lusíads* than about any other author or work in Portuguese literature, now more than a thousand years in the making.

LUSITANIA (AND LUSITANIANS). Pre-Roman ancient Iberians who inhabited what became known to the Romans as the province of Lusitania. Little is known of the Lusitanians, considered to be the ancestral "race" of native Portuguese, and scholars debate the extent to which Lusitanians had Celtic roots and traits. The Greek scholar Strabo's account of the Lusitanians' customs is the only detailed picture of a people who had a warlike reputation and may have practiced human sacrifice. The Lusitanians fiercely resisted Roman conquest, and a chief figure of resistance over many years was the

hunter-shepherd **Viriatus**. Eventually, the Lusitanians were subdued by the Romans. In mythology, Lusitania and Lusitanians owed their origins to a founding father, known in legend as Lusus. Thus, the prefix signifying Portuguese **language** and culture is **Luso**, as in “Luso–Brazilian,” etc.

LUSITANO, THE. The Portuguese breed of horse known as Lusitano has a history of at least a thousand years. Other noted Portuguese horse breeds are the Garrano and Sorraia, which evolved from ancient Iberian ponies and horses. Some authorities believe that the Lusitano breed evolved from the ancient Sorraia. The breed’s name derives from **Lusitania**, the name the Romans gave to a portion of southwestern Iberia, a section of which became known in later centuries as **Portugal**. The breed’s name also could be related to the name **Luso**, in ancient mythology a son of Bacchus, the god of wine and merriment. In recent decades, the Lusitano breed has become fashionable again in equestrian circles that participate in international riding competitions, as well as in producing mounts for the Portuguese bullfight. Despite a declining **economy**, less public interest and higher expenses in the **bull-fighting** industry, more opposition from animal rights advocates, and the constraints of **European Union** regulations, the bull-fight has endured as a sport. Breeding such horses has become a growing business not only for competitive riding, especially dressage, and an increasingly popular equestrian **tourism**, but also for bull-fighting. Lusitano breeding farms are located mainly in two provinces in Ribatejo, part of the Tagus River valley, and in Alentejo. *See also* EQUESTRIANISM.

LUSO. Portuguese prefix meaning “Portuguese.” It derives from the ancient Roman term for the province of **Lusitania** and the name of the native inhabitants, Lusitanians. In myth, the ancestor of all Lusitanians was one “Lusus.” Today Luso is also the name of a town in central Portugal that has famous mineral waters.

LUSO-TROPICALISM. An anthropological and sociological theory or complex of ideas allegedly showing a process of civilization relating to the significance of Portuguese activity in the tropics of Africa, Asia, and the Americas since 1415. As a theory and method of social

science analysis, Luso-Tropicalism is a 20th-century phenomenon that has both academic and political (foreign and colonial policy) relevance. While the theory was based in part on French concepts of the “science of tropicology” in anthropology, it was **Gilberto Freyre**, an eminent Brazilian sociologist–anthropologist, who developed Luso-Tropicalism as an academic theory of the unique qualities of the Portuguese style of imperial activity in the tropics. In lectures, articles, and books during the period 1930–60, Freyre coined the term Luso-Tropicalism to describe Portuguese civilization in the tropics and to claim that the Portuguese, more than any other European colonizing people, successfully adapted their civilization to the tropics.

From 1960 on, the academic theory was co-opted to lend credence to Portugal’s colonial policy and determination to continue colonial rule in her large, remaining African **empire**. Freyre’s Luso-Tropicalism theme was featured in the elaborate Fifth Centenary of the Death of Prince Henry the Navigator celebrations held in **Lisbon** in 1960 and in a massive series of publications produced in the 1960s to defend Portugal’s policies in its empire, the first to be established and the last to decolonize in the Third World. Freyre’s academic theory and his international prestige as a scholar who had put the sociology of **Brazil** on the world map were eagerly adopted and adapted by the **Estado Novo**. A major thesis of this interesting but somewhat disorganized mass of material was that the Portuguese were less racist and prejudiced toward the tropical peoples they encountered than were other Europeans.

As African wars of insurgency began in Portugal’s empire during 1961–64, and as the United Nations put pressures on Portugal, Luso-Tropicalism was tested and contested not only in academia and the press, but in international politics and diplomacy. Following the decolonization of Portugal’s empire during 1974 and 1975 (although **Macao** remained the last colony to the late 1990s), debate over the notion of Luso-Tropicalism died down. With the onset of the 500-year anniversary celebrations of the Portuguese Age of Discoveries and Exploration, beginning in 1988, however, a whiff of the essence of Luso-Tropicalism reappeared in selected aspects of the commemorative literature. *See also* COMMEMORATIONS, PORTUGUESE HISTORIC.

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MACAU. Portuguese colonial territory in south China. Portugal's last colony, in effect, and by agreement turned over to the People's Republic of China in 1999. Since Portuguese traders first settled in Macau in 1557, this tiny territory of 11 square kilometers (7 square miles) has been a Portuguese colony headed by a Portuguese administration. Long a dependency of the Viceroyalty of Goa, **Portuguese India**, Macau's prosperity depended on the vicissitudes of diplomatic and trade relations between China and the West. For nearly three centuries (ca. 1557–1842), Macau was the only Western entrepôt–outpost–enclave–colony on the China coast. Even after Japan expelled Western traders in the 17th century, Macau had a key role as the link between China and the West. This role changed after **Great Britain** seized neighboring Hong Kong (1842) as a colony. Thereafter, Macau fell into the shadow of a booming Hong Kong.

While it was a remote dependency of Portugal in the Far East, Macau has long played a multiplicity of roles: China's window on the West, preempted in the 1840s by Hong Kong; sanctuary and refuge for various waves of refugees from China or Hong Kong; because of its peculiar international status and location, a center of vice (gambling, smuggling, prostitution, and drug traffic); and a meeting place and exchange point for the Chinese and Portuguese civilizations.

Following the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, Lisbon offered to return Macau to mainland China, but the offer was refused, and negotiations between China and Portugal ensued. In the 1980s, China and Portugal negotiated a settlement whereby Portuguese sovereignty would continue until December 1999; “a Chinese territory under Portuguese administration” was the formula's general description. Chinese businessmen controlled Macau's economy, including its lucrative gambling and tourist industries, while Portugal provided nominal law and order. The settlement included a pledge by China that protection for the use of Portuguese **language** and the maintenance of democratic liberties would be continued for at least 50 years. In late December 1999, the last Portuguese governor-general hauled down the **flag** of Portugal, and the People's Republic of China assumed sovereignty over Macau. In effect, Portugal's formal

overseas empire ceased with this historic change. During colonial times, Macau was known for its gambling casinos. Since its return to China, gambling has become its biggest industry and, in 2006, Macau overtook Las Vegas in gaming revenue.

MADEIRA ISLANDS, ARCHIPELAGO OF. An autonomous region of Portugal in the Atlantic Ocean that consists of the islands of Madeira and Porto Santo and several smaller isles. The capital of the archipelago is Funchal on Madeira Island. The islands have a total area of 496 square kilometers (308 square miles) and are located about 1,126 kilometers (700 miles) southwest of Lisbon. Discovered uninhabited by Portuguese navigators between 1419 and 1425, but probably seen earlier by Italian navigators, the Madeiras were so named because of the extensive forests found on the islands' volcanic hills and mountains (the name Madeiras means wood or timber). **Prince Henry of Aviz** (Prince Henry the Navigator) was first responsible for the settlement and early colonization of these islands.

The Madeiran **economy** was soon dominated by sugar plantations, which were begun when the Portuguese transplanted sugar plants from the Mediterranean. In the 15th, 16th, and 17th centuries, Madeira was worked largely by black African **slaves** brought from West Africa, and the islands produced sugar, cereals, and wine. Eventually the islands' fortunes were governed by a new kind of wine called "Madeira," developed in the 17th century. Madeira was produced using a heating process, and became famous as a sweet, fortified dessert wine popular both in **Great Britain** and in British North America. It was a favorite drink of America's Thomas Jefferson. The Madeira wine business was developed largely under British influence, management, and capital, although the labor was supplied by African slaves and Portuguese settlers. Two other main staples of these islands' economy were initially developed due to the initiatives of British residents as well. In the 18th century, Madeira became an early **tourist** attraction and health spa for Britain, and the islands' tourist facilities began to be developed. It was a British woman resident in the 19th century who introduced the idea of the Madeiran embroidered lace industry, an industry that sends its fine products not only to Portugal but all over the world.

Since the 1950s, with new international airline connections with Britain and Portugal, the Madeiras have become a popular tourist destination and, along with Madeira wine, tourism became a major foreign exchange earner. Among European and British visitors especially, Madeira Island has attracted visitors who like flower and garden tours, challenging mountain walks, and water sports. Over the last century, a significant amount of Madeiran **emigration** has occurred, principally to the United States (California and Hawaii being the favored residential states), the Caribbean, and, more recently, South Africa. Since 1976, the Madeiras have been, like the **Azores Islands**, an autonomous region of Portugal. *See also* LEVADA.

MADREDEUS. Portuguese musical performing group of instrumentalists and singers, in a new pop music tradition, with a growing global reputation. It was formed by musicians in the late 1980s, who practiced in the **Lisbon** church and convent of Madre de Deus, also the site of a museum of Portuguese tiles. MadreDeus was formed by Pedro Ayres de Magalhães, contrabass. The group soon added acoustic guitars, cello, and accordion. A *fado* singer, the young Teresa Salgueiro, joined the instrumentalists later. In the 1990s, the group achieved international fame and celebrity in the music world with many successful concerts, records, and CDs. In 1995, music of MadreDeus was featured in a new film, *Lisbon Story*, directed by filmmaker Wim Wenders of Germany, thus opening a new phase of celebrity for the group. That same year, MadreDeus added a new instrumentalist, a bass, as the group performed in **Brazil** and the **United States**.

MAFRA, PALACE AND CONVENT OF. One of the Iberian Peninsula's largest structures, Mafra Palace and Convent remains Portugal's most colossal historic monument–building. About 48 kilometers (30 miles) north-northwest of **Lisbon**, the complex is located in the town of Mafra, one of Portugal's most ancient settlements. First ordered built by the extravagant **King João V** in 1711, Mafra Palace was not completed until decades later by poorly paid labor. With perhaps the larger building of Phillip II of Spain's Escorial Palace and Convent in mind, King João V dedicated the rival enterprise to

celebrating the birth of a child to his Austrian queen; this child, who was a girl, became queen of Spain. A veritable army of workers—at one time 45,000—constructed the massive building, which some thought would never be completed. In fact, after it was finally begun in 1717, the building was finished in 1735.

The most extravagant project of João's expansive reign, Mafra Palace and Convent are heavy in style and spirit, but this is offset by the magnificent baroque library and the music that comes from the 50-bell carillon that is still in use. The wonders of Mafra can be imagined from just a few of the building figures; there are, for example, 5,200 doorways and 2,500 windows. Some of the wealth in royal coffers that paid for Mafra came from "the King's Fifth," out of the diamonds and gold in Portugal's richest colony, **Brazil**. The manner in which this historic monument is utilized not only as a **tourist** site, but also for a variety of other purposes, is a fascinating case of Portugal as a "museum-state." Mafra today provides space for two museums, offices of the Mafra City Hall (Câmara Municipal), an elementary school, and an army regiment. It is also used as a church. *See also* ARCHITECTURE.

MANUEL I, KING (1469–1521). King Manuel I, named "The Fortunate" in Portuguese tradition, ruled from 1495 to 1521, the zenith of Portugal's world power and imperial strength. Manuel was the 14th king of Portugal and the ninth son of Infante Dom Fernando and Dona Brites, as well as the adopted son of **King João II** (r. 1481–95). Manuel ascended the throne when the royal heir, Dom Afonso, the victim of a riding accident, suddenly died. Manuel's three marriages provide a map of the royal and international history of the era. His first marriage (1497) was to the widow of Dom Afonso, son of King João II, late heir to the throne. The second (1500) was to the Infanta Dona Maria of Castile, and the third marriage (1518) was to Dona Leonor, sister of King Carlos V (Hapsburg emperor and king of Spain).

Manuel's reign featured several important developments in government, such as the centralization of state power and royal absolutism; overseas expansion, namely the decision in 1495 to continue on from Africa to Asia and the building of an Asian maritime trade **empire**; and innovation and creativity in culture, with the emergence of the

Manueline architectural style and the writings of **Gil Vicente** and others. There was also an impact on population and demography with the expulsion or forcible conversion of the Jews. In 1496, King Manuel I approved a decree that forced all Jews who would not become baptized as Christians to leave the country within 10 months. The Jews had been expelled from Spain in 1492. The economic impact on Portugal in coming decades or even centuries is debatable, but it is clear that a significant number of Jews converted and remained in Portugal, becoming part of the Portuguese establishment.

King Manuel's decision in 1495, backed by a royal council and by the **Cortes** called that year, to continue the quest for Asia by means of seeking an all-water route from Portugal around Africa to India was momentous. Sponsorship of **Vasco da Gama's** first great voyage (1497–99) to India was the beginning of an era of unprecedented imperial wealth, power, and excitement. It became the official goal to create a maritime monopoly of the Asian spice trade and keep it in Portugal's hands. When **Pedro Álvares Cabral's** voyage from Lisbon to India was dispatched in 1500, its route was deliberately planned to swing southwest into the Atlantic, thus sighting "The Land of the Holy Cross," or **Brazil**, which soon became a Portuguese colony. Under King Manuel, the foundations were laid for Portugal's Brazilian and Asian empire, from Calicut to the Moluccas. Described by France's King Francis I as the "Grocer King," with his command of the mighty spice trade, King Manuel approved of a fitting monument to the new empire: the building of the magnificent **Jerónimos Monastery** where, after his death in 1521, both Manuel and Vasco da Gama were laid to rest. *See also* NEW CHRISTIANS.

MANUEL II, KING (1890–1932). The last reigning king of Portugal, and the last of the Braganza dynasty to rule. Born in 1890, the son of **King Carlos I** and Queen Amélia, young Manuel witnessed the murder of his father and his elder brother, the heir apparent, Dom Luís, by anarchists in the streets of **Lisbon**, on 1 February 1908. In the same carriage as his mortally wounded father and brother, and himself wounded, Manuel survived to ascend the throne. His brief reign was troubled by political instability, factionalism, and rising republicanism. As the republican revolution succeeded, Manuel and his family, including the Queen Mother Amélia, fled from the bombarded

Necessidades Palace in Lisbon to the **Mafra Palace**. Rather than abdicate or remain as a prisoner of the republic, Manuel fled by ship to exile in **Great Britain**, where he remained for the rest of his life. Occupying himself with his hobby of collecting rare Portuguese books, Manuel died prematurely at age 42, in 1932, at his estate south of London.

MANUELINE ARCHITECTURAL STYLE. An innovative, unique architectural and art style named after **King Manuel I** (r. 1495–1521). In the middle of the 19th century, Portuguese romantic writers, including the great **Almeida Garrett**, began to describe the unusual architectural style developed during Manuel's reign as "Manueline." In recent years, some scholars have termed the style "Atlantic baroque" instead, because it combines themes of maritime life and a grotesque, even wild look. The style continued some years after Manuel's death in 1521. Both civil and religious **architecture** were affected by the style. It appears in private houses, as well as in historical monuments such as **Jerónimos Monastery** and the famous "Tomar Window" of the Order of Christ Chapel in Tomar. Typical of Manueline decorations are sea life and maritime themes of coral, ropes, buoys, cork, ship rigging, seaweeds and other sea plant life; tropical fruits and vegetables; and figures of mariners, all rendered in stone.

MARIA I, QUEEN (1734–1816). Daughter of **King José I** (r. 1750–77), she married her uncle Pedro III, her father's brother. Upon becoming queen in 1777, with the death of her father, Maria I dismissed the **Marquis of Pombal**, the king's prime minister. Known in Portuguese history by the nickname of "The Pious," Maria was extremely religious and, during her brief reign, attempted to reverse the dictator Pombal's statist, anticlerical policies, but to little avail. Her life and reign were transformed by family tragedies and by personal reactions to the news of the cataclysmic events in France. Maria's mental weakness was exacerbated progressively by the death of her consort Pedro (1786) and her eldest son João (1788) and gravely affected by news of the French Revolution and its excesses (1789–92). In 1792, she went insane and ceased to reign; her son João took her place and, in 1799, became prince regent. When, in 1807, the royal family fled with a British fleet to **Brazil** as **France** occupied Portugal, mad Ma-

ria, restrained, it was said, in an iron cage, was taken along. In 1816, while the royal court remained in Brazil, she died in Rio de Janeiro. *See also* JOÃO VI, KING.

MARIA II, QUEEN (1811–1853). Born Maria da Glória, daughter of **Pedro IV** of Portugal (Pedro I of Brazil) and his first wife, Archduchess Leopoldina of Austria, in Rio de Janeiro, the future queen was named regent at age seven, on the death of **King João VI** (1826). By an agreement, her father Pedro abdicated the throne of Portugal on her behalf with the understanding that she would marry her uncle **Dom Miguel**, who in turn was pledged to accept a constitutional charter written by Pedro himself. Backed by the absolutist party, including his reactionary mother **Queen Carlota Joaquina**, Dom Miguel returned from his Austrian exile in 1828 and proceeded to scrap the 1826 charter of Pedro and rule as absolutist king of Portugal, placing the nine-year-old Maria da Glória in the political wilderness.

Emperor Pedro I of Brazil (who had been Pedro IV of Portugal before he abdicated in Maria's favor) responded by deciding to fight for his daughter's cause and for the restoration of the 1826 charter. Maria's constitutional monarchy, throne, and cause were at the center of the **War of the Brothers**, a tragic civil war from 1831 to 1834. With foreign assistance from **Great Britain**, Pedro's army and fleet prevailed over the Miguelite forces by 1834. By the Convention of Évora-Monte, signed by generals of Miguel and Pedro, Miguel surrendered unconditionally, peace was assured, and Miguel went into exile.

At age 15, Maria da Glória was proclaimed queen of Portugal, but her personal life was tragic and her reign a stormy one. Within months of the victory of her constitutionalist cause, her chief advocate and counselor, her father Pedro, died of tuberculosis. Her all too brief reign was consumed in childbirth (she died bearing her 11th child in 1853 at age 34) and in ruling Portugal during one of the modern era's most disturbed phases. During her time on the throne, there were frequent military insurrections and interventions in politics, various revolutions, the siege of **Oporto**, the **Patuleia revolt and civil war**, the **Maria da Fonte** uprising, rebellion of leading military commanders (marshals), and economic troubles. Maria was a talented monarch, and helped raise and educate her oldest son Pedro, who succeeded her as **King Pedro V**, one of Portugal's most

remarkable rulers of recent centuries. Late in her reign, the constitutional monarchy system settled down, enjoyed greater stability, and began the so-called “**Regeneration**” era of economic development and progress.

MARIA DA FONTE. A 19th-century rural uprising of peasants against the central government, as well as the legendary name of a peasant woman rebel. Beginning in northern Portugal in a village called Vieira do Minho, **women** led supposedly by one called “Maria of the Fountain” were provoked to rebellion by new laws regarding health regulations (burial customs) and tax assessments. Mobs raided the village administrative center, burned records, and attacked officials. The insurrection spread throughout Minho province into Trás-os-Montes in 1846. The Costa Cabrai government was in office in **Lisbon** and failed to get the legislative chambers to support suppression of the rural uprising. The Maria da Fonte affair led to pressures to dismiss the Costa Cabrai government in order to mollify the rural insurgents. **Queen Maria II** consented to the resignation of the government and the appointment of a successor. The Costa Cabrai brothers then fled to exile in **Spain**. The name and concept of “Maria da Fonte” in folklore, songs, and tradition came to symbolize the idea of justified rural discontent and direct action against arbitrary action by the central government embodied by Lisbon. Following the end of the Maria da Fonte uprising in northern Portugal, a great deal of mythology attached to the original events.

MARIZA (MARISA DOS REIS NUNES) (1973–). Internationally celebrated, popular singer of the “new *fado*.” Born in Mozambique on 16 December 1973, at the time a colony of Portugal, Marisa dos Reis Nunes is the daughter of a Portuguese father and a mother born in Mozambique. Her maternal grandmother is African. “Mariza,” the stage name selected after she became a noted performer, moved to Portugal at age three and lived in some of Lisbon’s older quarters, including Alfama and Mouraria, where there is a tradition of *fado* singing. After she learned to sing, her favorite early styles were gospel, soul, and jazz, before she became an established singer of *fado*. Her first album, *Fado em Mim* (2001) was very popular in Portugal, and

soon she became an international singing celebrity whose distinctive voice and attractive if exotic looks helped win over audiences.

Mariza's early singing style was reminiscent of the singing of Portugal's great *fado* singer of an earlier generation, **Amália Rodrigues**. Especially noteworthy is her hairstyle, which resembles the "marcelling" style of women in the 1920s and 1930s. By 2008, she had been recognized as a two-time Latin Grammy nominee for her distinctive new style and voice. A fervent globetrotter in her concert touring, she has been feted in many countries in all the continents of the world, and she has performed in Carnegie Hall, New York, Hollywood Bowl, London's Royal Albert Hall, Sydney Opera House, Toronto's Massey Hall, and many other important venues. Her album *Concerto em Lisboa* received a Latin Grammy nomination for Best Folk Album in 2007, and her most recent performances reflect influences on her *fado* of jazz, Flamenco, and Latin and African sounds.

MARRANO. Word meaning approximately the same as **converso**, or Jew, who converted to Christianity, or **New Christian**. The origin of this term is obscure. *Marrano* in the Spanish language means "pig," but some scholars claim that the word comes from the Arabic and various meanings have been given to it. In older Portuguese-English dictionaries, **marrano** means "cursed, excommunicated, filthy." After the 1496 expulsion of those Jews who refused to convert to Christianity, certain *Marranos* adopted Catholicism only formally and secretly practiced a form of Judaism. Small numbers of "Crypto-Jews" or "Secret Jews" carried on such practices in remote provincial towns of Portugal, including Belmonte, Beira Alta, into the 20th century. See also **CONVERSO**; MANUEL I, KING, NEW CHRISTIANS.

MEDIA. The purpose of the media during the **Estado Novo** (1926–74) was to communicate official government policy. Therefore, the government strictly censored newspapers, magazines, and books. Radio and television broadcasting was in the hands of two state-owned companies: Radiodifusão Portuguesa (RDP) and Radiotelevisão Portuguesa (RTP). The first TV broadcasts aired in March 1957, and the official state visit of Queen Elizabeth II of **Great Britain** to Portugal was featured. The only independent broadcasting company during

the Estado Novo was the **Catholic Church's** Radio Renascença. Writers and journalists who violated the regime's guidelines were severely sanctioned. Under Prime Minister **Marcello Caetano**, censorship was relaxed somewhat, and writers were allowed to publish critical and controversial works without fear of punishment. Caetano attempted to "speak to the people" through television. Daily program content consisted of little more than government-controlled (and censored) news programs and dull documentaries.

After the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, censorship was abolished. As the revolution veered leftward, some sectors of the media were seized by opponents of the views they expressed. The most famous case was the seizure of Radio Renascença by those who sought to bring it into line with the drift leftward. State ownership of the media was increased after 25 April 1974, when banks were nationalized because most banks owned at least one newspaper. As the Revolution moderated and as **banking** was privatized during the 1980s and 1990s, newspapers were also privatized.

The history of two major **Lisbon** dailies illustrates recent cycles of Portuguese politics and pressures. *O Século*, a major Lisbon daily paper was founded in 1881 and was influenced by Republican, even Masonic ideas. When the first Republic began in 1910, the editorials of *O Século* defended the new system, but the economic and social turmoil disillusioned the paper's directors. In 1924, *O Século*, under publisher João Pereira da Rosa, called for political reform and opposed the Democratic Party, which monopolized elections and power in the Republic. This paper was one of the two most important daily papers, and it backed the military coup of 28 May 1926 and the emergent military dictatorship. Over the history of the Estado Novo, this paper remained somewhat to the left of the other major daily paper in Lisbon, *Diário de Notícias*, but in 1972 the paper suffered a severe financial crisis and was bought by a Lisbon banker. During the more chaotic times after the Revolution of 25 April 1974, *O Século* experienced its own time of turmoil, in which there was a split between workers and editors, firings, resignations, and financial trouble. After a series of financial problems and controversy over procommunist staff, the paper was suspended and then ceased publication in February 1977. In the 1990s, there was a brief but unsuccessful attempt to revive *O Século*.

Today, the daily paper with the largest circulation is *Diário de Notícias* of Lisbon, which was established in 1883. It became the major daily paper of record, but after the Revolution of 25 April 1974, like *O Século*, the paper suffered difficulties, both political and financial. One of its editors in the “hot” summer of 1975 was **José Saramago**, future Nobel Prize winner in literature, and there was an internal battle in the editorial rooms between factions. The paper was, like *O Século*, nationalized in 1976, but in 1991, *Diário de Notícias* was reprivatized and today it continues to be the daily paper of record, leading daily circulation.

Currently, about 20 daily newspapers are published in Portugal, in Lisbon, the capital, as well as in the principal cities of Oporto, Coimbra, and Évora. The major Lisbon newspapers are *Diário de Notícias* (daily and newspaper of record), *Publico* (daily), *Correia da Manhã* (daily), *Jornal de Noticias* (daily), *Expresso* (weekly), *The Portugal News* (English language weekly), *The Resident* (English language weekly), and *Get Real Weekly* (English language).

These papers range from the excellent, such as *Público* and the *Diário de Notícias*, to the sensationalistic, such as *Correio da Manhã*. Portugal's premier weekly newspaper is *Expresso*, founded by **Francisco Balsemão** during the last years of Marcello Caetano's governance, whose modern format, spirit, and muted criticism of the regime helped prepare public opinion for regime change in 1974. Another weekly is *O Independente*, founded in 1988, which specializes in political satire. In addition to these newspapers, Portugal has a large number of newspapers and magazines published for a specific readership: sports fans, gardeners, farmers, boating enthusiasts, etc. In addition to the two state-owned TV channels, Portugal has two independent channels, one of which is operated by the Catholic Church. TV programming is now diverse and sophisticated, with a great variety of programs of both domestic and foreign content. The most popular TV programs have been soap operas and serialized novels (*telenovelas*) imported from **Brazil**. In the 1990s, Portugal attempted to produce its own *telenovelas* and soap operas, but these have not been as popular as the more exotic Brazilian imports. *See also* CINEMA; OLIVEIRA, MANOEL DE.

MELO, FRANCISCO MANUEL DE (1608–1666). One of Portugal's two greatest prose writers of the 17th century, along with Father **An-tónio Vieira**, and one of the greatest in both Spain and Portugal in early modern times. Noted as a prose writer for his clarity, wit, satire, and realism, Melo lived through the supreme dramas of his time: the final struggle between the **Inquisition** and the **New Christians**, the loss and also recovery of parts of Portugal's overseas **empire**, as well as the independence of Portugal from **Spain** in 1640, following 60 years of Castilian rule. Melo was born in **Lisbon** to a noble family of Spanish descent. His profession was soldiering and, later, diplomacy. After he participated in the restoration of Portugal's independence and in the triumph of the Braganza dynasty as the ruling royal family of Portugal, Melo was imprisoned and exiled to **Brazil**. He ended his life as a diplomat on important missions in London, Rome, and Paris.

Educated by the Jesuits in a Lisbon school, Melo led the life of a man of action rather than that of a sedentary scribbler. His greatest works, some written in Castilian, some in Portuguese, gave him fame outside Portugal and well after his relatively brief life span. His *História de los Movimientos y Separación de Cataluna* (1645) is a classic, eyewitness account of the 1640 Catalan revolt against Castile. Among other works that mark the author's enduring accomplishment are his *Cartas Familiares* (1664); *Apólogos Dialogaes*, his short histories; *Epanéforas* (1649–59); and his internationally popular *Carta de Guia de Casados* (Guide Map for Married Persons), which was translated into English first in 1697 by Captain Stevens as *The Government of a Wife* and was a minor best-seller of the early modern age.

MENDES, ARISTIDES DE SOUSA (1885–1954). Career Portuguese diplomat whose extraordinary assistance to Jewish and other refugees in 1940 **France** led to his career's ruin, but posthumous fame and recognition. A conventional member of Portugal's governing elite and devoutly Catholic, Aristides de Sousa Mendes was educated like his twin brother, who was also a diplomat, at **Coimbra University**. He entered Portugal's foreign service, consular track, in 1910 and served in a variety of posts in Europe, Africa, Latin America, and the United States. Less successful as a diplomat than his brother César, who briefly served as foreign minister and attained

the rank of ambassador, Aristides de Sousa Mendes was assigned to be Portuguese consul in Bordeaux, France, in 1938. When thousands of desperate refugees fleeing the German armies poured into Sousa Mendes's consulate in June 1940, Lisbon ordered him to cease signing visas to enter Portugal.

Defying his superiors' orders, Sousa Mendes signed perhaps as many as 20,000–30,000 visas, after deciding not to charge fees to applicants. Because of his action in Bordeaux and at the Franco-Spanish frontier, where he also assisted refugees to escape the Nazi terror, Sousa Mendes was dismissed from his post and recalled to Lisbon. Following his suspension from service and the granting of a minuscule pension, the former diplomat and his family fell into poverty and obscurity. Through the efforts of his family and helpful foreign diplomats, Israel in 1967 declared Sousa Mendes a Hero of Conscience of **World War II** and a Righteous Gentile. In the 1980s, Portugal's government officially rehabilitated and recognized posthumously this obscure but heroic figure, and his deeds were celebrated in books, journals, newspaper articles, and TV films.

METHUEN TREATY (1703). Named for the English envoy to **Lisbon**, John Methuen, the commercial treaty that came to be known by his name was signed on 27 December 1703. This treaty followed the May 1703 treaties of alliance between Portugal, England, and the Low Countries and the Hapsburg Empire that were related to the War of Spanish Succession. The Methuen Treaty stipulated that thenceforth Portuguese wines would be favored as exports to England in the same way that English woolen imports to Portugal would have advantages. Since England was not importing French wines due to a war with France, and since English merchant-shippers in Portugal would benefit from the agreement, the Methuen Treaty was viewed as advantageous to all parties involved. With only three articles, the treaty agreed that both Portuguese wines and English woolens would be exempt from custom duties and that each nation had to ratify the treaty within two months. The Methuen Treaty became the keystone of Anglo-Portuguese commercial relations for at least the next century, but several historians have suggested that it favored England more than Portugal. *See also* ANGLO-PORTUGUESE ALLIANCE; PORT WINE.

MIGUEL I, KING (1802–1866). The third son of **King João VI** and of **Dona Carlota Joaquina**, Miguel was barely five years of age when he went to **Brazil** with the fleeing royal family. In 1821, with his mother and father, he returned to Portugal. Whatever the explanation for his actions, Miguel always took Carlota Joaquina's part in the subsequent political struggles and soon became the supreme hope of the reactionary, clerical, absolutist party against the constitutionalists and opposed any compromise with liberal constitutionalism or its adherents. He became not only the symbol but the essence of a kind of reactionary messianism in Portugal during more than two decades, as his personal fortunes of power and privilege rose and fell. With his personality imbued with traits of wildness, adventurism, and violence, Miguel enjoyed a life largely consumed in horseback riding, love affairs, and **bull-fighting**.

After the independence of Brazil (1822), Miguel became the principal candidate for power of the Traditionalist Party, which was determined to restore absolutist royal power, destroy the **constitution**, and rule without limitation. Miguel was involved in many political conspiracies and armed movements, beginning in 1822 and including the coups known to history as the "Vila Francada" (1823) and the "Abrilada" (1824), which were directed against his father **King João VI**, in order to restore absolutist royal power. These coup conspiracies failed due to foreign intervention, and the king ordered Miguel dismissed from his posts and sent into exile. He remained in exile for four years. The death of King João VI in 1826 presented new opportunities in the absolutist party, however, and the dashing Dom Miguel remained their great hope for power.

His older brother **King Pedro IV**, then emperor of Brazil, inherited the throne and wrote his own constitution, the Charter of 1826, which was to become the law of the land in Portugal. However, his daughter Maria, only seven, was too young to rule, so Pedro, who abdicated, put together an unusual deal. Until Maria reached her majority age, a regency headed by Princess Isabel Maria would rule Portugal. Dom Miguel would return from his Austrian exile and, when Maria reached her majority, Maria would marry her uncle Miguel and they would reign under the 1826 Charter. Miguel returned to Portugal in 1828, but immediately broke the bargain. He proclaimed himself an absolutist King, acclaimed by the usual (and last) **Cortes**

of 1828; dispensed with Pedro's Charter; and ruled as an absolutist. Pedro's response was to abdicate the emperorship of Brazil, return to Portugal, defeat Miguel, and place his young daughter on the throne. In the civil war called the **War of the Brothers** (1831–34), after a seesaw campaign on land and at sea, Miguel's forces were defeated and he went into exile, never to return to Portugal.

MINIFÚNDIO. Small land-holdings or farms, mainly north of the **Tagus River**. Owned by individual farmers, these small farms are typical of north and central Portugal and in area usually range between two and six hectares (one and three acres) only. One political base for the center and right-wing parties in this century has been the farmers of the *minifúndio*. *See also* **LATIFÚNDIO**.

MIRANDESE LANGUAGE. A Romance language, experiencing a miniscule revival, spoken only in a small section of northeastern Portugal. As of 2006, the number of Mirandese speakers was estimated to be between 5,000 and 15,000, residents mainly in the Portuguese municipalities of Miranda do Douro, Mogadouro, and Vimioso, near the frontier with Spain. In a 1999 law, Portugal's parliament granted the language co-official recognition with the Portuguese **language**. Mirandese has its distinct phonology, morphology, and syntax and this has been so since the formation of Portugal in the 12th century. The language's roots are in the Latin spoken in the northern Iberian Peninsula, as well as in the ancient languages of the Kingdoms of Leon and Asturias in northern Spain. Since 1986–87 in Portugal this language has been taught to students between the ages of 10 and 11 in this area's schools. Most speakers of Mirandese also speak Portuguese and some speak Spanish (Castilian).

MISERICÓRDIA. Historic, Catholic charitable institution, formally, Holy Houses of Mercy, which ministered welfare, medical, and other types of assistance to the poor and to prisoners beginning in the Middle Ages in Portugal. Although its origins lay in Christian charitable brotherhoods in medieval Portugal, the Hospitals of Mercy (Misericórdia) began in the late 15th century under royal patronage of Queen Leonor (1458–1525), wife of **King João II**, who founded the first Misericórdia in **Lisbon**. From the capital, this institution

spread into other towns and regions of Portugal. She also founded the Misericórdia at Caldas da Rainha, a town north of Lisbon, where reputedly it became the world's first thermal (waters) treatment hospital, with more than 100 beds for patients. The Holy Houses of Mercy were responsible also for assisting orphans, invalids, and foundlings, as well as for feeding prisoners in jails and burying the executed. The administration of clerical brotherhood staff of these institutions increasingly was composed of persons of high social and professional standing in their communities.

After 1500, the Misericórdias spread beyond continental Portugal to the Atlantic islands of Portugal, as well as to the overseas empire in **Brazil, Cape Verdes, Angola, Mozambique, Portuguese India, Macau**, and Japan. In Brazil alone, for example, there were more than 300 such places. Their activities went beyond hospital and other charity work and extended into education, learning, the founding of convents and presses, and patronage of the arts. More secular than religious today, the Houses of Mercy still function in Portugal by means of dispensing private welfare and mutual aid.

MONDEGO RIVER. The only major river in Portugal with its sources entirely inside Portugal. The Mondego River rises in the Estrela mountain range, flows through **Coimbra** and into the Atlantic Ocean north of the **Tagus River**. Associated with the romantic songs (including *fado*) and poetry of Coimbra University students in tradition, the Mondego is a picturesque sight as it flows to the sea through Beira Alta and Beira *Baixa* districts. The Mondego is about 280 kilometers (130 miles) long. *See also* COIMBRA, UNIVERSITY OF.

MOZAMBIQUE. Presently an independent African state and formerly Portugal's main colonial territory in East Africa. After **Angola**, Portugal's largest colony in Africa, with some 784,090 kilometers (297,000 square miles) of territory. Lisbon controlled sections of what is now Mozambique from the early 16th century to 1975. In its long history as a Portuguese colony and outpost, Mozambique was influenced by its geography and its position in the Portuguese **empire**. Mozambique's location adjacent to industrializing South Africa was an important factor in its economic life. The colony's

location on the sea route to Portugal's empire in India, mainly **Goa**, and its administrative subordination to **Portuguese India** during the centuries were also important historical factors.

Until the 20th century, except for sections of the disease-ridden Zambezi valley, what little Portuguese colonization there was remained coastal. After 1910, Portuguese colonization in the interior burgeoned and plantations of sugar, cotton, and other crops were developed. As in Angola and other African colonies of Portugal, long after **slavery** was abolished in the 19th century, forced labor of Africans continued into the 1960s in Mozambique. In 1964, a colonial war in Mozambique began, a conflict between Portuguese armed forces and nationalist forces of the Front for the Liberation of Mozambique (FRELIMO). This conflict ceased following the **Revolution of 25 April 1974** in Portugal. Mozambique obtained its independence in July 1975.

MOZARABS. During the Muslim or Moorish domination of Portugal, or parts of Portugal (714–1249), the *Mozarabs* were those peoples of Roman–Gothic culture who remained Christian in their own communities. From the Arabic term for “one who becomes Arab, from another race or nation,” the word *Mozarab* referred to those people under Muslim rule in much of what is now Portugal who kept their religious and social customs and their language.

MUDÉJAR. A term, principally in Portuguese **art** history, which refers to a historic art style that originated in the period of Muslim rule in Portugal (714–1249). During the Reconquest of the peninsula by Christian forces beginning in the ninth and 10th centuries, those populations of Muslims who happened to come under Christian rule were the *Mudéjares*. The same name applied to the relevant art style of these peoples. In Southern Portugal, for example, examples of the *mudéjar* style are found in building ornamentation.

MUSIC. Portugal's musical tradition began in the 15th century when songs (*cantigas*) written by court troubadours were set to music. Early in the 16th century the cathedral in **Coimbra** became a center for the composition of polyphonic music and produced several composers of note. Portugal's musical tradition was carried throughout

the Portuguese overseas **empire**. The playwright **Gil Vicente** used incidental music in his religious plays, some of which could be described as protomusicals. Until the 17th century, musical training was controlled by the **Catholic Church**, and the clergy dominated the field of composition. During this 18th century, Portuguese monarchs lavished money and attention on music teachers and composers, which gave Portugal the best and liveliest court music anywhere in Europe. During the period, the Italian Domenico Scarlatti was court choirmaster, which infused Portuguese church music and opera with the Neapolitan style. A Portuguese, **João de Sousa Carvalho**, was one of the most popular composers of opera and musical drama in Europe during the second half of the 18th century.

Perhaps the best-known Portuguese composer is **João Domingos Bomtempo**. Bomtempo wrote music in the classical style and, as head of the National Academy of Music, assured that the classical style remained integral to Portuguese music until well into the Romantic era. Gradually, Romantic music from Europe was accepted, having been introduced by **Alfredo Keil**, a Portuguese painter, musician, and opera composer of German descent. Portugal's only Romantic composer of note, Keil wrote the music for *A Portuguesa*, the official Portuguese national anthem since 1911.

The most widely known musical form of Portugal is the *fado*. Meaning fate, *fado* is singing that expresses a melancholic longing intermingled with sadness, regret, and resignation. There are at least two variations of *fado*: the Lisbon *fado* and the Coimbra or university student *fado*. Its origins are hotly debated. The most famous Portuguese *fado* singer was **Amália Rodrigues** (1920–99); presently, **Mariza** holds that claim. *See also* SANTOS, JOSÉ MANUEL CERQUEIRA AFONSO; VIANNA DA MOTTA, JOSÉ.

– N –

NATIONAL UNION. *See* UNIÃO NACIONAL.

NECESSIDADES, PALACE OF. Necessidades Palace is a sprawling, massive 18th-century palace in western Lisbon. As in the cases of **Mafra** and **Belém Palaces**, The Palace of the Necessities was or-

dered built by **King João V**, on the site of an old chapel dedicated to Our Lady of Necessities. The original 18th-century building consists of a chapel, palace, and convent, and contains a considerable amount of historic artifacts and **art**. As the current headquarters of Portugal's Foreign Service and Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Necessidades is a working museum-palace with many different sections. Various monarchs resided in the rose-colored building. During the course of the 5 October 1910 republican revolution in Lisbon, the last reigning king, **Manuel II**, spent his last night as sovereign in Necessidades Palace before escaping to Mafra Palace en route to exile in **Great Britain**. Damage to the palace from republican naval shelling has since been repaired. One section of the palace houses the Ministry of Foreign Affairs's official library and archives, where several centuries of records of external relations are deposited.

NEGREIROS, JOSÉ SOBRAL DE ALMADA (1893–1970). Portuguese artist and writer. Born on the island of São Tomé, West Africa, a Portuguese colonial possession until 1975, Almada Negreiros began his artistic career as a humorist and cartoonist during the First Republic (1910–26). Linked with other writers, such as the celebrated **Fernando Pessoa** in the *Orpheu* review group, he became a leader of the avant garde artists–intellectuals who became cultural rebels through their **art** (especially painting and sculpture) and their writings. From the beginning, he became a leader in Portugal's modernist and futurist movements, and his sense of Portuguese identity and artistic taste was shaped in part by two important journeys to Madrid and Paris before 1930.

Almada Negreiros was a versatile artist who expressed himself through a variety of creative works: drawings and paintings, novels, lectures, and pamphlets. In Portuguese art history, nevertheless, he became immortalized through his paintings of frescos and murals, such as the pictures found in A Brasileira, a legendary cafe in **Lisbon's** Chiado area; his paintings at the Exposition of the Portuguese World (1940); his murals at maritime stations at Alcântara (Lisbon) and Rocha do Conde De Óbidos, as well as in other public buildings; and a prominent panel in the atrium of the **Gulbenkian Foundation** headquarters, Lisbon, completed in 1969, the year before his death. In addition to other forms, he experimented with geometric abstractionism.

Politically at odds with the **Estado Novo** toward the end of his life, Almada Negreiros remained ambivalent when his work was showered with official honors.

NEW CHRISTIANS. Term applied to Portuguese of Jewish descent who had been converted to Christianity after the 1496 expulsion of Jews law of **King Manuel I**. Jews had settled in Portugal since the early years of the monarchy, and by the late 15th century, a significant minority of Jews was dominant in agriculture, medicine, crafts, finance, and government. Part of King Manuel's marriage contract with a Spanish princess decreed the expulsion of Jews in Portugal, following what had occurred in **Spain** in 1492. Those persons who had converted to Christianity after the 1496 expulsion law in order to avoid having to leave Portugal were termed "New Christians" (Cristãos-Novos) to distinguish them from "Old Christians," the remainder of the Christian population. For centuries thereafter, New Christians suffered persecution and discrimination in Portugal, both at the hands of the **Inquisition** (after 1536) and from other sectors of society. It was not until the laws passed by the **Marquis de Pombal** regime in the 1770s that official discrimination in holding public office in Portugal was ended in the case of the New Christians. Some New Christians only formally adopted Catholicism and as "Crypto-Jews" practiced corrupted forms of Judaic belief in remote provincial towns such as Belmonte, in Beira Alta province. Such practices continued into the 20th century. *See also* **CONVERSO**; **MARRANO**.

NEW REPUBLIC (1917–1918). Known in Portuguese as the "República Nova" regime, the New Republic was an authoritarian and presidentialist phase of the disturbed First Republic (1910–26), when Major **Sidónio Pais** organized a military coup, overthrew the democrats' system, and established a brief, fragile New Republic that he hoped would reconcile monarchists and republicans, conservatives and liberals, anticlericals and clericals. The New Republic abruptly collapsed following the December 1918 assassination of Sidónio Pais, who had been elected president of the republic in the spring of 1918.

NEW STATE. *See* **ESTADO NOVO**.

NORTH ATLANTIC TREATY ORGANIZATION (NATO). Portugal joined the North Atlantic Treaty Organization in 1949, as a founding member. Besides complementing the Atlantic orientation of Portugal's foreign and defense policies, this membership also supported the country's close relationship with two leading members of NATO, **Great Britain** and the **United States**. Portugal's slight contribution to NATO in the first decades after joining was conditioned mainly by the fact that Portugal's primary concern was in defending its colonial empire, **Portuguese India** (1954–61) and in conducting several colonial wars in its African **empire** in **Angola**, **Mozambique**, and **Guinea-Bissau** (1961–74). One contentious question during this phase of Portugal's membership was the extent to which Portugal used NATO-issued equipment to fight those wars in Africa and Asia, since several of these colonial territories were neither on the Atlantic nor in NATO's jurisdiction (Mozambique and Portuguese India).

The perceived strategic value of Portugal's key Atlantic archipelagos, the **Azores** and **Madeiras**, constituted Portugal's primary contribution to NATO and neutralized any U.S. ambivalence about the question of Portugal's NATO membership. The usefulness of Azores' air and naval bases, especially Lajes base at Angra do Heroísmo, Terceira Island, Azores, along with bases in continental Portugal and in the Madeira Islands, trumped international criticism of Portugal's colonial action and influenced American policy toward Portugal. This remained the situation until after the Yom Kippur war, an Arab–Israeli conflict, in October 1973, when Portugal, despite the risks to her energy supplies, gave the United States permission to use Azores bases for resupplying Israel.

The **Revolution of 25 April 1974** had an impact on Portugal's relationship to NATO. Leftist forces in Portugal were now in command, and Portuguese NATO delegates did not attend highly sensitive NATO defense briefings. But by 1980, after moderate military forces had ousted the radical leftists, Portugal's NATO roles returned to the routing. One of NATO's major subordinate commands became IBERLANT (Iberian Atlantic Command), under SACLANT (Supreme Commander Atlantic), located at Norfolk, Virginia. IBERLANT is located at Oeiras, Portugal and, in 1982, the IBERLAND commander for the first time was a Portuguese Vice Admiral. That same year, Spain joined NATO and, until 1986, when Spain decided

not to join NATO's integrated military structure, Portugal was anxious that Portuguese commanders not be subordinate to Spanish commanders in NATO. As a key leader of IBERLANT, along with the representative units of Great Britain and the United States, Portugal's forces remain responsible for surveillance and patrolling of the area from central Portugal to the straits of Gibraltar.

Portugal has made symbolic if modest contributions to NATO's mission in the Balkan conflicts beginning in the late 1990s and in Afghanistan since 2001. Among Portugal's contributions has been the service of medical units in Afghanistan. *See also* ARMED FORCES; GREAT BRITAIN; UNITED STATES.

NORTON DE MATOS, JOSÉ (1867–1955). One of Portugal's most important and influential colonial administrators of the 20th-century African **empire**, a central figure in the management of Portugal's dispatch of an army to Flanders in World War I, and oppositionist candidate in the 1949 presidential elections. Trained as an army engineer, he attended **Coimbra University** and became a stalwart republican. During much of the 1890s, he served in **Portuguese India**, where he came under the influence of the style and policies of the British Raj. During the First Republic, he held a number of important posts in the empire and in Portugal: governor-general of **Angola** (1912–15), colonial minister (1915), and minister of war (1915–17), during which service he was instrumental in organizing the mobilization and dispatch of Portugal's Expeditionary Force (CEP) to the western front in 1917. Later, he served as high commissioner and governor-general of Angola (1921–24) and was named Portugal's minister to **Great Britain** (1924–26).

Dismissed from his London post by the military dictatorship in 1926, Norton de Matos never held an official post again and, as he opposed both the military dictatorship and the **Estado Novo**, he found it difficult to practice his engineering profession while in retirement from the army. However, he remained important in post-1926 colonial policies and concepts, and attempted to put them into practice after 1945. In 1949, General Norton de Matos was the oppositionist candidate in the presidential elections and opposed the regime incumbent, Marshal **António Óscar Carmona**. Using the law, police harassment, and other means, the Estado Novo persecuted

Norton de Matos's followers and disrupted his campaign. Just before the rigged election was to be held, the aged general withdrew his candidacy, rightfully claiming fraud and intimidation. A tough if liberal reformist in colonial affairs, the senior colonial authority wrote his final book *A Nação Una* in 1953, calling for the regime to implement his basic reform ideas and to improve treatment of Africans in labor and race relations. Norton de Matos's prescient warnings about African policies were largely ignored, while Lisbon followed his key strategic and development concepts. *See also* CARMONA, ANTÓNIO ÓSCAR DE FRAGOSO.

– O –

OLIVEIRA, MANOEL DE (1908–). Portugal's premier filmmaker, producer, and director of the 20th century. Born in **Oporto**, Oliveira began his filmmaking career in 1931 with the short film *Douro, Faina Fluvial* (Douro, River Work). In 1942, he produced the classic film *Aniki-Bobó*. As a filmmaker in the 1940s, 1950s, and 1960s, Oliveira came into his own as the most celebrated and, finally, honored filmmaker and director in Portugal. In the 1970s, awards and honors began to accumulate. Still making films in his eighties and connected with the film world in his nineties, he directed a film that reached **cinemas** in the United States: *The Convent* (1994), with John Malkovich and Catherine Deneuve. Like other notables in the arts, Oliveira was nothing if not versatile and controversial, in his behavior as well as in his filmmaking methods. In his youth, he gained public notice as a top athlete as well as an actor in several 1930s films.

OLIVEIRA MARQUES, ANTÓNIO HENRIQUES DE (1933–2007). Historian, scholar, and editor. Since 1970, Portugal's most widely published, prolific historian, he was born in **Estoril** in 1933. Trained as a medieval historian, Oliveira Marques mastered other fields of history as well, including the history of the First Republic (1910–26), the **Estado Novo** (1926–74), and the general history of Portugal. In the late 1950s and early 1960s, he received his advanced degrees from the Faculty of Letters, University of Lisbon. His doctoral dissertation treated Portugal's trade with the Hanseatic League,

a topic of medieval economic history. Oliveira Marques taught as a junior faculty member at his alma mater from 1957 to 1964, but left after a falling out with senior faculty and political authorities. For some years he taught at several institutions in the United States, including the Universities of Florida and Minnesota.

Returning to Portugal during the last phase of the **Marcello Caetano** government, Oliveira Marques taught at the University of Lisbon. In November 1974, he was appointed director of the National Library of Lisbon, a prestigious but trying cultural post he held for some years. In the 1980s, he changed universities and joined the Faculty of Germanic Studies, Universidade Nova de Lisboa. Of his vast bibliography, two of his historical works were published in English in the United States: *Daily Life in Portugal in the Middle Ages* (1971) and *History of Portugal* (2 vols., 1972, 1976, and later editions). In terms of public acclaim and book sales in Portugal, his most consistently popular work in print continues to be his survey, *História de Portugal*, in several volumes, published in many editions since the early 1970s.

OPORTO, CITY OF. Known as Porto in Portuguese, it is the second largest city after **Lisbon** and a major commercial–industrial center of northern Portugal, as well as the outlet of the **port wine** industry. The capital of Oporto district, it is also “capital of the north,” in effect. The current population of the city is approximately 240,000, with that of Greater Oporto over 2 million. Oporto lies on the right (north) bank of the **Douro River**, about three kilometers (two miles) from its mouth. Its harbor is Leixões. Several bridges connect the city to the south bank, including the famous Eiffel Bridge, built in the 19th century by the A. Gustave Eiffel, builder of the Eiffel Tower of Paris. Among the notable historic buildings are many churches, a Gothic medieval cathedral, a bishop’s palace, and the Tower of the Clérigos. There are also interesting museums and libraries. Oporto’s **economy** has been dominated for three centuries by the port wine shippers and industry; the wine, in fact, is named after the city itself. In recent decades, however, the local economy has become diversified, and **industry** and manufacturing have begun to surpass port wine in importance.

The city of Oporto, proud of its hard-working reputation and its preeminence, has an ancient rivalry with the capital, Lisbon. Since 1820, when the first liberal, constitutional movement burst forth in Oporto, the city has often anticipated Lisbon in supporting liberal political causes. Other cases occurred in the 19th century, including the January 1891 republican revolt at Oporto, and in the 20th century, Oporto's fervent support of the presidential candidacy of the ill-fated general **Humberto Delgado** in 1958. It is noteworthy, too, that one of the most enduring critics of the **Estado Novo** in its middle and late years (1940s–1960s) was a bishop of Oporto, who was exiled and penalized by the regime.

Whether it is in soccer (*futebol*), liberal causes, hard work, or politics, Oporto and its inhabitants nurse a fierce local pride and claim superiority over Lisbon. In Portuguese tradition, Oporto residents are known as “tripe-eaters” (*tripeiros*), as opposed to Lisbon residents, known as “lettuce-eaters” (*alfaceinhas*). Despite Lisbon's dominance of the print media, starting in the 19th century, the city of Oporto has supported some of the country's more important daily newspapers.

OURIQUE, BATTLE OF (25 July, 1139). The battle between the forces of the newly proclaimed king of Portugal, **Afonso Henriques**, “The Founder,” and Muslim forces, in which the Christian forces triumphed. The probable site of this battle whose history is clothed in legend is near the present city of Santarém. It is possible that the Muslims near that city then resumed payment of tribute to Afonso Henriques and that the triumph prepared the Portuguese forces for the coming assault on **Lisbon**, held by the Muslims, which was successful eight years later. Among the legends about the battle of Ourique is one that the Christians won due to the divine intervention of the Lord. Firm historical evidence about this battle, however, remains slight.

– P –

PACHECO, DUARTE (1900–1943). One of Portugal's outstanding civil engineers and the most energetic and accomplished cabinet minister in the early phase of the **Estado Novo**, Duarte Pacheco was born

in Loulé, Algarve district. As director and instructor in the Higher Technical Institute, **Lisbon**, Pacheco trained several generations of urban planners and engineers and served in several key posts in the Dictatorship: minister of education, president of the Lisbon Câmara Municipal (City Hall), and on two occasions between 1932 and 1943, the premier minister of public works and communications in the history of the regime. As a relatively liberal republican in a regime of conservatives, monarchists and crypto-monarchists, and integralists, Duarte Pacheco was a political maverick but a highly respected, if controversial, man of action. His Public Works Ministry helped to transform the look of the capital, Lisbon, improve urban planning and housing, create the remarkable Double Centenary Exposition of the Portuguese World at **Belém** in 1940, and construct a number of key edifices for various institutions. In November 1943, he was killed in a tragic automobile accident. His influential memory still lives in the oral tradition of the new Portugal's Ministry of Public Works, and his work sets a high standard of excellence.

PAIS, SIDÓNIO (1872–1918). Leading political figure during the First Republic, minister to Berlin for the republic, and ill-fated president of the republic (1917–18) as well as founder of the **New Republic** system. Born in the Minho district to a family of modest means, Sidónio Pais was one of the most brilliant students in mathematics of his generation at **Coimbra University**, the pre-1926 crucible for so many of Portugal's future political leaders. Following his doctorate in mathematics at Coimbra, he became a faculty member at that institution and entered republican politics. He joined **Brito Camacho's** moderate republican party, the Unionists, and served as Portugal's minister to Berlin, 1912–16.

A reserve army major, Pais was ambitious as well as idealistic, and sought to reform the republic's turbulent, inefficient system. He headed the military coup and insurrection of 5–8 December 1917, which overthrew the **Afonso Costa** government and ousted the Portuguese Republican Party from power. Sidónio Pais engineered a novel regime called the New Republic during 1917–18 and was elected president of the republic in the spring of 1918. This new government sought to reconcile monarchists and republicans and to stabilize politics. Described by admirers as “half prince, half *condot-*

tiere,” Sidónio Pais’s experiment was short-lived and soon collapsed in chaos. Pais was assassinated by a fanatic republican at Rossio railroad station on 14 December 1918.

PATULEIA, REVOLT AND CIVIL WAR OF (1846–1847). An important 19th-century civil war that featured political forces centered at **Oporto** pitted against the **Lisbon** government of **Queen Maria II**’s constitutional monarchy. It began with a military revolt in Oporto on 6 October 1846. A provisional junta, led by the Septembrist José da Silva Passos (1800–63), proclaimed goals including the ousting of the Lisbon government of the day and the restoration of the 1822 **Constitution**. Foreign intervention was sparked when the Oporto Septembrist Junta was joined by Miguelist rebels. On the pretext of preventing a restoration of a Miguelist absolutist government, **Great Britain**, **France**, and **Spain** intervened and dispatched armies and fleets to Portugal. Queen Maria II requested foreign assistance, too, and worked to safeguard her throne and political system.

While a British fleet blocked Portugal’s coast, Spain dispatched armies that crossed the Portuguese frontier in both south-central and northern Portugal. A siege of junta forces that lasted almost eight months followed. On 12 June 1847, the foreign powers presented an ultimatum to the Oporto junta, which, although it tried to continue resistance, decided to negotiate and then to capitulate to the foreign forces and the Lisbon government. With the signing of the controversial Convention of Gramido (1847), the Patuleia civil war ended. *See also* GRAMIDO, CONVENTION OF.

PEACE TREATY OF 1668, LUSO-SPANISH. Portugal and **Spain** signed the Peace Treaty of 13 February 1668 that ended the **War of Restoration**, which had continued since 1641. The negotiations were mediated by **England**, which guaranteed that the peace would be kept. By this important document, both states promised to return their respective conquests during that war, with the exception of the city of Ceuta in Morocco, which declared for Spanish sovereignty and was not returned to Portugal. Spain’s signing of the treaty also signified that Portuguese independence was definitively recognized. *See also* PEDRO II, KING.

PEDRO OF AVIS, PRINCE (1392–1449). One of the many talented sons of **King João I** and **Philippa of Lancaster**, regent and older brother of **Prince Henry of Aviz** (Prince Henry the Navigator). Pedro's life and work were important in consolidating an independent Portuguese monarchy and in promoting the maritime discoveries and explorations down the coast of Africa. Well-educated for a member of royalty in his day, Infante Dom Pedro was present as a warrior at the auspicious conquest of Ceuta in Morocco in 1415, and was named Duke of Coimbra that same year. From 1425 to 1428, he traveled and studied in Europe, including in **England**, Germany, Hungary, Italy, and Aragon and Castile. He returned from his travels with a copy of Marco Polo's famous book and introduced this to his country.

Among royalty and nobility, Prince Pedro's views were cautious regarding further Portuguese expansion in Morocco, and during the troubled times of 1436–38, he opposed the planned but ill-fated attack on the Moroccan city of Tangier; he called for the surrender later of Ceuta, in order to ransom the life of Prince Fernando, a prisoner in Moroccan hands. Following the death of King Duarte in 1438 and the subsequent succession crisis, including a civil war among factions, Prince Pedro acted as regent until 1446, when Prince Afonso reached his majority and was acclaimed **King Afonso V**, called "The African" (r. 1446–81).

After Prince Pedro's powers were given up finally in 1448, his formerly exiled enemies returned to Portugal and vowed vengeance against him. Warfare ensued and, with the defeat of his army at the battle of Alfarrobeira in 1449, Prince Pedro was killed. His many accomplishments and talents off the battlefields were forgotten over the generations. Beginning in the late 19th century, the memory of his distinction and greatness was increasingly obscured by the growing fame, legend, and myth of his younger brother, Prince Henry of Aviz (Prince Henry the Navigator). An effort to rehabilitate the memory and public knowledge of Prince Pedro began in the early 1960s among a handful of foreign scholars, and was carried on by Portuguese scholars in the 1990s, but it appeared to have little effect against the pervasive cult of Prince Henry the Navigator.

PEDRO I, KING (1320–1367). The eighth king of Portugal and fourth son of **King Afonso IV** and Beatriz of Castile. His first marriage

as prince and heir was to a daughter of a Castilian *hidalgo* (in Portuguese, *fidalgo*), Constança Manuel. In Constança's retinue from **Spain** came the alluring lady-in-waiting, **Dona Inês de Castro**, a Gallician of Castilian stock. The notorious love affair between Inês and Pedro soon sparked a bitter conflict between Pedro and his father. Fearing the threat of Castilian intervention in Portuguese affairs using Inês's connection with Pedro, Afonso ordered the murder of Inês in 1355. Reacting to this tragedy, Pedro rebelled and went to war against his father, although a truce was called after a short period. Afonso died in 1357. Pedro became noted, during his brief reign of a decade, for avoiding war and for a record of even-handed justice. The legend that Pedro disinterred the corpse of Inês de Castro and proclaimed it queen grew up after Pedro's death in 1367 and became a popular theme in European literature centuries later.

PEDRO II, KING (1648–1706). The 23rd king of Portugal who ascended the throne in 1668. This followed the 1667 coup d'état that deposed Pedro's handicapped brother, King Afonso VI, who was later held under house arrest in the **Azores** and then in the **National Palace of Sintra** for the remainder of his life. Pedro then married his sister-in-law. During his reign, Pedro signed the great **peace treaty of 1668** with **Spain**, thus ending the **War of Restoration**. With increased revenues from mineral exploitation in **Brazil**, Portugal's national finances under Pedro were strengthened. With his chief minister, the count of Ericeira, Pedro promoted the establishment of early basic industries.

PEDRO IV, KING (also EMPEROR PEDRO I OF BRAZIL) (1798–1834). The first emperor of **Brazil** and restorer of the liberal, constitutional monarchy, as well as of the throne of his daughter, **Queen Maria II**. Born in Queluz Palace, the second son of the regent **João VI** and **Queen Carlota Joaquina**, Pedro at age nine accompanied his parents and the remainder of the Braganza royal family to Brazil, fleeing the French invasion of Portugal in late 1807. Raised and educated in Brazil, following the return of his father to Portugal, Pedro declared the independence of Brazil from Portugal in the famous "cry of Ipiranga," on 7 September 1822. As Emperor Pedro I of Brazil, he ruled that fledgling nation-state-empire from 1822 to

1831, when he abdicated in favor of his son Pedro, and then went to Portugal and the **Azores**.

Pedro's absolutist brother, **Dom Miguel**, following the death of their father João VI in 1826, had broken his word on defending Portugal's constitution and had carried out an absolutist counter-revolution, which was supported by his reactionary mother Carlota Joaquina. Pedro's daughter, Queen Maria II, who was too young to assume the duties of monarch of Portugal, had lost her throne to King Miguel, in effect, and Pedro spent the remainder of his life restoring the constitutional monarchy and his young daughter to the throne of Portugal. In the 1832–34 **War of the Brothers**, Pedro IV's armed forces triumphed over those of Dom Miguel and the latter fled to exile in Austria. Exhausted from the effort, Pedro died on 24 September 1834, and was buried in Lisbon. In 1972, his remains were moved to Ipiranga, Brazil.

PEDRO V, KING (1837–1861). Of all Portuguese kings in the 18th and 19th centuries, Pedro V was the best educated and most intellectually talented. Pedro was the firstborn son of **Queen Maria II** and Prince Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. Exceptionally well-educated, Prince Pedro traveled extensively abroad, which was unusual for a Portuguese royal heir in that day, and was tutored under his mother's watchful eye. He was blessed with a brilliant memory, a fine imagination, shrewd political judgment, and a fund of learning. Pedro demonstrated a keen interest not only in the common political affairs such as fell within a constitutional monarch's concerns, but with a variety of subjects including science, **emigration**, diplomacy, and the African colonies. He carried on a lively correspondence with royal relatives abroad, including Queen Victoria of England to whom he was related through his father.

When his mother Queen Maria II died tragically at age 34 in childbirth, 16-year-old Pedro became regent. He ascended the throne at age 18 and was a model monarch. He ruled formally from 1855 to 1861, when he died of typhus. His brief but significant appearance as an enlightened ruler was a sad case of unfulfilled promise.

PENA, NATIONAL PALACE OF. High above the **National Palace of Sintra**, on the top of the Sintra mountain range, lies Pena Palace,

a product of 19th-century imagination and work. Constructed during the 1840s and 1850s, following the acquisition of a ruined ancient convent on the site, the palace was built by the consort of **Queen Maria II**, the German prince Ferdinand. It was destined to become the favorite summer residence of the royal family, a cooler spot than even the National Palace in the square below and with a view unmatched in Portugal. From the top of Pena Palace, on a clear day, one can see the Atlantic Ocean to the west and north and **Lisbon** to the east and south.

The palace's romantic situation overlooking Sintra and beyond, a place made famous in 19th-century English literature by the writings of Lord Byron and William Beckford and a host of lesser-known travelers, is fully supported in the bizarre architecture of the building itself. Designed by a German military architect, Baron Von Eschweg, whose statue stands nearby on another mountain peak, so that his spirit may contemplate his famous handiwork, the palace's styles combine ancient, medieval, and modern forms. To visitors who know Disney World castles, Pena may appear to be a Magic Kingdom building. In addition to the Gothic and **Manueline architectural styles**, the Moorish touch is present in towers and a minaret. The interior rooms are rich in *azulejos* and historic furniture of the Victorian era. *See also* ARCHITECTURE.

PEREIRA, MANUEL PEDRO DA SILVA (1963–). Attorney, politician, and civil servant. Silva Pereira holds a law degree from the University of Lisbon's Faculty of Law (1985) as well as a master's in law (1993) from the same institution. He has been on the faculty of that law school, as well as at the Autonomous University of Lisbon. He has served in various government posts since 1988 and, since 2000, has been a member of the **Socialist Party (PS)**. He has been an elected member of the Assembly of the Republic since 2002, and worked on the independent television channel as editor. The author of various articles and theses, he was minister of the presidency, in the cabinet, in the 1999–2003 government and, since March 2005, has again been Minister of the Presidency, under Premier **José Sócrates**.

PEREIRA, PEDRO TEOTÓNIO (1902–1972). Teotónio Pereira was one of the most important political figures in the higher ranks of the

Estado Novo, present at the creation of the Estado Novo and, for more than a decade, a potential successor of Prime Minister **António de Oliveira Salazar**. Born in **Lisbon** and trained as a mathematician and insurance actuary, Pereira was one of the few Estado Novo high officials to have studied abroad (in Switzerland). At age 31, he was named the first undersecretary of state for corporations and played an important role in the construction of **corporativism**. He was minister of commerce and industry (1936–37) and, in 1938, was sent to represent Portugal in Generalíssimo **Francisco Franco**'s **Spain**, the first of a number of top diplomatic posts he served in for the Estado Novo. At various times until he served as minister of the presidency (1958–61), succeeding his rival **Marcello Caetano** in the post, Teotónio Pereira was Portugal's ambassador to **Great Britain**, **Brazil**, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, and the **United States**.

One of the most influential personalities of the regime, Teotónio Pereira remained loyal to the aging Salazar throughout the middle and late periods of the Estado Novo (1944–58; 1958–68) and was on the short list of potential successors to Salazar in September 1968. Ill health, age, and the candidacy of Caetano, however, conspired against him. He died in Lisbon in November 1972.

PEREIRA DE MELO, ANTÓNIO MARIA FONTES (1819–1887). Major 19th-century political leader, engineer, and mastermind of the **Regeneration** era (1851–80). Trained in the **armed forces** as an engineer, Fontes Pereira de Melo participated in the suppression of the **Maria da Fonte** uprising by Saldanha's forces and, in 1851, was called to **Lisbon** to assume various key posts in several ministries (Navy and Overseas; Treasury; Public Works; Commerce and Industry). In 1858, he assumed leadership of the Regenerador Party and was instrumental in directing and guiding the economic and industrial process known as the Regeneration after 1851. He became prime minister, too, and received many honors and much recognition.

Realizing that Portugal lagged in economic development and industrialization, he initiated a program of building the necessary **transportation** infrastructure. During this era, Portugal acquired a basic network of railroads and roads and the beginnings of industrialization and participation in various export markets with Portuguese

products and resources. Fontes Pereira de Melo's programs marked the onset of modern economic development in Portugal and represented the apogee of political stability and financial accomplishment during the constitutional monarchy.

PESSOA, FERNANDO (1888–1935). Portugal's most celebrated and talented modern poet and one of Europe's greatest 20th-century poets, whose works are now translated into many languages. Pessoa was born in Portugal but was raised and educated in South Africa, and for a period, English became almost his first language. He returned to Portugal at age 12, and wrote poetry from an early age. He wrote poetry and essays both in English and in Portuguese under various names. Beyond that unusual practice, Pessoa created different personalities with names such as Alberto Caeiro, Ricardo Reis, Álvaro de Campos, and Bernardo Soares, his heteronyms. He became one of Europe's greatest modernist poets, although he did not publish much of his poetry in book form during his lifetime. His book *Mensagem* (Message), published in 1934 in Lisbon and receiving a government prize, appeared only a year before his premature death at age 47. Although he had published poems in scattered, ephemeral periodicals in Portugal, much of his writings remained unpublished, stored in a family trunk.

PHILIPPA OF LANCASTER, QUEEN (1360–1415). Wife of **King João I** of Portugal and daughter of John of Gaunt, son of King Edward III. Born in **England**, she was educated at home within the bosom of the royal family and little is known of her life until she was 26 and sailed to Castile with her father. The marriage of King João I and Philippa was celebrated in **Oporto** in 1387, and during the next 15 years of the queen's life, at least half of the time was expended in pregnancy and childbearing. From age 27 to 42, a remarkable physical feat for that era or any other, Philippa bore the so-called "illustrious generation" of children that included **Prince Henry of Aviz** (Prince Henry the Navigator), **Prince Pedro**, and King Duarte (r. 1433–38). Her six sons alone dominated politics for generations, and although what precise role she had in their education is unclear, her influence was present in continuing the **Anglo-Portuguese Alliance** and in encouraging the expansion of Portugal into North Africa.

Philippa maintained a long correspondence with her family in England, was very religious, and introduced a new liturgy into the Portuguese Church services. Philippa, who was a strong influence in encouraging the crusade to attack Muslim North Africa, died of the Black Plague on the eve of the epoch-making Ceuta expedition in 1415. Although she died at Odivelas, eventually her remains were transferred to the great **Monastery of Batalha** (1416), where the effigy on her fine tomb is the only faithful likeness of her in Portugal.

PIDE (POLITICAL POLICE). Commonly known as the PIDE, the **Estado Novo**'s political police was established in 1932. The acronym of PIDE stood for *Polícia Internacional e de Defesa do Estado* or International and State Defense State Police, the name it was known by from 1945 to 1969. From 1932 to 1945, it was known by a different acronym: PVDE or *Polícia da Vigilância e de Defesa do Estado*. After Prime Minister **António de Oliveira Salazar** was replaced in office by **Marcello Caetano**, the political police was renamed DGS, *Direcção-Geral da Seguridade* or Directorate General of Security.

This force was the most infamous means of repression and a major source of fear among the opposition during the long history of the **Estado Novo**. While it was described as "secret police," nearly everyone knew of its existence, although its methods—in theory—were "secret." The PVDE/PIDE/DGS had functions much broader than purely the repression of any opposition to the regime. It combined the roles of a border police, customs inspectorate, immigration force, political police, and a regime vetting administration of credentials for government or even private sector jobs. Furthermore, this police had powers of arrest, pursued nonpolitical criminals, and administered its own prison system. From the 1950s on, the PIDE extended its operations to the **empire** and began to directly suppress oppositionists in various colonies in Africa and Asia.

While this police became more notorious and known to the public after 1958–61, before that new outburst of antiregime activity, it was perhaps more effective in neutralizing or destroying oppositionist groups. It was especially effective in damaging the **Communist Party of Portugal (PCP)** in the 1930s and early 1940s. Yet, beginning with the unprecedented strikes and political activities of 1943–45, the real heyday had passed. During **World War II**, its top ech-

elons were in the pay of both the Allies and Axis powers, although in later propaganda from the left, the PIDE's pro-Axis reputation was carefully groomed into a myth.

As for its actual strength and resources, it seems clear that it employed several thousand officers and also had thousands of informants in the general population. Under new laws of 1945, this police force received the further power to institute 90-day detention without charge or trial and such a detention could easily be renewed. A who's-who of the political opposition emerges from those who spent years in PIDE prisons or were frequently arrested without charge. The PIDE remained numerous and well-funded into 1974, when the **Revolution of 25 April 1974** overthrew the regime and abolished it. A major question remains: If this police knew much about the **Armed Forces Movement** coup conspiracy, why was it so ineffective in arresting known leaders and squashing the plot? *See also* INTELLIGENCE SERVICES.

PINTO, FERNÃO MENDES (ca. 1510–1583). Soldier and adventurer in Asia and one of Portugal's greatest prose writers of the 16th century. He was the author of a classic, largely true adventure story and history of Portugal in Asia, the *Peregrinação*, which in popularity among 17th-century readers in Iberia and Europe rivaled Miguel de Cervantes's *Don Quijote*. Even less is known about Mendes Pinto's life than that of **Luís de Camões**. He left as a soldier on a fleet for India in 1537, and lived in Asia for about 17 years. In addition to **Portuguese India**, he saw many places in Southeast Asia, China, and Japan. His service for Portugal involved great personal suffering including wounds in battle, captivities, and near-starvation. In later years, he retired as a lay brother of the Jesuit Order in Goa and went to Japan in 1556.

In 1558, he retired to Portugal, where he wrote his great work, the *Peregrinação*, which can be translated as "Travels." The work was not published in his lifetime, but only in 1614, and it was long considered a work mainly of fiction, an apocryphal composition. It was apparently more popular in **Spain**, France, and **England** than in his homeland. Later critics and translators have concluded that much of the work is a partly true description of the Portuguese in Asia and of Asian events, coupled with a wry but honest look at the foibles of the **Catholic Church** of his day.

PINTASILGO, MARIA DE LOURDES (1930–2004). Catholic leader and social activist, chemical engineer, and politician. Born in Abrantes, to a middle class family, Pintasilgo had a distinguished record as a student in her **Lisbon** high school and at Lisbon's Instituto Superior Técnico where, in 1953, she graduated with an engineering degree in industrial chemistry. For seven years, she worked as an engineer for the Portuguese conglomerate Companhia União Fabril (CUF). A progressive Catholic who never formally joined a **political party**, Pintasilgo became a top lay Catholic leader in Portugal, as well as an influential, international Catholic leader in Catholic student, lay, and **women's** associations. She also attended Lisbon's Catholic University, where she became a student leader. During the final period of the dictatorship under **Marcello Caetano**, she held various government posts related to social welfare and women's affairs. In the first provisional government following the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, Pintasilgo was secretary of state for social welfare and, by early 1975, became minister of social affairs. That same year, she became Portugal's first ambassador to the United Nations Educational and Social Organization.

In July 1979, she became prime minister, following a call from President **António Ramalho Eanes**, and served in a caretaker role until January 1980. During her brief term, she worked to improve social security coverage and **health** and social welfare. She was Portugal's first woman prime minister and, following Britain's Margaret Thatcher, was Europe's second woman to serve in that office. In 1986, she ran as an independent for the presidency of the Republic but was unsuccessful. In 1987, she began a two-year term following election as a member of the European Parliament. She died suddenly and unexpectedly in July 2004.

POLITICAL PARTIES. Portugal's political party system began only in the 19th century, and the first published, distinct political party program appeared about 1843. Under the constitutional monarchy (1834–1910), a number of political groupings or factions took the name of a political figure or soldier or, more commonly until the second half of the century, the name of the particular **constitution** they supported. For example, some were called "Septembrists," after the group that supported the 1836 (September) Revolution and the

1822 Constitution. Others described themselves as “Chartists” after **King Pedro IV’s** 1826 Charter (*Carta*). From the **Regeneration** to the fall of the monarchy in 1910, the leading political parties were the Regenerators and the Progressists (or Historicals). During the first parliamentary republic (1910–26), the leading political parties were the Portuguese Republican Party or “The Democrats,” the Evolutionists, the Unionists, various monarchist factions, the Liberals, and the Nationalists. Small leftist parties were also established or reestablished after the collapse of President **Sidónio Pais’s** New Republic (1917–18), the **Socialist Party (PS)** and the **Portuguese Communist Party (PCP)**.

Under the **Estado Novo** dictatorship (1926–74), all political parties and civic associations (such as the Masons) were banned in 1935, and the only legitimate political movement allowed was the regime’s creature, the **União Nacional** (1930–74). Various oppositionist parties and factions began to participate in the rigged elections of the Estado Novo, beginning with the municipal elections of 1942 and continuing with general elections for president of the republic or the National Assembly (legislature) in 1945, 1949, 1951, 1958, 1961, 1969, 1972, etc. Among these parties were elements of the Communist Party, remnants of the old Portuguese Republican Party elite and of the old Socialist Party (originally founded in 1875), various workers’ groups, and special electoral committees allowed by the regime to campaign during brief preelectoral exercises.

The **Revolution of 25 April 1974** swept away the regime’s institutions and ushered in a flood of new political groups. During 1974 and 1975, about 60 new political parties and factions sprung up, but the PCP remained the senior, experienced political party. During the period of fallout and adjustment to the new pluralist, multiparty system of democracy (1974–85), four main political parties became the principal ones and garnered the largest percentage of votes in the many general and municipal elections held between the first free election of 25 April 1975, and the general election of 1985. These parties were the PCP, the PS, the **Social Democrat Party (PSD)**, and the **Social Democratic Center Party (CDS)** or “Christian Democrats.” Until 1985–87, the socialists were ahead in votes, but the social democrats were victorious, with clear majorities in 1987 and 1991. In the general elections of 1995 and 1999, the PS returned

to power in the legislature, and in the presidential elections of 1996 and 2001, the victor was the socialist leader Jorge Sampaio. The PSD replaced the socialists in power in the 2002 general election. *See also* LEFT BLOC.

POMBAL, THE MARQUIS OF (SEBASTIÃO JOSÉ DE CARVALHO E MELO) (1699–1782). Eighteenth-century dictatorial prime minister of **King José I** (r. 1750–77). Born of rural nobility, Pombal—who became known as the Marquis of Pombal after the title he received only in 1770—represented Portugal abroad as a diplomat in London (1740–44) and Vienna (1745–50). When José I became king in 1750, he assumed the top cabinet post, and soon acquired great authority and power. For 27 years, Pombal managed the affairs of Portugal through various crises (the **Lisbon earthquake** of 1755) and several wars. Major goals in his political agenda included strengthening Portugal’s home **economy** and **empire**, which featured resource-rich **Brazil**; economic independence from the oldest ally, **Great Britain**, which tended to treat Portugal as an economic and political colony; and greater power status in a Europe that considered Portugal a third- or fourth-rate power.

Pombal’s domestic agenda was imposed by repressing the power of the nobility, strengthening royal power in all spheres, and suppressing the influence and position of the Jesuits (Pombal expelled the Jesuit Order from Portugal in 1759). The extent to which Pombal was successful in these endeavors remains controversial among biographers and historians, but his pivotal role in 18th-century public affairs remains secure. An impressive statue of Pombal with a lion at his side today dominates the Rotunda, a massive traffic circle at the top of the Avenida de Liberdade, **Lisbon**; it was completed in 1934. *See also* CATHOLIC CHURCH.

PORT WINE. Portugal’s most famous **wine** and leading export takes its name from the city of **Oporto** or *porto*, which means “port” or “harbor” in Portuguese. Sometimes described as “the Englishman’s wine,” port is only one of the many wines produced in continental Portugal and the Atlantic islands. Another noted dessert wine is Madeira wine, which is produced on the island of **Madeira**. Port wine’s history is about as long as that of Madeira wine, but the wine’s devel-

opment is recent compared to that of older table wines and the wines Greeks and Romans enjoyed in ancient **Lusitania**. During the Roman occupation of the land (ca. 210 BCE–300 CE), wine was being made from vines cultivated in the upper **Douro River** valley. Favorable climate and soils (schist with granite outcropping) and convenient **transportation** (on ships down the Douro River to Oporto) were factors that combined with increased wine production in the late 17th century to assist in the birth of port wine as a new product. Earlier names for port wine (*vinho do porto*) were descriptive of location (“Wine of the Douro Bank”) and how it was transported (“Wine of [Ship] Embarkation”).

Port wine, a sweet, fortified (with brandy) aperitif or dessert wine that was designed as a valuable export product for the English market, was developed first in the 1670s by a unique combination of circumstances and the action of interested parties. Several substantial English merchants who visited Oporto “discovered” that a local Douro wine was much improved when brandy (*aguardente*) was added. Fortification prevented the wine from spoiling in a variety of temperatures and on the arduous sea voyages from Oporto to **Great Britain**. Soon port wine became a major industry of the Douro region; it involved an uneasy alliance between the English merchant–shippers at Oporto and Vila Nova de Gaia, the town across the river from Oporto, where the wine was stored and aged, and the Portuguese wine growers.

In the 18th century, port wine became a significant element of Britain’s foreign imports and of the country’s establishment tastes in beverages. Port wine drinking became a hallowed tradition in Britain’s elite Oxford and Cambridge Universities’ colleges, which all kept port wine cellars. For Portugal, the port wine market in Britain, and later in **France**, Belgium, and other European countries, became a vital element in the national **economy**. **Trade** in port wine and British woolens became the key elements in the 1703 **Methuen Treaty** between England and Portugal.

To lessen Portugal’s growing economic dependence on Britain, regulate the production and export of the precious sweet wine, and protect the public from poor quality, the **Marquis of Pombal** instituted various measures for the industry. In 1756, Pombal established the General Company of Viticulture of the Upper Douro to carry out

these measures. That same year, he ordered the creation of the first demarcated wine-producing region in the world, the port-wine producing Douro region. Other wine-producing countries later followed this Portuguese initiative and created demarcated wine regions to protect the quality of wine produced and to ensure national economic interests.

The upper Douro valley region (from Barca d'Alva in Portugal to Barqueiros on the Spanish frontier) produces a variety of wines; only 40 percent of its wines are port wine, whereas 60 percent are table wines. Port wine's alcohol content varies usually between 19 and 22 percent, and, depending on the type, the wine is aged in wooden casks from two to six years and then bottled. Related to port wine's history is the history of Portuguese cork. Beginning in the 17th century, Portuguese cork, which comes from cork trees, began to be used to seal wine bottles to prevent wine from spoiling. This innovation in Portugal helped lead to the development of the cork industry. By the early 20th century, Portugal was the world's largest exporter of cork.

PORTAS, PAULO (1951–). Politician and chief of a rightist political party, the Popular Party (PP; formerly the CDS or Christian Democrat Party). Like so many others in Portuguese political life, Portas was trained as a lawyer at the University of Lisbon Law Faculty. Before he was elected to the Assembly of the Republic, Portas was editor of the Lisbon newspaper, *Público*. In the 1990s, he assumed leadership of the PP. In the October 1999 general parliamentary elections, the PP won all but 15 seats (behind the **Portuguese Communist Party** [PCP] with 17), but there were soundings regarding a potential alliance between the stronger Social Democratic Party (PSD), with 81 seats, and the PP, to challenge the **Socialist Party** (PS)-led government of **António de Guterres**. Portas is a charismatic, populist speaker who campaigns most typically by means of mixing with the people (*o povo*) in informal settings such as markets.

In the March 2002 parliamentary elections, Portas's PP surpassed the PCP in the vote, receiving 14 percent to the PCP's 12 percent, and entered a governing coalition with the dominant PSD. Portas proved himself the most dynamic of campaigners among the three main party political leaders. *See also* POLITICAL PARTIES.

PORTUGAL. The name Portugal comes from the name for a pre-Roman or Roman settlement named Portus Cale, near the mouth of the **Douro River**. The southern part of the Roman province of Gallaecia (now Galicia, Spain) was occupied by the Suevi (Germanic tribe) in the period of 411 CE, and the town near or in what is now **Oporto** was held by the Suevi and later called Portucale.

PORTUGUESA, A. The official Portuguese national anthem since 1911. *A Portuguesa*, which means “The Portuguese Woman,” refers to the historical symbolic female figure or “Lady Republic,” a Portuguese woman who wears republican garb, including a republican banner or **flag** and a Phrygian bonnet. The concept and name were modeled on the similar figure from the French Revolution of 1789, and the name of the French national anthem, “The Woman from Marseilles,” and republican symbols from **France’s** Third Republic. Under the constitutional monarchy, the national anthem was called “The Hymn of the Charter,” referring to the 1826 Charter or **constitution** drafted by Emperor Pedro I of Brazil or **Pedro IV** of Portugal to replace the controversial 1822 Constitution.

A Portuguesa was composed during the popular frenzy and outcry generated by the English Ultimatum crisis of January 1890. Portugal capitulated to an English ultimatum presented to Lisbon by London during an Anglo-Portuguese conflict over possession of territory in central-east Africa. Intense feelings of patriotism, nationalism, and xenophobia were generated in the wake of the Lisbon government’s capitulation and its subsequent resignation from office. Inspired by the popular reaction to this incident, **Alfredo Keil**, a Portuguese musician and opera composer of German descent, wrote the music for *A Portuguesa*, whose melody bears a slight resemblance to that of the stirring *Internationale*. The sentimental, bellicose lyrics were written by Keil’s friend, Lopes de Mendonça. *See also* ULTIMATUM, ENGLISH.

During the remaining years of the waning monarchy, *A Portuguesa* was sung as a rallying cry by republican partisans who wished to abolish the monarchy. The song’s spirit is not only nationalistic, but is imbued with an imperative of Portuguese national revival in order to remind the people of their greatness of centuries ago. After the First Republic replaced the monarchy, the republic’s Constituent Assembly adopted *A Portuguesa* as the country’s national anthem

in June 1911, and it has remained so ever since. The first verse with chorus imparts the spirit of the entire patriotic message of the anthem:

A Portuguesa
 Heroes of the sea, noble race
 valiant and immortal nation,
 now is the hour to raise up on high once more
 Portugal's splendor.
 From out of the mists of memory,
 of Homeland, we hear the voices
 of your great forefathers
 that shall lead you on to victory!

Chorus:

To arms, to arms
 on land and sea!
 To arms, to arms
 to fight for our Homeland!
 To march against the enemy guns!

PORTUGUESE COMMUNIST PARTY / PARTIDO COMUNISTA PORTUGUES (PCP). The Portuguese Communist Party (PCP) has evolved from its early anarcho-syndicalist roots at its formation in 1921. This evolution included the undisciplined years of the 1920s, during which bolshevization began and continued into the 1930s, then through the years of clandestine existence during the **Estado Novo**, the Stalinization of the 1940s, the “anarcho-liberal shift” of the 1950s, the emergence of Maoist and Trotskyist splinter groups of the 1960s, to legalization after the **Revolution of 25 April 1974** as the strongest and oldest political party in Portugal. Documents from the Russian archives have shown that the PCP's history is not a purely “domestic” one. While the PCP was born on its own without Soviet assistance, once it joined the Communist International (CI), it lost a significant amount of autonomy as CI officials increasingly meddled in PCP internal politics by dictating policy, manipulating leadership elections, and often financing party activities.

Early Portuguese communism was a mix of communist ideological strands accustomed to a spirited internal debate, a lively external

debate with its rivals, and a loose organizational structure. The PCP, during its early years, was weak in grassroots membership and was basically a party of “notables.” It was predominantly a male organization, with minuscule female participation. It was also primarily an urban party concentrated in **Lisbon**. The PCP membership declined from 3,000 in 1923 to only 40 in 1928.

In 1929, the party was reorganized so that it could survive clandestinely. As its activity progressed in the 1930s, a long period of instability dominated its leadership organs as a result of repression, imprisonments, and disorganization. The CI continued to intervene in party affairs through the 1930s, until the PCP was expelled from the CI in 1938–39, apparently because of its conduct during police arrests.

The years of 1939–41 were difficult ones for the party, not only because of increased domestic repression but also because of internal party splits provoked by the Nazi–Soviet pact and other foreign actions. From 1940 to 1941, two Communist parties struggled to attract the support of the CI and accused each other of “revisionism.” The CI was disbanded in 1943, and the PCP was not accepted back into the international communist family until its recognition by the Cominform in 1947.

The reorganization of 1940–41 finally put the PCP under the firm control of orthodox communists who viewed socialism from a Soviet perspective. Although Soviet support was denied the newly reorganized party at first, the new leaders continued its Stalinization. The enforcement of “democratic centralism” and insistence upon the “dictatorship of the proletariat” became entrenched. The 1940s brought increased growth, as the party reached its membership apex of the clandestine era with 1,200 members in 1943, approximately 4,800 in 1946, and 7,000 in 1947.

The party fell on hard times in the 1950s. It developed a bad case of paranoia, which led to a witch hunt for infiltrators, informers, and spies in all ranks of the party. The lower membership figures who followed the united antifascist period were reduced further through expulsions of the “traitors.” By 1951, the party had been reduced to only 1,000 members. It became a closed, sectarian, suspicious, and paranoiac organization, with diminished strength in almost every region, except in the Alentejo, where the party, through propaganda

and ideology more than organizational strength, was able to mobilize strikes of landless peasants in the early 1950s.

On 3 January 1960, **Álvaro Cunhal** and nine other political prisoners made a spectacular escape from the Peniche prison and fled the country. Soon after this escape, Cunhal was elected secretary-general and, with other top leaders, directed the PCP from exile. Trotskyite and Maoist fractions emerged within the party in the 1960s, strengthened by the ideological developments in the international communist movement, such as in China and Cuba. The PCP would not tolerate dissent or leftism and began purging the extreme left fractions.

The PCP intensified its control of the labor movement after the more liberal syndical election regulations under Prime Minister **Marcello Caetano** allowed communists to run for leadership positions in the corporative unions. By 1973, there was general unrest in the labor movement due to deteriorating economic conditions brought on by the colonial wars, as well as by world economic pressures including the Arab oil boycott.

After the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, the PCP enjoyed a unique position: it was the only party to have survived the Estado Novo. It emerged from clandestinity as the best organized **political party** in Portugal with a leadership hardened by years in jail. Since then, despite the party's stubborn orthodoxy, it has consistently played an important role as a moderating force. As even the **Socialist Party (PS)** was swept up by the neoliberal tidal wave, albeit a more compassionate variant, increasingly the PCP has played a crucial role in ensuring that interests and perspectives of the traditional Left are aired.

One of the most consistent planks of the PCP electoral platform has been opposition to every stage of European integration. The party has regularly resisted Portuguese membership in the **European Economic Community (EEC)** and, following membership beginning in 1986, the party has regularly resisted further integration through the **European Union (EU)**. A major argument has been that EU membership would not resolve Portugal's chronic economic problems but would only increase its dependence on the world. Ever since, the PCP has argued that its opposition to membership was correct and that further involvement with the EU would only result in further economic dependence and a consequent loss of Portuguese national sovereignty. Further, the party maintained that as Portugal's ties with

the EU increased, the vulnerable agrarian sector in Portugal would risk further losses.

Changes in PCP leadership may or may not alter the party's electoral position and role in the political system. As younger generations forget the uniqueness of the party's resistance to the Estado Novo, public images of PCP leadership will change. As the image of Álvaro Cunhal and other historical communist leaders slowly recedes, and the stature of Carlos Carvalhas (general secretary since 1992) and other moderate leaders is enhanced, the party's survival and legitimacy have strengthened. On 6 March 2001, the PCP celebrated its 80th anniversary. *See also* LEFT BLOC.

POUSADAS. Government-sponsored inns similar to Spain's *paradores*. In 1942, Portugal initiated a system of state-run inns, *pousadas*, housed in restored, historic **castles**, convents, manor houses, palaces, and monasteries. By 2008, this system included more than forty *pousadas* or inns in every region of the country and in the **Azores Islands**. Recently, the government-owned system came under the management of Pestana Hotels, a private group. Such tourist habitations with reasonable nightly rates have been in high demand and feature antique, period furnishings and restaurants with Portuguese cuisine. Most are located in or near towns or cities with other historic places and sites. A source of information for travelers is the official website, at www.pousadas.pt.

Name of Town in Portugal Name of Pousada

Agueda Santo António
 Alcácer Do Sal Dom Afonso II
 Alijo Barão de Forrester
 Almeida Senhoras Das Neves
 Alvito Castelo De Alvito
 Amares Sta. Maria Do Bouro
 Arraiolos N. Sra. Da Assuncao
 Batalha Mestre De Domingues
 Beja São Francisco
 BragANÇA São Bartolomeu
 Caramulo São Jerónimo
 Condeixa-a-Nova Santa Cristina

Crato Flor Da Rosa
 Elvas Santa Luzia
 Estremoz Rainha Santa Isabel
 Évora Loios
 Geres/Canicada São Bento
 Guimarães N. Sa. Da Oliveira
 Guimarães Santa Marinha
 Marao São Goncalo
 Manteigas São Lourenco
 Marvao Santa Maria
 Miranda Do Douro Santa Catarina
 Monsanto Monsanto
 Murtosa/Aveiro Ria
 Obidos Castelo
 Palmela Palmela
 Povia Das Quartas Santa Barbara
 Queluz/Lisboa Dona Maria I
 Sagres Infante
 Sta. Clara-A-Velha Santa Clara
 Santiago Do Cacem Quinta Da Ortiga
 Santiago Do Cacem São Tiago
 S. Pedro/Castelo De Bode São Pedro
 São Bras De Alportel São Bras
 Serpa São Gens
 Setubal São Filipe
 Sousel São Miguel
 Torrao Vale Do Gaio
 Valenca Do Minho São Teotónio
 Viana Do Castelo Monte Santa Luzia
 V. Nova De Cerveira Dom Dinis
 Vila Vicoso Dom João IV
Azores Islands
 Angra do Heroísmo (Terceira Island) Forte S. Sebastião
 Horta (Faial Island) Forte S. Cruz

PRESEPIO. The history of displaying nativity scenes, portraying the birth of Christ in a manger, goes back in **Catholic** tradition at least

to Christmas 1223, when Saint Francis of Assisi arranged a nativity scene with live figures in a town in Italy, but scholars confirm that this Christmas tradition in the **arts** is much older than the 13th century. Figurines depicting the Holy Family in nativity scenes were made of various materials, including wood, precious metals, and ceramics. In Portugal, an artistic tradition of making and displaying *presepios* in or near churches, chapels, and cathedrals reached its zenith in the arts in the 18th century during the long reign of King **João V** (1706–50). In the Baroque era, an artistic tradition that arrived somewhat late in Portugal, the most celebrated and talented of the nativity scene artists was the 18th-century Coimbra sculptor, Joaquim Machado de Castro (1751/2–1822), but there were other great artists in this field as well. The 18th century's most celebrated sculptor, Machado de Castro created the famous equestrian bronze statue of **King José I**, in Commerce Square, Lisbon. During the time of Machado de Castro's time, the ceramic nativity scene comprised of large figures and elaborate scenery became a cult, and many nativity scenes were made.

Today, many of these historic artistic creations, with a strong basis in Christian tradition, can be viewed in various Portuguese museums, palaces, and churches. Some of the most famous larger nativity scenes, including those lovingly created by Machado de Castro of Coimbra, are found on display at Christmas and other times in the Estrela Basilica, the Palace of Necessidades, the Palace of Queluz, the Church of Madre de Deus, the Cathedral in Lisbon, and in other religious or museum buildings in Lisbon, **Oporto**, and other towns in Portugal. The ceramic nativity scene is not only sacred art but also evolved as folk and now **tourist** art, as Portuguese nativity scenes, with figures smaller than in the Baroque treasures on display of Machado de Castro, are for sale in a number of stores, as well as in some churches in Lisbon, Oporto, Estremoz, Évora, and other cities. The styles of the nativity scenes vary by region, by town, and by artist, and many include not only sacred figures of the story of the birth of Christ but also traditional, rural, folk figurines depicting Portuguese rural occupations from the 18th and 19th century, as well as figures from stories from the Bible. The ceramic materials of which these figures of varying sizes are made include variations of terracotta. *See also* NECESSIDADES, PALACE OF AND QUELUZ, PALACE OF.

PRONUNCIAMENTO. Portuguese word for military coup d'état, uprising, or insurrection, derived from the verb "to declare, to announce solemnly and publicly." The Spanish word is similar (*pronunciamiento*). Praetorianism or military insurrectionism became a chronic problem, as well as a political tradition, first in **Spain** after the army's coup of 1812, followed by an army insurrection in the cause of constitutional monarchy in 1820 in **Oporto**, Portugal. Both civilian and military conspiracies to use the military to intervene in public affairs, overthrow the current government, and establish a "new" system became common from this time on in Iberian affairs, and such activity was also common in 19th-century Latin America, where Spain and Portugal had former colonies. The Portuguese word for the tendency to have *pronunciamentos* or *golpes* is referred to as *golpismo*. See also ARMED FORCES MOVEMENT; FIFTH OF OCTOBER; TWENTY-EIGHTH OF MAY; TWENTY-FIFTH OF APRIL.

PROTESTANTS. As long as the Portuguese **Inquisition** was active, few non-Catholics resided in the country. Any person discovered to be a Protestant—and possession of a Bible was a certain sign—could be arrested, jailed, and threatened with execution by the Inquisition, especially before 1760. After the extinction of the Inquisition by 1821, a few Protestant missions arrived during the 1840s and 1850s. Evangelical Christian missionaries became active, especially British Protestants who came to travel or reside in, as well as to distribute bibles to Portugal. These included the celebrated British writer, traveler, and missionary, George Borrow, whose book *The Bible in Spain* in the mid-19th century became a classic.

Even after the Inquisition ceased operations, restrictions on non-Catholics remained. Despite the small number of initial converts, there were active denominations in the 19th century among the Plymouth Brethren, Scotch Presbyterians, Methodists, and Anglicans. Some Protestant missions were founded in Portugal, as well as in her African colonies in the 1870s and 1880s. Among the legal restrictions against Protestants and other non-Catholics were those on building edifices that physically resembled churches, limits on property-owning and hours of worship, laws that prevented non-Catholic organizations from legal recognition by the government, discrimina-

tion against Protestant denominations with pacifist convictions, and discrimination against Protestants in conscription (the draft) selection. In the 1950s and 1960s, the middle to late years of the **Estado Novo** regime, small groups of Pentecostals, Mormons, and Jehovah's Witnesses settled in Portugal, and the numbers of their congregations grew more rapidly than those of earlier arrivals, but traditional restrictions against freedom of worship continued.

After the **Revolution of 25 April 1974** and the 1976 **Constitution**, such restrictions against Protestant worship and residence ended. Protestant churches were now recognized as legal entities with the right to assemble and to worship. During the period when military conscription was in force, that is, up to 2004, those Protestants who were conscientious objectors could apply for alternative military service. Protestant missionary activity, nevertheless, continued to experience resistance from the **Catholic Church**. In recent decades, there has been a rapid growth among the Protestant communities, although their expansion in Portugal does not equal the growth in Protestant numbers found in Brazil and Angola. By the early 1990s, the number of Protestants was estimated to be between 50,000 and 60,000 persons, but by 2008 this figure had more than doubled. The number still remained at only 2 percent of the population with religious affiliation.

PROVINCES, PORTUGAL'S HISTORIC. Today, continental Portugal is divided into 18 administrative districts, each with a district capital. Traditionally, Portugal was divided into historic provinces whose names reflect the multiple cultural influences of various invaders of ancient **Lusitania** from the Romans to the Muslims (Arabs and Berbers). More than a few of these names derive from the Arabic, including Algarve, a corruption of "Al-gharb" or "The West" province. The 12 historic provinces, whose names continue to be used in everyday life despite the new (since the 19th century) district system, are: in the north, Minho, Trás-os-Montes, Douro, Douro Litoral, and Beira Alta; in the center, Beira Baixa, Beira Litoral, Estremadura, and Ribatejo; and in the south, Alto Alentejo, Baixo Alentejo, and Algarve.

PVDE. *See* PIDE.

– Q –

QUELUZ, NATIONAL PALACE OF. Considered Portugal's most beautiful former royal residence among a host of palaces, Queluz Palace was built in the 18th century. It is rightly regarded as the Portuguese mini-Versailles for several reasons. In some respects a miniature version of **France's** colossal palace and garden, Queluz, with its unusual gardens and park located west of **Lisbon** near Sintra, bears the touch of French architects and decorators, has French furniture and décor, and even boasts its own small Hall of Mirrors à la Versailles, the Throne Room. Queluz was a favorite dwelling place of **King João VI** and family, and symbolizes Portugal's efforts to be counted as worthy of the greatest European powers' tastes and standards of the day.

Queluz's history began with a mid-17th century noble's country house, altered to accommodate the royal princes for a summer residence away from the noise and heat of Lisbon. Palace construction began in 1747 and lasted at least until 1786. Portuguese baroque and neoclassical styles dominate the charming palace's interior and exterior. The main architects were Portuguese and Italian, and also included the French decorator–artist Robillon. For materials, rare woods were imported from **Brazil** and marble from Italy. Especially striking in the garden–park, with its own small canal and walking bridges, are the *azulejos* or glazed tiles along the canal. In 1908, **King Manuel II** transferred ownership of Queluz to the state, and extensive restorations began in 1933. *See also* ARCHITECTURE.

– R –

REGENERATION, THE (1851–71). An era of relative economic progress and political stability during the third quarter of the 19th century. The Regeneration followed a period of intense political instability and uncertainty (1807–51), with invasions, wars, and civil wars, and represented the inception of modern economic and industrial development in Portugal. In terms of administrative continuity and governmental stability and accomplishment, the Regeneration was the most hopeful era of the constitutional monarchy (1834–

1910). It began in 1851, with a military revolt led by the **Duke of Saldanha**, one of the conquerors and victors of the **Patuleia revolt and civil war** (1846–47) and was supported by various groups and factions that desired civic peace, order, and economic improvement.

Of the Regeneration leaders, **Fontes Pereira de Melo** became the major personality and mastermind of this era, which witnessed the beginnings of Portugal's main railroad and road system, as well as the initiation of modern industrial and commercial activities. The Regeneration affected the **economies** of the **Lisbon** and **Oporto** regions more than the provinces, but the rural areas also benefited from the changes that came from the new economic activities.

RELIGION. As of 2008, over 90 percent of the Portuguese people professed to be **Catholic**, but a growing number of Portuguese, along with larger numbers of resident migrants from the former Portuguese colonies in Africa and from North Africa, adhered to other religious creeds. While only a relatively small number were Muslims, and mainly from North Africa or from north **Mozambique** or **Guinea-Bissau**, the number of Muslims was increasing. In the 1980s, a prominent mosque was erected in **Lisbon**, not far, ironically, from the embassy of Spain. The number of Jews remained small, under 1,000, although public interest in the history of the Jews and Crypto-Jews in post-1496 Portugal has increased recently through the appearance of new books, articles, plays, and films on the subject.

In Portuguese history, religious homogeneity was long the rule, as church and state remained united. Following the First Republic (1910–26), when church and state were first separated, and the 1976 Constitution, when this separation was reinforced, greater religious heterogeneity was possible, despite the traditionally close identity between being Portuguese and being Catholic. For centuries, non-Catholic religious groups were persecuted or could not practice their religions freely.

Changes in the religious picture followed the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**. The new migrants from the former colonial empire, as well as from North Africa, brought in non-Catholic religious beliefs. The 1976 **Constitution** guarantees all religious faiths the right to practice, those who are both **Protestant** and conscientious objectors can apply for alternative military service, Protestant missionaries

have more freedom to serve abroad, and Protestant groups can build churches that look like churches, a right denied Protestants before 1974. Protestant sects comprise the most rapidly growing religious groups in Portugal, although the proportion of Portuguese Protestants in the population is smaller than that of Brazilian Protestants. Among such groups are Pentecostals, Mormons, Jehovah's Witnesses, and Evangelicals. *See also* POMBAL, THE MARQUIS OF.

REVOLUTION OF CARNATIONS. Refers to the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**. Carnations of many colors, but principally red because of the symbolism of red for leftist (including socialist and communist) views and action, were common in **Lisbon** flower shops during the rainy day of 25 April 1974, when the **Armed Forces Movement (MFA)** overthrew the **Estado Novo**. The carnation appeared to embody the peaceful, bloodless, almost romantic nature of the military coup, which met little or no resistance from the Estado Novo's last defenders. The only blood shed on 25 April was spilled when the Lisbon headquarters of the political police (DGS) fired into a surging crowd of procoup enthusiasts who rushed the front of the building; five persons died and several people were injured.

When people began to give the MFA troops carnations to stick in their rifles, guns, and uniforms and on their helmets and caps, the idea of using the carnations as a symbol of the peaceful intentions of the MFA spread. Soon various parties and even the government adopted the symbol of red carnations, and this icon of change began to appear in graffiti on walls.

REVOLUTION OF 25 APRIL 1974. Refers to the events that began in the early morning hours of 25 April 1974, when the **Armed Forces Movement (MFA)** began military operations against the **Estado Novo** in the **Lisbon** area. Signals for action included the playing of two songs on a popular radio station's (Rádio Renascença) midnight program broadcast. The songs were *Depois do Adeus* and *Grândola, Vila Morena*. The latter song, sung on the record made by composer-singer José Afonso, had been banned by government censorship and was usually played only clandestinely. The military coup proceeded during the period from midnight to about 4:30 P.M. on the afternoon

of 25 April, a rainy day, and met relatively little resistance from the Estado Novo's few remaining staunch defenders.

Most of the drama was played out in the streets of Lisbon as MFA tanks, armored cars, and troops took positions and demanded the surrender of neutral or loyal forces. After Prime Minister **Marcello Caetano** had taken refuge in the **Guarda Nacional Republicana** (GNR) Carmo barracks, traditionally a place of sanctuary for government incumbents in previous military coup attempts, Caetano surrendered to the insurgent military forces. He was later flown to exile in **Madeira**, with President **Américo Tomás**, and then to **Brazil**. This date marks the end of the Estado Novo and the beginning of democratic Portugal. The 25th of April is an official national holiday. *See also* REVOLUTION OF CARNATIONS.

RIBEIRO, ORLANDO (1911–1997). Twentieth-century Portugal's most distinguished geographer. After receiving his undergraduate degree (1932) and his doctorate (1936) at the University of Lisbon, he taught as a faculty member in Portugal, Spain, France, and Canada. At the University of Lisbon, he founded a center for geographical studies and trained generations of geographers who studied Portugal as well as Portugal's overseas **empire**. A tireless researcher-traveler, Ribeiro carried out geographical, historical, and ethnographic studies in Portugal, Spain, and other countries as well as in Portugal's empire. Not limiting his perspective and methodology to geography, he favored a multidisciplinary approach to research and publishing, and produced works on the **Cape Verdes, Azores, and Goa (former Portuguese India)**.

Ribeiro's most famous and enduring published contribution, however, was the classical geographical study *Portugal, O Mediterraneo e o Atlântico*, first published in 1945, but still in print after many editions in several languages. This definitive work influenced generations of scholars, including the principal social scientists of the following decades. It was a brilliant synthesis of sources that explained Portugal's regional variations, as well as the country's unique and common features within the framework of the Iberian Peninsula. Ribeiro's contribution also explained geographical aspects of Portuguese national identity and nation-building. With his wife, Suzanne Daveau, also a geographer, and the German geographer Hermann

Lautensach, he collaborated on a monumental geography of Portugal, in four volumes, the capstone of his career.

ROCA, CAPE OF. Cape on the southwest central coast of Portugal (long. 90 30/W). Today it has a lighthouse and **tourist** center and is famous as the westernmost point of continental Europe. It is located on the road between Ericeira-Sintra and Cascais.

RODRIGUES, AMÁLIA (1920–1999). Most celebrated and beloved of Portuguese *fado* singers (*fadistas*) of all time. Born in poverty and obscurity, “Amália,” as she became known to generations of Portuguese fans, came to **Lisbon** at a young age as a singer and later starred in a number of Portuguese films. With her sultry voice and subdued dark beauty, Amália Rodrigues’s distinctive singing of *fado*, soon conquered Portugal. Later, she introduced *fado* singing to the world beyond her small country. In **Brazil**, she soon became a popular club and show singer as well as a recording star. She made her debut in New York’s Carnegie Hall during 1959–60, and made many return engagements in the United States. Unlike many other *fado* singers, Amália sang in public into old age, still performing in her seventies. When she died in 1999, Portugal’s government declared days of public mourning and gave Amália the state funeral generations of fans expected, an extraordinary tribute to a figure who was not officially in public life or in an official post. For posterity, her remarkably beautiful voice and phrasing remain recorded on countless records, on film, and on CDs. *See also* CINEMA.

RONALDO, CRISTIANO (DOS SANTOS AVEIRO) (1985–). Portuguese soccer player ranked as one of top professional players in the world. Born in Funchal, Madeira, in 1985, Ronaldo trained from the early age of eight with amateur Youth Clubs. In 2001, he joined one of the top professional futebol clubs of Portugal, Sporting CP, and in 2002, he was signed by the legendary British professional team, Manchester United. His salary was 12.24 million pounds sterling, a world record for a player of his youth. Although he preferred to wear the number “28,” his Sporting CP number, his coach insisted that Ronaldo wear the legendary “7,” the number of top British

players who preceded him on the team, including George Best and David Beckham. Greatly in demand, Ronaldo was approached by Real Madrid, based in Spain, which tried several times in vain, using enormous salary pledges, to lure him from Manchester United. In 2007, Ronaldo was signed to a new contract for an immense sum and became the highest paid pro team player in history.

Extremely popular but also controversial, this Portuguese player won many awards and scored many goals in many tournaments, all the while accumulating some criticism about rough play and “diving,” faking falls in front of umpires to get the other team penalized so that his team could take penalty shots. Some authorities rank Ronaldo as the best soccer player in soccer history, although such a claim is debatable. Still, for Portuguese soccer and for Portugal’s place in world soccer, having a player with Ronaldo’s talent and accomplishments at such a young age, is a rare phenomenon.

ROSA, HUMBERTO DELGADO (1960–). Biologist, environmental activist, and public servant. Born in Lisbon in 1960, a grandson of the exiled General **Humberto Delgado**, Rosa received a biology degree from the Faculty of Sciences, University of Lisbon in 1983 and a Ph.D. in evolutionary biology from the same institution in 1995. He served as a faculty member in the animal biology department of his alma mater, as well as a researcher. He also served as advisor on the environment to several prime ministers beginning in 1995. In February 2005, Rosa was elected to the Assembly of the Republic as a member of the **Socialist Party**, and he was named Secretary of State for the Environment the same year.

In his term as one of his country’s principal civil servants and academic authorities concerned with ecology and the environment, Rosa has confronted important issues and problems in his area of expertise including recycling, incineration, climate change questions, and air quality. He is an important advocate and leader in renewable energy activities, and has supported greater emphasis on wind energy in Portugal. An active public speaker, Rosa has been a prolific researcher and author of works on biodiversity, bioethics, biotechnology, and the environment. He edited a book on bioethics for the natural sciences in 2004, in addition to publishing scores of articles in periodicals and chapters in books on these topics. He has also been a leader

in various organizations concerned with the ecology and biology in the **European Union** as well as in Portugal.

ROSAS, FERNANDO (1946–). Portuguese academic, writer, and politician. A student at Lisbon's Pedro Nunes High School, Rosas joined the **Portuguese Communist Party (PCP)** through an organization at that school in 1961. He entered Lisbon University's Law School and, as a militant leftist student, was arrested and imprisoned by the political police, **PIDE**, on several occasions in 1965, 1971, and 1973. He went underground to escape further arrest and prison until the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**. After he had broken with the PCP following the Paris student riots of May 1968 and the Soviet invasion of Czechoslovakia, Rosas joined a Maoist organization and directed a radical newspaper, *Luta Popular* (People's Struggle).

Rosas returned to university study in 1981, producing a great deal of journalism oriented to historical studies in major Lisbon newspapers such as *Diário de Notícias* and *Público*. In 1986, he received a master's degree in contemporary history and joined the human and social sciences faculty at the New University of Lisbon. In 1990, he completed his Ph.D. in history and became president of the Instituto de Historia Contemporanea, a consultant for the **Mário Soares** Foundation, and editor of *História* magazine. In 1999, he reentered politics and helped establish a party coalition, Left Bloc or *Bloco de Esquerda* (BE); in the 2001 presidential elections he ran as a candidate for the BE, garnering only 2.9 percent of the vote.

In 2006, he was decorated by the president of the republic with a medal, as Commander of the Great Cross, Order of Liberty. An authority on the subject of 20th-century political and economic history, especially on the period of the **Estado Novo**, he is the author, coauthor, or editor of more than a dozen books and many scores of articles and chapters in newspapers and scholarly and popular journals and magazines, and he has been active in organizing international scholarly conferences.

ROSE-COLORED MAP. The famous map presented to the Chamber of Deputies in 1887, which indicated that Lisbon intended to occupy, claim, and annex a disputed corridor of central African territory. The pink or rose-colored area on the map was the area that linked up the Portuguese colonies of **Angola** in West Africa and **Mozambique** in

East Africa. Portugal's territorial interests in tropical Africa shifted from the coasts to the interior after the settlement reached at the 1884–85 Berlin West Africa Conference. Thereafter, Portugal concentrated on participating in the European race for central Africa, part of the larger movement, the “Scramble for Africa.”

By means of dispatching expeditions of explorers and soldiers to the hinterlands of both Angola and Mozambique, Portugal sought to fulfill the Berlin Conference's “rule” about “effective occupation.” In Portugal, the old colonialists' dream of linking up the interiors of Angola and Mozambique, a notion that dated at least to the mid-18th century, was known as the *contra-costa* (“opposite coast”) project. Much of the rose-colored section of the map comprises what is now Zambia, Malawi, and Zimbabwe. The plan failed when **Great Britain** opposed Portuguese expansion into this disputed area in 1890 and sent Lisbon a threatening ultimatum that obliged Portugal to back down. *See also* ULTIMATUM, ENGLISH.

– S –

SÁ CARNEIRO, FRANCISCO LUMBRALLES (1934–1980). Important political leader in the early years of post-1974 Portugal. Trained and educated as a lawyer at the University of Lisbon Law School, he was an up-and-coming young lawyer and liberal **Catholic** activist in the 1960s. A practicing lawyer in **Oporto**, Sá Carneiro was selected to be one of a number of younger deputies in the National Assembly during the brief “opening” phase of Prime Minister **Marcello Caetano**'s period of the **Estado Novo**. He became a deputy upon consenting to adhere to two conditions for his selection; namely, maintaining Portugal's colonial policy in Africa and advocating “social peace” through reforms. But he refused to join the regime's official movement, the **União Nacional**. Soon discouraged by the continued intransigence of the conservative forces still controlling regime policy, despite the efforts of Caetano during 1968–70, Sá Carneiro and several others of the recently appointed deputies resigned their posts and went into opposition.

Following the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, Sá Carneiro and colleagues founded the **Social Democrat Party (PSD)**. The highly

respected lawyer and spokesman for centrist views became fully involved in the unstable politics of the early Revolutionary period. Named prime minister in January 1980, Sá Carneiro became the political man of the hour in Portugal. The PSD under Sá Carneiro leadership formed the core of a right of center electoral coalition named the Democratic Alliance (AD), which was composed of the PSD, **Christian Democratic Party (CDS)**, and PPM during the December 1979 interim parliamentary elections. The AD won the election and Sá Carneiro became prime minister. The regular October 1980 legislative elections, which the AD won, reaffirmed the AD's strength as a coalition. Anxious to consolidate political power by having a president who favored AD policies in office and eager to have the AD candidate, General Soares Carneiro, defeat the incumbent, President **Ramalho Eanes**, Sá Carneiro undertook a vigorous campaign in the presidential elections set for 7 December 1980. On 4 December, bound for Oporto campaign stops, Sá Carneiro's plane crashed and burned only a short distance from the Lisbon airport. Seven official investigations of the crash have not reached definitive conclusions, and the cause of the crash remains a mystery. *See also* POLITICAL PARTIES.

SÁ DA BANDEIRA, THE MARQUIS OF (1795–1876). Famous 19th-century career soldier turned politician, colonial reformer and planner, and statesman. Bernardo de Sá Nogueira de Figueiredo, later named the Marquis of Sá da Bandeira, was a soldier from the young age of 15 who fought against the armies of Napoleon in the Peninsular Wars. The historian **Alexandre Herculano** described him as “the most illustrious Portuguese of his century.” Among the people, he was nicknamed “Sá—the one-handed or “one-armed,” since he had lost his right arm in battle. Trained in engineering and mathematics, and with residence abroad, he first made a reputation as an outstanding military leader in the campaigns against the French in Portugal (1811) and in the civil wars of 1828–34.

Devoted to the cause of **King Pedro IV** of maintaining Pedro's young daughter, Maria da Glória, on Portugal's throne, Sá da Bandeira's image and style seemed to be in conflict with those of a general more typical of the age of romanticism. Spare in body, methodical and frugal, and serene in spirit, he achieved the highest offices in

government, following the triumph of the cause of constitutional monarchy by 1834. Concerned with Portugal's overseas **empire**, severely weakened by the loss of **Brazil** in 1822, Sá da Bandeira relentlessly pursued colonial reform plans and efforts to create for Portugal "another Brazil in Africa." Active in politics into his old age, in the 1870s, he worked to bring about reforms of the colonial economy, to move from an economy based on slave trade and slavery to one based on legitimate trade and industry, especially in **Angola** and **Mozambique**. This soldier and politician became, in effect, the heart and soul of Portugal's first modern colonial movement, 1835–75.

SAGRES. A promontory near **Cape Saint Vincent**, Sagres is the site where **Prince Henry of Aviz** (Prince Henry the Navigator) pursued some of his exploration-related activities before his death in 1460. Henry resided for a period on Cape Saint Vincent and the promontory that juts out into the Atlantic, but it is a myth that he established a "school" for navigators there. A lighthouse is now on the site of the ruins, and the scene is dominated by the barren cliffs and the lonely, stark landscape, a fitting spot for Prince Henry to brood about what lay south in the Atlantic.

SAINT VINCENT, CAPE OF (CABO SÃO VICENTE). Considered by ancient geographers as the westernmost point of Europe, Cape Saint Vincent was known as the "Sacred Promontory" on ancient maps (Promontorium Sacrum). It is the southwesternmost point of Portugal, some 250 kilometers (118 miles) south of **Lisbon**. On this bleak, barren cape or nearby at the site of **Sagres**, **Prince Henry of Aviz** (Prince Henry the Navigator) was active in promoting the exploration of the Atlantic and the African coast south of Morocco. It is an important **tourist** attraction, despite its location.

SALAZAR, ANTÓNIO DE OLIVEIRA (1889–1970). The **Coimbra University** professor of finance and economics and one of the founders of the **Estado Novo**, who came to dominate Western Europe's longest surviving authoritarian system. Salazar was born on 28 April 1889, in Vimieiro, Beira Alta province, the son of a peasant estate manager and a shopkeeper. Most of his first 39 years were spent as a student, and later as a teacher in a secondary school and a professor

at Coimbra University's law school. Nine formative years were spent at Viseu's Catholic Seminary (1900–09), preparing for the **Catholic** priesthood, but the serious, studious Salazar decided to enter Coimbra University instead in 1910, the year the Braganza monarchy was overthrown and replaced by the First Republic. Salazar received some of the highest marks of his generation of students and, in 1918, was awarded a doctoral degree in finance and economics. Pleading inexperience, Salazar rejected an invitation in August 1918 to become finance minister in the "New Republic" government of President **Sidónio Pais**.

As a celebrated academic who was deeply involved in Coimbra University politics, publishing works on the troubled finances of the besieged First Republic, and a leader of Catholic organizations, Salazar was not as modest, reclusive, or unknown as later official propaganda led the public to believe. In 1921, as a Catholic deputy, he briefly served in the First Republic's turbulent congress (parliament) but resigned shortly after witnessing but one stormy session. Salazar taught at Coimbra University as of 1916, and continued teaching until April 1928. When the military overthrew the First Republic in May 1926, Salazar was offered the Ministry of Finance and held office for several days. The ascetic academic, however, resigned his post when he discovered the degree of disorder in Lisbon's government and when his demands for budget authority were rejected.

As the military dictatorship failed to reform finances in the following years, Salazar was reinvited to become minister of finances in April 1928. Since his conditions for acceptance—authority over all budget expenditures, among other powers—were accepted, Salazar entered the government. Using the Ministry of Finance as a power base, following several years of successful financial reforms, Salazar was named interim minister of colonies (1930) and soon garnered sufficient prestige and authority to become head of the entire government. In July 1932, Salazar was named prime minister, the first civilian to hold that post since the 1926 military coup.

Salazar gathered around him a team of largely academic experts in the cabinet during the period 1930–33. His government featured several key policies: Portuguese nationalism, colonialism (rebuilding an **empire** in shambles), Catholicism, and conservative fiscal management. Salazar's government came to be called the *Estado*

Novo. It went through three basic phases during Salazar's long tenure in office, and Salazar's role underwent changes as well. In the early years (1928–44), Salazar and the Estado Novo enjoyed greater vigor and popularity than later. During the middle years (1944–58), the regime's popularity waned, methods of repression increased and hardened, and Salazar grew more dogmatic in his policies and ways. During the late years (1958–68), the regime experienced its most serious colonial problems, ruling circles—including Salazar—aged and increasingly failed, and opposition burgeoned and grew bolder.

Salazar's plans for stabilizing the **economy** and strengthening social and financial programs were shaken with the impact of the civil war (1936–39) in neighboring **Spain**. Salazar strongly supported General **Francisco Franco**'s Nationalist rebels, the eventual victors in the war. But, as the civil war ended and **World War II** began in September 1939, Salazar's domestic plans had to be adjusted. As Salazar came to monopolize Lisbon's power and authority—indeed to embody the Estado Novo itself—during crises that threatened the future of the regime, he assumed ever more key cabinet posts. At various times between 1936 and 1944, he took over the Ministries of Foreign Affairs and of War (Defense), until the crises passed. At the end of the exhausting period of World War II, there were rumors that the former professor would resign from government and return to Coimbra University, but Salazar continued as the increasingly isolated, dominating “recluse of São Bento,” that part of the parliament's buildings housing the prime minister's offices and residence.

Salazar dominated the Estado Novo's government in several ways: in day-to-day governance, although this diminished as he delegated wider powers to others after 1944, and in long-range policy decisions, as well as in the spirit and image of the system. He also launched and dominated the single party, the **União Nacional**. A lifelong bachelor who had once stated that he could not leave for Lisbon because he had to care for his aged mother, Salazar never married, but lived with a beloved housekeeper from his Coimbra years and two adopted daughters. During his 36-year tenure as prime minister, Salazar engineered the important cabinet reshuffles that reflect the history of the Estado Novo and of Portugal.

A number of times, in connection with significant events, Salazar decided on important cabinet officer changes: 11 April 1933 (the

adoption of the Estado Novo's new 1933 **Constitution**); 18 January 1936 (the approach of civil war in Spain and the growing threat of international intervention in Iberian affairs during the unstable Second Spanish Republic of 1931–36); 4 September 1944 (the Allied invasion of Europe at Normandy and the increasing likelihood of a defeat of the Fascists by the Allies, which included the Soviet Union); 14 August 1958 (increased domestic dissent and opposition following the May–June 1958 presidential elections in which oppositionist and former regime stalwart-loyalist General **Humberto Delgado** garnered at least 25 percent of the national vote, but lost to regime candidate, Admiral **Américo Tomás**); 13 April 1961 (following the shock of anticolonial African insurgency in Portugal's colony of **Angola** in January–February 1961, the oppositionist hijacking of a Portuguese ocean liner off South America by **Henrique Galvão**, and an abortive military coup that failed to oust Salazar from office); and 19 August 1968 (the aging of key leaders in the government, including the now gravely ill Salazar, and the defection of key younger followers).

In response to the 1961 crisis in Africa and to threats to **Portuguese India** from the Indian government, Salazar assumed the post of minister of defense (April 1961–December 1962). The failing leader, whose true state of health was kept from the public for as long as possible, appointed a group of younger cabinet officers in the 1960s, but no likely successors were groomed to take his place. Two of the older generation, **Teotónio Pereira**, who was in bad health, and **Marcello Caetano**, who preferred to remain at the University of Lisbon or in private law practice, remained in the political wilderness.

As the colonial wars in three African territories grew more costly, Salazar became more isolated from reality. On 3 August 1968, while resting at his summer residence, the Fortress of São João do Estoril outside Lisbon, a deck chair collapsed beneath Salazar and his head struck the hard floor. Some weeks later, as a result, Salazar was incapacitated by a stroke and cerebral hemorrhage, was hospitalized, and became an invalid. While hesitating to fill the power vacuum that had unexpectedly appeared, President Tomás finally replaced Salazar as prime minister on 27 September 1968, with his former protégé and colleague, Marcello Caetano. Salazar was not informed that he no longer headed the government, but he never recovered his

health. On 27 July 1970, Salazar died in Lisbon and was buried at Santa Comba Dão, Vimieiro, his village and place of birth. *See also* CORPORATIVISM; INTEGRALISM; SALAZARISM.

SALAZARISM. Supposedly the ideology or ideologies characteristic of the **Estado Novo** developed and directed by Prime Minister **António de Oliveira Salazar** (1889–1970), who governed Portugal as premier from 1932 to 1968, and his ruling group of associates and colleagues. Scholars debate why this regime endured so long and the extent to which it was or was not fascist. As to ideologies, Salazar's own education and beliefs were strongly influenced by his **Catholic** education for nine years in the Seminary at Viseu, by the decrees of Popes Leo X and Pius IX, and by conservative, rural customs. Rather than one ideology, the former **Coimbra University** economics professor reflected various creeds including Portuguese nationalism, **integralism**, **corporativism** doctrines, and various Catholic beliefs that were derived from Thomist teachings, as well as from the writings of the French ideologue Charles Maurras and his disciples. The spirit of Salazarism, if there is any truth to the notion of there being one typical ideology, is founded on a reaction against basic ideas from the French Revolution of individual liberty, fraternity, and equality; against the revolutionary collectivist doctrines including socialism and communism; and against the excesses of politics and government during the ill-fated First Republic (1910–26). Salazar, nevertheless, was not only a man of thought but also a man of action. *See also* CATHOLIC, CHURCH.

SALDANHA, DUKE OF (1790–1876). Born João Carlos de Saldanha Oliveira Daun, and later called duke, marshal, count, and marquis of Saldanha, he pursued a military career and personified military intervention in 19th-century politics. Saldanha fought against the French in the Peninsular War, as well as in conflicts in Uruguay and Brazil, and he backed the constitutional monarchist cause of **King Pedro IV**. Perhaps the most famous of career officers during the century, in his younger years he was often in exile. Critics quipped that his true name was “Dom João VII” for his imperious manner. As minister and prime minister in various liberal governments after 1851, his name later became used as a generic term for an impetuously planned

military coup, a “Saldanhada,” meaning a military *golpe* almost whimsical in spirit, carried out by a wild, headstrong general.

A soldier from the tender age of 14, Saldanha was a much-discussed figure during various generations of soldiers and politicians. The writer Oliveira Martins later described the man as “a liberal and Portuguese Cid,” after El Cid, the Castilian crusading warrior who fought Muslims in medieval Spain. For the constitutional liberal cause of Regent Dom Pedro, Saldanha’s personal valor and military prowess were essential in the civil wars, and his prestige in the military was important in the era of the **Regeneration** of 1851–70; however, this officer lacked political ideas and was out of his element in governance. **Queen Maria II**, however, in part owed her throne to the force of this military personality who had become a general at age 27. In later life, Saldanha, loaded with honors and freighted with medals, served as Portugal’s ambassador in Paris and London, in which city he died at his last post. *See also GOLPISMO.*

SAMPAIO, JORGE (1939–). Lawyer, socialist politician and leader, and president of the republic (1996–2006). Born in **Lisbon**, his father a physician and his mother a domestic with an experience of education in England and a knowledge of English, Sampaio was educated in leading Lisbon high schools. In 1961, he took a law degree in the Faculty of Law, University of Lisbon. Active as a student leader early on, especially in oppositionist student movements that criticized the **Estado Novo** during 1959–62 at the University of Lisbon, Sampaio began to practice law in 1963.

Following association with more radical leftist groups, Sampaio joined the **Socialist Party (PS)** in 1978 and, in 1979, became part of that party’s leadership. During 1979–83, he was a PS deputy in the Assembly of the Republic. Reelected as a deputy to that body in the 1985 and 1987 elections, he was elected secretary-general of the PS in 1989. In the local elections of December 1989, he was elected president of the Câmara Municipal, Lisbon, a key position, and he continued in that arduous post until he was elected president of the republic in the general elections of January 1996. In the January 2001 elections, he was reelected to the same post. His second term expired in 2006.

SANTANA, VASCO (1898–1958). Comic stage, film, and radio actor of the golden age of **Lisbon** musical review theater. Although he studied architecture in Lisbon, Santana quickly became a celebrated, popular actor in light theater, especially in Lisbon reviews, comedies, and operettas. In radio, he became known for his zany depiction of a 1940s cartoon character. For decades, Santana was the most popular comic figure in the Theater of Review in Lisbon. With his signature squat corpulence, his quick comic moves, and rough voice, charismatic Santana was the most beloved of comic actors of his day. Besides his many contributions to stage and radio, he had an important career as a comic actor in film. Most of his more famous roles were in classic 1930s and 1940s films, including one of the earliest talkies in Portugal, *A Canção de Lisboa* (Song of Lisbon, 1933).

Long revered by his public but also by colleagues, Santana's fame underwent a revival after 1974. One sign of this revival was the unexpected popularity of a colleague's memoirs, a best-selling book by the actress, Beatriz Costa, known for her Clara Bow look, in the late 1970s. The clever title was both sentimental and biting: *When the Vascos Were Santanas and More* (*Quando Os Vascos Eram Santanas E Não Só*). The "Vasco" of recent, revolutionary politics was the soldier-politician, Vasco Gonçalves, in contrast to the beloved "Vasco Santana" of an earlier golden age of comedy. New generations of performers continue to be inspired by the late actor's distinctive legacy of light-hearted mirth. *See also* CINEMA.

SANTANA LOPES, PEDRO MIGUEL DE (1956–). Portuguese lawyer and politician, and prime minister (2004–05). Born in **Lisbon** in 1956, Santana Lopes took a law degree from the University of Lisbon and was a Student Union leader. In 1976, he joined the **Social Democratic Party (PSD)** and became a legal advisor to Prime Minister **Francisco Sá Carneiro**. Santana Lopes has always considered himself a follower of the late Sá Carneiro. In 1986, he became assistant state secretary to Prime Minister **Aníbal Cavaco Silva**, and the following year was elected to the European Parliament, in which he served for two years. In 1991, **Cavaco Silva** named him secretary of state for culture. He served in various other posts, including mayor of Lisbon, and he founded a weekly newspaper, *Semanário*.

In 1998, Santana Lopes withdrew from politics after being negatively depicted in a private television station comic sketch. Instead, he continued in politics and rose to the vice-presidency of the PSD. **José Manuel Durão Barroso** resigned in July 2004 to become president of the European Commission, and Santana Lopes became PSD leader. Since his party was the major partner in the governing coalition at this time and Barroso had resigned his post, Santana Lopes succeeded him.

Santana Lopes' brief premiership was fraught with difficulties. The national **economy** was in a crisis, and there were frequent cabinet shuffles, factionalism among PSD leaders, and questions being raised about the competence of Santana Lopes to govern effectively. President **Jorge Sampaio** called a parliamentary election for February 2005, following the resignation of the minister of sport from the cabinet and that minister's attacks on the prime minister's conduct. The **Socialist Party (PS)** under **José Sócrates** won the election, and Santana Lopes left office to resume his post as mayor of Lisbon. Santana Lopes, however, after in-fighting with his party and following the party's failure to endorse him as a candidate for the upcoming municipal elections, resigned this post one month before the election of February 2005.

SANTO ANTÓNIO DE PADUA (SAINT ANTHONY OF PADUA OR OF LISBON) (1195–1231). Franciscan saint, teacher, and preacher, also known as Saint Anthony of Lisbon. Born in **Lisbon** and considered the patron saint of Portugal and of Lisbon, his feast day of 13 June is widely celebrated in the country. Santo António spent much of his life outside Portugal, teaching at universities in Italy and France. He died at Padua and was canonized in 1232. He has been associated with many miracles and is known popularly as the “finder of lost articles.” He appears frequently in works of art and in popular crafts.

SANTOS, JOSÉ MANUEL CERQUEIRA AFONSO (1929–1987). Balladeer, singer, poet, musician, composer, and teacher. Known to the public simply as “Zeca” or “José Afonso,” he was a student poet, singer, and musician in the 1950s, and premier interpreter of Coimbra *fado*, creator of a new school of *fado* music, and leader of

a reform movement in popular **music**. Using his distinctive musical compositions, appealing baritone singing voice, and iconoclastic lyrics of resistance to tyranny, Afonso Santos employed his poetic and musical gifts as instruments of resistance and opposition to the enduring **Estado Novo**. Two recorded songs became early shots in this war: *Balada de Outono* (Autumn's Ballad) and *Menino d'Oiro* (Golden Boy). With diverse, subversive meanings usually disguised in allegory, his lyrics and style eschewed the traditional Coimbra *fado*'s fare of broad sentiment and unrequited love. Instead, Afonso presented new ballads with contemporary resonance. In the mid-1960s, when so many Portuguese youth were drafted and mobilized for Portugal's colonial wars in Africa, he lived and taught school in Mozambique, where he organized opposition to the regime. Later in that colony, he was arrested by the **PIDE**.

After his return to Portugal, Afonso's reputation as a rebel balladeer grew; among his most celebrated recorded ballads were *Cantigas de Maio* (Songs of May, 1971) and *Venham Mais Cinco* (Five More Came, 1973). His famous revolutionary, rallying song, *Grândola, Vila Morena*, banned by the Estado Novo before 1974, became the single most famous piece of Portuguese revolutionary music in the second half of the 20th century. *Grândola* featured Afonso's voice and lyrics and expressed a clearly leftist ideology and resistance to tyranny, to the background sounds of marching feet growing louder. Selected by the coup planners of the **Armed Forces Movement** as a signal for action, a secret password sign to be played over Lisbon radio at about midnight on 24/25 April 1974, this remarkable song acquired new fame and a place in history as both an actual signal for rebel military operations to begin and an enduring revolutionary rallying cry. After the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, *Grândola* became the most potent symbol of the move to topple the Estado Novo and open the way for profound change, as well as a musical icon, equaled only by the iconographic red carnation. The first stanza of Afonso's lyrics, translated from the Portuguese, is:

Grândola, dark-brown town,
Homeland of Brotherhood
The people have more power
within you, oh city

SÃO BENTO, PALACE OF. São Bento Palace in Estrela district of **Lisbon** in an earlier life was a convent (constructed 1598–1615). After 1834, Portugal’s national legislature or **Cortes** was transferred to the old convent, which thereafter was adapted and renovated. In common usage, “São Bento” refers to the seat of national government, much the way “Whitehall” in London describes the location of the British government. In Portugal, however, São Bento houses not one but two branches of the national government: both the legislative branch and part of the executive. Since the foundation of the First Republic, then, São Bento has been the home of the **legislature** and of the residence and office of the prime minister (or president of the Council of Ministers).

By the first decade of the 20th century, the legislative hall or chamber of São Bento was essentially the building of today. In a grand and imposing neoclassical style, the palace has housed all the legislative bodies whatever their names: in the constitutional monarchy, the House of Deputies and Peers; in the First Republic, the Senate and House of Deputies; in the **Estado Novo** dictatorship, the National Assembly and Corporate Chamber; in democratic (post-1974) Portugal, the Assembly of the Republic. While the building is largely pre-1910, the **art** and decorations are more recent. The halls, foyers, stairways, and chambers are decorated with murals, frescoes, and statuary, including the impressive oils of the 1920s in the murals by Columbano Bordalo Pinheiro, which depict the pageant of Portugal’s main legislators since 1821. Other art dates to the 1930s under the Estado Novo. Tellingly, the delegates’ hall outside the main legislative chamber is known as the hall of “Wasted Time.”

Behind the legislative halls, in another part of São Bento, is situated residence and offices of the prime minister, the official home of all heads of government beginning in the First Republic. Until the late 1980s, too, São Bento housed the country’s main national archives, the National Archive of Torre do Tombo.

SÃO TOMÉ AND PRÍNCIPE. Comprising a former colony of Portugal, these two islands of volcanic origin are located in the Gulf of Guinea, West Africa. The Portuguese first found these tropical islands about 1471, and efforts to settle them began in 1486 on São Tomé and about 1500 on Príncipe Island. Portugal settled them with

African **slaves** from the mainland. A significant portion of the Africans who were forced to work the coffee and cocoa plantations were from **Angola**, and some were from the **Cape Verde Islands**. The early economy of the islands was dominated by sugar as plantations were established, based on the systems pioneered earlier in **Madeira** and the Cape Verdes. In the 19th and 20th centuries, however, coffee and cocoa plantations were developed. The cocoa plantations, which were owned largely by Portuguese from Portugal, produced the raw material for chocolate and soon formed the principal wealth of this colony.

In the early 20th century, forced labor practices and other labor abuses on the Portuguese-owned plantations drew worldwide attention through the famous writings of the British investigative reporter-writer, Henry W. Nevinson. Portugal's colonial rule there, as well as in **Angola** and **Mozambique**, whose excesses were now exposed in newspapers and books, also came under the scrutiny of leading humanitarian organizations in London and elsewhere. Although Portugal defended colonial rule in this case and made reform efforts, tragically extensive labor abuse in the islands persisted into the middle of the 20th century. The islands were not involved in a war of African insurgency. In 1975, Portugal granted independence to the archipelago, whose official **language** of government and instruction remains Portuguese.

SARAMAGO, JOSÉ (1922–). Recipient of the 1998 Nobel Prize in **Literature**, Saramago, a noted novelist, poet, essayist, and travel writer, is the first writer in the Portuguese language, of whatever nationality, to be so honored. Saramago began his career as a journalist, editor, and translator, and then became a full-time novelist. Born in the village of Azinhaga, Ribatejo province, Saramago worked as a journalist and directed the literary supplement of the *Diário de Lisboa*, a daily paper in the capital, as well as being an editor with the *Diário de Notícias*. Among his other writings from earlier decades is his work as a literary critic for the liberal, progressive journal *Seara Nova*. His reputation as a writer rests chiefly on the value of his novels, most of them translated now into more than 20 foreign languages and published widely outside Portugal, but he is also a versatile poet, playwright, travel writer, and political commentator. His membership

in the **Portuguese Communist Party (PCP)** and later his moving from residence in Portugal to the Canary Islands with his Spanish wife elicited ongoing discussions. Among his more famous novels that have been rendered into the English language and widely praised are *Baltazar and Blimunda* (1987), *The Year of the Death of Ricardo Reis* (1991), and *The History of the Siege of Lisbon* (1996).

SAUDADE. A feeling or sentiment said to be typically Portuguese, which is a kind of nostalgia, yearning, and melancholy longing. Although the word is almost untranslatable, one standard dictionary defined *saudade* as a sweet and soft remembrance of persons and things far away or long ago. A very common term in colloquial Portuguese, it expresses a sad feeling for an absent person or loved one. Philologists debate the word's precise origins. Some suggest that it derives from the Latin *solitudo*, while Aubrey Bell suggests that *saudade* derives from the Arabic word *saudai*, or someone who is stricken with melancholy and a longing to be alone. *See also FADO.*

SEBASTIANISM. Popular creed or belief, a messianism, after the loss of **King Sebastião I** in Morocco in 1578, that Portugal would be saved and made great again by a returning hero who would appear on a misty morning. Until the early 19th century, various personalities who were imposters posed as a returning Sebastian and sought to be recognized as conquering heroes. Forms of Sebastianist belief have captured the imagination in northeast **Brazil** as well. According to some historians, Sebastianism was not limited to the 16th century or to presumed royalty, but could find a popular following that could attach to recent political figures in the 19th and 20th centuries as well. There is a vast literature about Sebastianism and its history. One of Portugal's most distinguished historians, Dr. José Hermano Saraiva, suggests that even today a Sebastianist feeling exists in a common tendency of persons who believe that what one wants cannot happen, but at the same time hope that it will happen and will happen independently of those persons' efforts. Such a state of mind is related to the common mood of Lisbon *fado*, as well as to the notion of *saudade*.

SEBASTIÃO I, KING (1554–1578). The king of Portugal whose disappearance and death in battle in Morocco in 1578 led to a succession crisis and to **Spain's** annexation of Portugal in 1580. He is the person

after whom the cult and mythology of **Sebastianism** is named. Sebastião succeeded to the throne of Portugal at the tender age of three, upon the death of his father **King João III** in 1557. With his great-uncle Cardinal Henrique, he was the only other surviving legitimate male member of the Aviz dynasty. The Spanish menace loomed on Portugal's eastern horizons, as Phillip II of Spain gathered more reasons to make good his own strong claims to the Portuguese throne. A headstrong youth, Sebastião dreamed of glory in battle against the Muslims and was certainly influenced by the example of the feats of Phillip II's half-brother Don Juan of Austria and the naval victory against the Turks at Lepanto in 1571.

Sebastião's great project was a victory in Africa, and he ordered a major effort to raise a fleet and army to attack Morocco. His forces landed at Tangier and Arzila and marched to meet the Muslim armies. In early August 1578, at the battle of **Alcácer-Quivir**, Portugal's army was destroyed by Muslim forces, and the king himself was lost. Although he was undoubtedly killed, his body was never found. The result of this foolhardy enterprise changed the course of Portugal's history and gave rise to the cult and myth that Sebastião survived and would return one foggy morning to make Portugal great once again.

SERRA, JOSÉ FRANCISCO CORREA DA (1750–1823). Known in history by the name “the Abbé Correa da Serra,” this famous Portuguese figure of the Enlightenment, man of letters, diplomat, traveler, botanist, and intellectual spent many years abroad in **Great Britain**, Italy, and the young republic of the **United States**. Patronized by the powerful, rich Duke of Lafões and ordained as a priest at age 25, Correa da Serra received a doctorate in Italy two years later and soon undertook diplomatic missions abroad for Portugal. Minister for Portugal in the United States of America from 1816 to 1820, he became a close friend and longtime correspondent of Thomas Jefferson. In historic Monticello, Thomas Jefferson's stately home, in recent restorations one bedroom has been officially designated as Correa da Serra's room. Correa da Serra was one of the founders of the Lisbon Academy of Sciences and had a wide correspondence with the scientific minds of the French Enlightenment. He was honored for his contributions to the field of botany in a number of other countries as well. In 1822, at the end of his life, he was elected to the new Constitutional **Cortes** in **Lisbon**.

SINTRA, NATIONAL PALACE OF. Located off the main square in the town of **Sintra**, the National Palace is one of the country's oldest royal residences. Together with its rich mixture of architectural styles from different eras and cultures, the National Palace's long history of being the place where monarchs and councils made historic decisions makes the site today an especially appealing **tourist** attraction. With its origins in a 14th-century Gothic palace of the era of **King Dinis** (r. 1279–1325), this monument was added onto and altered in the course of the 15th century. It was in this palace that **King João I** made the vital decision in 1415 to send an expedition to capture Ceuta in Morocco, the beginning of Portugal's overseas **empire**. The most important additions to the palace, however, came between 1505 and 1520 under **King Manuel I**, and the **Manueline architectural style** was added to the original Gothic. The two massive Gothic kitchen chimneys from an earlier era were incorporated and not changed. Into the Manueline style was blended a strong Moorish **art** element including decorative tiles or *azulejos* and an adapted interior mosque, which was converted into a chapel. The National Palace contains the largest repository of the oldest *azulejos*, some dating to the 15th century, of any palace in Portugal. Among the unusual rooms must be counted the council room (with an ocean view), the Swan Room, and the Magpie Room, with rare, painted ceilings.

SINTRA, TOWN OF. Located some 32 kilometers (20 miles) northwest of **Lisbon**, the charming town of Sintra possesses historic importance of an unusual type. The enduring beauty of Sintra's unique scenery, its microclimate, its private and national palaces and houses, and the views from its mountain range comprise a special, diverse attraction. The town is dominated by the mountain range above it, as well as by the semitropical forests and plants surrounding it. While little of importance in politics occurred in this favorite summering place of royalty and nobility, of greater interest is the place itself and what did not happen here!

After 1780, starting with the writings of the British romantics Robert Southey and Lord Byron, as well as the protoromantic writer and collector William Beckford, generations of British and other foreign writers and visitors placed Sintra and its surroundings on the map of romantic places to visit. Sintra has a special place in British travel

literature. Perhaps the most famous single line is from Byron's long poem *Childe Harold* where Sintra, in which Byron resided briefly, is depicted as a "Glorious Eden." With the exception of Lisbon, no other place in the country has been the subject of such an abundance of drawings, etchings, engravings, paintings, and photographs. In Portuguese 19th-century **literature**, too, including the writings of **Almeida Garrett** and **Eça de Queirós**, Sintra is justly described and praised. *See also* PENA, NATIONAL PALACE OF; SINTRA, NATIONAL PALACE OF.

SLAVERY AND SLAVE TRADE, PORTUGUESE. The Portuguese role in the Atlantic slave trade (ca. 1500–1850), next to Portugal's motives for **empire** and the nature of her colonial rule, remains one of the most controversial historical questions. The institution of slavery was conventional in Roman and Visigothic Portugal, and the **Catholic Church** sanctioned it. The origins of an international traffic in enslaved African captives in the Atlantic are usually dated to after the year 1411, when the first black African slaves were brought to Portugal (Lagos) and sold, but there were activities a century earlier that indicated the beginnings. In the 1340s, under King Afonso IV, Portuguese had captured native islanders on voyages to the Canary Islands and later used them as slave labor in the sugar plantations of **Madeira**. After 1500, and especially after the 1550s, when African slave-worked plantations became established in **Brazil** and other American colonies, the Atlantic slave trade became a vast international enterprise in which Portugal played a key role. But all the European maritime powers were involved in the slave trade from 1500 to 1800, including **Great Britain**, **France**, and Holland, those countries that eventually pressured Portugal to cease the slave trade in its empire.

No one knows the actual numbers of Africans enslaved in the nefarious business, but it is clear that millions of persons during more than three-and-a-half centuries were forcibly stolen from African societies and that the survivors of the terrible slave voyages helped build the economies of the Americas. Portugal's role in the trade was as controversial as its impact on Portuguese society. Comparatively large numbers of African slaves resided in Portugal, although the precise number remains a mystery; by the last quarter of the 18th

century, when the prime minister of **King José I**, the **Marquis of Pombal** abolished slavery in Portugal, the African racial element had been largely absorbed in Portuguese society.

Great Portuguese fortunes were built on the African slave trade in Portugal, Brazil, and Angola, and the slave trade continued in the Portuguese empire until the 1850s and 1860s. The Angolan slave trade across the Atlantic was doomed after Brazil banned the import of slaves in 1850, under great pressure from Britain. As for slavery in Portugal's African empire, various forms of this institution, including forced labor, continued in **Angola** and **Mozambique** until the early 1960s. A curious vestige of the Portuguese role in the African slave trade over the centuries is found in the family name, appearing in Lisbon telephone books, of *Negreiro*, which means literally, "One who trades in (African) Negro slaves."

SOARES, MÁRIO ALBERTO NOBRE LOPES (1924–). Lawyer, staunch oppositionist to the **Estado Novo**, a founder of Portugal's **Socialist Party (PS)**, key leader of post-1974 democratic Portugal, and twice-elected president of the republic (1986–91; 1991–96). Mário Soares was born on 7 December 1924, in **Lisbon**, the son of an educator and former cabinet officer of the ill-fated First Republic. An outstanding student, Soares received a degree in history and philosophy from the University of Lisbon (1951) and his law degree from the same institution (1957). A teacher and a lawyer, the young Soares soon became active in various organizations that opposed the **Estado Novo**, starting in his student days and continuing into his association with the PS. He worked with the organizations of several oppositionist candidates for the presidency of the republic in 1949 and 1958 and, as a lawyer, defended a number of political figures against government prosecution in court. Soares was the family attorney for the family of **General Humberto Delgado**, murdered on the Spanish frontier by the regime's political police in 1965. Soares was signatory and editor of the "Program for the Democratization of the Republic" in 1961, and, in 1968, he was deported by the regime to **São Tomé**, one of Portugal's African colonies.

In 1969, following the brief liberalization under the new prime minister **Marcello Caetano**, Soares returned from exile in Africa and participated as a member of the opposition in general elections for the

National Assembly. Although harassed by the **PIDE**, he was courageous in attacking the government and its colonial policies in Africa. After the rigged election results were known, and no oppositionist deputy won a seat despite the Caetano “opening,” Soares left for exile in **France**. From 1969 to 1974, he resided in France, consulted with other political exiles, and taught at a university. In 1973, at a meeting in West Germany, Soares participated in the (re)founding of the (Portuguese) Socialist Party.

The exciting, unexpected news of the **Revolution of 25 April 1974** reached Soares in France, and soon he was aboard a train bound for Lisbon, where he was to play a major role in the difficult period of revolutionary politics (1974–75). During a most critical phase, the “hot summer” of 1975, when a civil war seemed in the offing, Soares’s efforts to steer Portugal away from a communist dictatorship and sustained civil strife were courageous and effective. He found allies in the moderate military and large sectors of the population. After the abortive leftist coup of 25 November 1975, Soares played an equally vital role in assisting the stabilization of a pluralist democracy.

Prime minister on several occasions during the era of postrevolutionary adjustment (1976–85), Soares continued his role as the respected leader of the PS. Following 11 hectic years of the Lusitanian political hurly-burly, Soares was eager for a change and some rest. Prepared to give up leadership of the factious PS and become a senior statesman in the new Portugal, Mário Soares ran for the presidency of the republic. After serving twice as elected president of the republic, he established the Mário Soares Foundation, Lisbon, and was elected to the European Parliament. *See also* POLITICAL PARTIES.

SOCIAL DEMOCRATIC PARTY / PARTIDO SOCIAL DEMOCRÁTICO (PSD). One of the two major political parties in democratic Portugal. It was established originally as the Popular Democratic Party / Partido Popular Democrático (PPD) in May 1974, following the **Revolution of 25 April 1974** that overthrew the **Estado Novo**. The PPD had its roots in the “liberal wing” of the **União Nacional**, the single, legal party or movement allowed under the Estado Novo during the last phase of that regime, under Prime Minister **Marcello Caetano**. A number of future PPD leaders, such as

Francisco Sá Carneiro and **Francisco Balsemão**, hoped to reform the Estado Novo from within, but soon became discouraged. After the 1974 Revolution, the PPD participated in two general elections (April 1975 and April 1976), which were crucial for the establishment and consolidation of democracy, and the party won sufficient votes to become the second largest political party after the **Socialist Party (PS)** in the number of seats held in the legislature, the Assembly of the Republic. The PPD voting results in those two elections were 26.4 percent and 24.4 percent, respectively.

After the 1976 elections, the party changed its name from Partido Popular Democrático to Partido Social Democrático (PSD). As political opinion swung from the left to the center and center-right, and with the leadership of Francisco Sá Carneiro, the PSD gained greater popularity and strength, and from 1979 on, the party played an important role in government. After Sá Carneiro died in the air crash of December 1980, he was replaced as party chief and then prime minister by Francisco Balsemão, and then by **Aníbal Cavaco Silva**. As successors, these two leaders guided the PSD to a number of electoral victories, especially beginning in 1985. After 1987, the PSD held a majority of seats in parliament, a situation that lasted until 1995, when the **Socialist Party (PS)** won the election.

The PSD's principal political program has featured the de-Marxification of the 1976 **Constitution** and the economic system, a free-market **economy** with privatization of many state enterprises, and close ties with the **European Economic Community (EEC)** and subsequently the **European Union (EU)**. After the PSD lost several general elections in 1995 and 1999, and following the withdrawal from office of former prime minister Cavaco Silva, a leadership succession crisis occurred in the party. The party leadership shifted from **Marcelo Rebelo de Sousa** to **Manuel Durão Barroso**, and, in 2004, Pedro Santana Lopes.

During 2000 and 2001, as Portugal's economic situation worsened, the PS's popularity waned. In the December 2001 municipal elections, the PSD decisively defeated the PS and, as a result, Prime Minister **António Guterres** resigned. Parliamentary elections in March 2002 resulted in a Social Democratic victory, although its margin of victory over the PS was small (40 percent to 38 percent). Upon becoming premier in the spring of 2002, then, PSD leader

Durão Barroso, in order to hold a slim majority of seats in the Assembly of the Republic, was obliged to govern in a coalition with the Popular Party (PP), formerly known as the **Christian Democratic Party (CDS)**. Although the PSD had ousted the PS from office, the party confronted formidable economic and social problems. When Durão Barroso resigned to become president of the EU Commission, Pedro Santana Lopes became the PSD's leader, as prime minister in July 2004. Under Santana Lopes's leadership, the PSD lost the parliamentary elections of 2005 to the PS. Since then, the PSD has sought to regain its dominant position with the Portuguese electorate. It made some progress in doing so when its former leader, Cavaco Silva, was elected president of the Republic of 2006. *See also* POLITICAL PARTIES.

SOCIALIST PARTY / PARTIDO SOCIALISTA (PS). Although the Socialist Party's origins can be traced back to the 1850s, its existence has not been continuous. The party did not achieve or maintain a large base of support until after the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**. Historically, it played only a minor political role when compared to other European socialist parties.

During the **Estado Novo**, the PS found it difficult to maintain a clandestine existence, and the already weak party literally withered away. Different groups and associations endeavored to keep socialist ideals alive, but they failed to create an organizational structure that would endure. In 1964, **Mário Soares**, Francisco Ramos da Costa, and Manuel Tito de Morais established the Portuguese Socialist Action / Acção Socialista Português (ASP) in Geneva, a group of individuals with similar views rather than a true **political party**. Most members were middle-class professionals committed to democratizing the nation. The rigidity of the **Portuguese Communist Party (PCP)** led some to join the ASP.

By the early 1970s, ASP nuclei existed beyond Portugal in Paris, London, Rome, Brussels, Frankfurt, Sweden, and Switzerland; these consisted of members studying, working, teaching, researching, or in other activities. Extensive connections were developed with other foreign socialist parties. Changing conditions in Portugal, as well as the colonial wars, led several ASP members to advocate the creation of a real political party, strengthening the organization within Portugal, and positioning this to compete for power once the regime changed.

The current PS was founded clandestinely on 19 April 1973, by a group of 27 exiled Portuguese and domestic ASP representatives at the Kurt Schumacher Academy of the Friedrich Ebert Stiftung in Bad Munstereifel, West Germany. The founding philosophy was influenced by nondogmatic Marxism as militants sought to create a classless society. The rhetoric was to be revolutionary to outflank its competitors, especially the PCP, on its left. The party hoped to attract reform-minded **Catholics** and other groups that were committed to democracy but could not support the communists.

At the time of the 1974 revolution, the PS was little more than an elite faction based mainly among exiles. It was weakly organized and had little grassroots support outside the major cities and larger towns. Its organization did not improve significantly until the campaign for the April 1975 constituent elections. Since then, the PS has become very pragmatic and moderate and has increasingly diluted its socialist program until it has become a center-left party. Among the party's most consistent principles in its platform since the late 1970s has been its support for Portugal's membership in the **European Economic Community (EEC)** and the **European Union (EU)**, a view that clashed with those of its rivals to the left, especially the PCP. Given the PS's broad base of support, the increased distance between its leftist rhetoric and its more conservative actions has led to sharp internal divisions in the party. The PS and the **Social Democratic Party (PSD)** are now the two dominant parties in the Portuguese political party system.

In doctrine and rhetoric the PS has undergone a de-Marxification and a movement toward the center as a means to challenge its principal rival for hegemony, the PSD. The uneven record of the PS in general elections since its victory in 1975, and sometimes its failure to keep strong legislative majorities, have discouraged voters. While the party lost the 1979 and 1980 general elections, it triumphed in the 1983 elections, when it won 36 percent of the vote, but it still did not gain an absolute majority in the Assembly of the Republic. The PSD led by Cavaco Silva dominated elections from 1985 to 1995, only to be defeated by the PS in the 1995 general elections. By 2000, the PS had conquered the commanding heights of the polity: President **Jorge Sampaio** had been reelected for a second term, PS prime minister **António Guterres** was entrenched, and the mayor of

Lisbon was João Soares, son of the former socialist president, **Mário Soares** (1986–96).

The ideological transformation of the PS occurred gradually after 1975, within the context of a strong PSD, an increasingly conservative electorate, and the de-Marxification of other European Socialist parties, including those in Germany and Scandinavia. While the PS paid less attention to the PCP on its left and more attention to the PSD, party leaders shed Marxist trappings. In the 1986 PS official program, for example, the text does not include the word Marxism.

Despite the party's election victories in the mid- and late-1990s, the leadership discovered that their grasp of power and their hegemony in governance at various levels was threatened by various factors: President Jorge Sampaio's second term, the constitution mandated, had to be his last.

Following the defeat of the PS by the PSD in the municipal elections of December 2001, Premier António Guterres resigned his post, and President Sampaio dissolved parliament and called parliamentary elections for the spring. In the 17 March 2002 elections, following Guterres's resignation as party leader, the PS was defeated by the PSD by a vote of 40 percent to 38 percent. Among the factors that brought about the socialists' departure from office was the worsening post-September 11 economy and disarray within the PS leadership circles, as well as charges of corruption among PS office holders. However, the PS won 45 percent of the vote in parliamentary elections of 2005, and the leader of the party, **José Sócrates**, a self-described "market-oriented socialist" became prime minister.

SÓCRATES, JOSÉ (CARVALHO PINTO DE SOUSA) (1957–).

Politician, head of the **Socialist Party**, and prime minister of Portugal. Born in **Oporto**, Sócrates lived his early years in Covilha, central Portugal. Trained as a civil engineer, Sócrates' professional credentials became the subject of a heated political controversy after he became an important politician. The validity of his engineering degree, as well as the academic respectability of the private university at which he had received the disputed credential, were brought into question in the media.

Sócrates helped found the youth wing of the **Social Democratic Party** and, since 1981, has been a member of the **Socialist Party**.

His specialty has been environmental affairs, and in the first government of **António Guterres**, he served as undersecretary of state for the environment. He later became Minister for Youth and Sport in the second Guterres government in 1999. One of his main causes has been to ban smoking in public buildings and public transport and, in January 2008, a law was passed to this effect. (Sócrates became the target of criticism when it was discovered that he had smoked on a flight from Portugal to Venezuela.) He again became Minister for Youth and Sports and helped organize the 2004 EURO cup (*futebol*) in Portugal. He won the post of secretary-general of the Socialist Party in 2004 with a strong vote, and he became prime minister of the XVII constitutional government in March 2005. He was also president-in-office of the **European Union** during the second half of 2007.

SOUSA, MARCELO REBELO DE (1949–). Political leader and administrator, law professor, editor, and writer. A son of Baltazar Rebelo de Sousa, important administrator, governor-general of **Mozambique**, and cabinet minister during the **Estado Novo**, Rebelo de Sousa took a law degree at the University of Lisbon Law Faculty. Near the end of the Estado Novo, he was a founding editor of the influential, independent weekly paper *Expresso*, and years later became director or chief editor. As a member of the **Social Democratic Party (PSD)** after the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, Rebelo de Sousa held a variety of positions from deputy to the Constituent Assembly, which wrote the 1976 **Constitution**, to ministerial posts. He moved up in the PSD after the retirement of **Aníbal Cavaco Silva** in 1995 to become leader of that party, the most important political grouping next to the **Socialist Party (PS)**. Marcelo Rebelo de Sousa was an unsuccessful candidate for prime minister in the 1999 elections for the Assembly of the Republic. A noted legal authority and a law academic who publishes frequently, he remained a professor of law at University of Lisbon's Law Faculty and the Catholic University, and was the author of law texts. He has also held various municipal posts from Cascais to Celorico de Basto.

SOUZA-CARDOSO, AMADEO DE (1887–1918). Visionary Portuguese painter whose work was the precursor of modern **art** in Portugal. He was born in Amarante in 1887, into a wealthy family

and studied law at **Coimbra University**. He left Coimbra in 1905, before finishing his law studies, and began studying architecture at the Academy of Fine Arts in **Lisbon**. He did not find the architecture course stimulating enough and left for Paris in 1906, settling in Montparnasse. At first, he did drawings and caricatures but later dedicated himself to painting. Souza-Cardoso's work can be characterized as impressionist, expressionist, cubist, and futurist. He showed his work in 1910, in Paris, along with Amedeo Modigliani, Constantin Brancusi, and Juan Gris. In 1913, eight of his paintings were displayed at the famous Armory Show in New York City. In 1914, he worked with Antoni Gaudí in Barcelona.

His time in Spain was ended by the outbreak of the World War I, and he returned to Lisbon, where he began to experiment with new forms of expression. In 1916, he showed 114 cubist works in **Oporto** and **Lisbon**. His career was cut short when he contracted pneumonia and died on 25 October 1918. His most famous works are *Saut du Lapin* (1911), *Cabeça* (1913), *Entrada* (1917), and *Pintura* (1917). In 1935, the Portuguese state established a prize to recognize modernist painters called the "Prémio Souza-Cardoso."

SPAIN. Portugal's independence and sovereignty as a nation-state are based on being separate from Spain. Achieving this on a peninsula where its only landward neighbor, Spain, is stronger, richer, larger, and more populous, raises interesting historical questions. Considering the disparity in size of population alone—Spain (as of 2000) had a population of 40 million, whereas Portugal's population numbered little over 10 million—how did Portugal maintain its sometimes precarious independence? If the Basques, Catalans, and Galicians succumbed to Castilian military and political dominance and were incorporated into greater Spain, how did little Portugal manage to survive the "Spanish menace?" A combination of factors enabled Portugal to keep free of Spain, despite the era of "Babylonian Captivity" (1580–1640). These include an intense Portuguese national spirit; foreign assistance in staving off Spanish invasions and attacks between the late 14th century and the mid 19th century, principally through the **Anglo-Portuguese Alliance** and some assistance from **France**; historical circumstances regarding Spain's own trials and tribulations and decline in power after 1600.

In Portugal's long history, Castile and Leon (later "Spain," as unified in the 16th century) acted as a kind of Iberian mother and stepmother, present at Portugal's birth as well as at times when Portuguese independence was either in danger or lost. Portugal's birth as a separate state in the 12th century was in part a consequence of the king of Castile's granting the "County of Portucale" to a transplanted Burgundian count in the late 11th century. For centuries Castile, Leon, Aragon, and Portugal struggled for supremacy on the peninsula, until the Castilian army met defeat in 1385 at the **battle of Aljubarrota**, thus assuring Portugal's independence for nearly two centuries. Portugal and its **overseas empire** suffered considerably under rule by Phillipine Spain (1580–1640). Triumphant in the **War of Restoration** against Spain (1640–68), Portugal came to depend on its foreign alliances to provide a counterweight to a still menacing kindred neighbor. Under the Anglo-Portuguese Alliance, England (later **Great Britain**) managed to help Portugal thwart more than a few Spanish invasion threats in the next centuries. Rumors and plots of Spain consuming Portugal continued during the 19th century and even during the first Portuguese republic's early years to 1914.

Following difficult diplomatic relations during Spain's subsequent Second Republic (1931–36) and civil war (1936–39), Luso-Spanish relations improved significantly under the authoritarian regimes that ruled both states until the mid-1970s. Portugal's prime minister **António de Oliveira Salazar** and Spain's generalíssimo **Francisco Franco** signed nonaggression and other treaties, lent each other mutual support, and periodically consulted one another on vital questions. During this era (1939–74), there were relatively little **trade**, business, and cultural relations between the two neighbors, who mainly tended to ignore one another. Spain's economy developed more rapidly than Portugal's after 1950, and General Franco was quick to support the **Estado Novo** across the frontier if he perceived a threat to his fellow dictator's regime. In January 1962, for instance, Spanish army units approached the Portuguese frontier in case the abortive military coup at Beja (where a Portuguese oppositionist plot failed) threatened the Portuguese dictatorship.

Since Portugal's **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, and the death of General Franco and the establishment of democracy in Spain (1975–78), Luso-Spanish relations have improved significantly. Por-

tugal has experienced a great deal of Spanish investment, **tourism**, and other economic activities, since both Spain and Portugal became members of the **European Economic Community (EEC)** in 1986.

Yet, Portugal's relations with Spain have become closer still, with increased integration in the **European Union**. Portugal remains determined not to be confused with Spain, and whatever threat from across the frontier exists comes more from Spanish investment than from Spanish winds, marriages, and armies. The fact remains that Luso-Spanish relations are more open and mutually beneficial than perhaps at any other time in history.

SPÍNOLA, ANTÓNIO DE (1910–1996). Senior army general, hero of Portugal's wars of African insurgency, and first president of the provisional government after the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**. A career army officer who became involved in politics after a long career of war service and administration overseas, Spínola had a role in the 1974 coup and revolution that was somewhat analogous to that of **General Gomes da Costa** in the 1926 coup.

Spínola served in important posts as a volunteer in Portugal's intervention in the Spanish Civil War (1936–39), a military observer on the Russian front with the Third Reich's armed forces in **World War II**, and a top officer in the **Guarda Nacional Republicana (GNR)**. His chief significance in contemporary affairs, however, came following his military assignments and tours of duty in Portugal's colonial wars in Africa after 1961.

Spínola fought first in **Angola** and later in **Guinea-Bissau**, where, during 1968–73, he was both commanding general of Portugal's forces and high commissioner (administrator of the territory). His Guinean service tour was significant for at least two reasons: Spínola's dynamic influence upon a circle of younger career officers on his staff in Guinea, men who later joined together in the **Armed Forces Movement (MFA)**, and Spínola's experience of failure in winning the Guinea war militarily or finding a political means for compromise or negotiation with the Party for the Independence of Guinea and Cape Verde (PAIGC), the African insurgent movement that had fought a war with Portugal since 1963, largely in the forested tropical interior of the territory. Spínola became discouraged after failure to win permission to negotiate secretly for a political solution

to the war with the PAIGC and was reprimanded by **Prime Minister Marcello Caetano**.

After his return—not in triumph—from Guinea in 1973, Spínola was appointed chief of staff of the **armed forces**, but he resigned in a dispute with the government. With the assistance of younger officers who also had African experience of costly but seemingly endless war, Spínola wrote a book, *Portugal and the Future*, which was published in February 1974, despite official censorship and red tape. Next to the Bible and editions of **Luís de Camões's** *The Lusitads*, Spínola's controversial book was briefly the best-selling work in Portugal's modern age. While not intimately involved with the budding conspiracy among career army majors, captains, and others, Spínola was prepared to head such a movement, and the planners depended on his famous name and position as senior army officer with the right credentials to win over both military and civil opinion when and where it counted.

When the Revolution of 25 April 1974 succeeded, Spínola was named head of the Junta of National Salvation and eventually provisional president of Portugal. Among the military revolutionaries, though, there was wide disagreement about the precise goals of the revolution and how to achieve them. Spínola's path-breaking book had subtly proposed three new goals: the democratization of authoritarian Portugal, a political solution to the African colonial wars, and liberalization of the economic system. The MFA immediately proclaimed, not coincidentally, the same goals, but without specifying the means to attain them.

The officers who ran the newly emerging system fell out with Spínola over many issues, but especially over how to decolonize Portugal's besieged **empire**. Spínola proposed a gradualist policy that featured a free referendum by all colonial voters to decide between a loose federation with Portugal or complete independence. MFA leaders wanted more or less immediate decolonization, a transfer of power to leading African movements, and a pullout of Portugal's nearly 200,000 troops in three colonies. After a series of crises and arguments, Spínola resigned as president in September 1974. He conspired for a conservative coup to oust the leftists in power, but the effort failed in March 1975, and Spínola was forced to flee to **Spain** and then to **Brazil**. Some years later, he returned to Portugal, lived in

quiet retirement, and could be seen enjoying horseback riding. In the early 1980s, he was promoted to the rank of marshal, in retirement.

SPORTS, PORTUGUESE. Among the many sports enjoyed in Portugal, soccer (*futebol*) is by far the most popular, with some observers claiming that it approaches a semireligious movement. In international competition, although Portugal's national team boasts world-class players like **Cristiano Ronaldo** and Luís Figo, and nourishes fond memories of "Eusébio" from the 1960s world cup matches, Portugal has never won a World Cup. It has garnered individual titles in the Euro soccer cup. A ferocious rivalry among professional soccer clubs continues, as fans of clubs such as Sporting and Benfica demonstrate.

In recent decades, Portuguese athletes have excelled in world track and field competitions, and Olympic gold medals have been won by athletes such as Vanessa Fernandes, Rui Silva, and Naide Gomes. Portuguese teams have been highly competitive in the fast, popular sport of rink hockey, also called hardball hockey or roller hockey (quad), or, in the Portuguese language, *hoquei em patins*. Since the 1940s, Portugal has won 15 world titles, in hot competition with rivals Spain (13 world titles), Italy (4), and Argentina (4). Among other popular sports in Portugal is cycling, and the principal cycle competition in Portugal is the *Volta a Portugal*. In recent years, rugby has attained a new popularity in Portugal, and Portuguese rugby teams have been improving. In judo, Portugal has a young European champion in Telma Monteiro. **Equestrianism** has long been a sport of consequence, although traditionally viewed as a largely elite activity. **Bull-fighting** continues, but its popularity has slipped and the activity's future remains uncertain. In a country with a substantial Atlantic coast, Portugal has taken to popular water sports, such as sailing, windsurfing, kayaking, surfing, swimming, and kite-surfing. Motor sports, such as international car racing, also have a growing number of fans. *See also FUTEBOL.*

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TAGUS, RIVER. The Tagus (Rio Tejo in Portugal, Rio Tajo in Spain) is the longest river in the Iberian Peninsula. It rises in east-central

Spain, east of Madrid, and flows west across Spain to the Portuguese border for about 60 kilometers (36 miles), forming a section of the Luso–Spanish border, then turns southwest and enters the Atlantic at **Lisbon**. The Tagus estuary is an important harbor resource. About 16 kilometers (10 miles) above Lisbon, the Tagus burgeons into a 11 kilometer (7-mile-wide) lagoon that narrows at Lisbon to a channel of some 3 kilometers (2 miles) wide and 18 kilometers (8 miles) long, blocked in part by a sand bar. The Tagus is navigable as far as the town of Abrantes, roughly 240 kilometers (146 miles) upriver. In tradition and history, this river acts as a kind of dividing line between north and south Portugal, each with its different regions and features.

TEIXEIRA, NUNO SEVERIANO (1957–). Portuguese scholar and politician, example of a new generation of academically trained public servants who favor a pan-European vision. Born in Guinea-Bissau, West Africa, in 1957, he received most of his education in Europe. Educated as a career academic, he received a master's degree in history from the Faculty of Letters, Classical University of Lisbon in 1981, and his doctorate in the history of international relations from the European University Institute, Florence, Italy in 1994. He also received a higher degree in 2005 in political science and international relations from the New University of Lisbon. He held various teaching and research posts in academia in Italy, the United States, and Portugal, as well as visiting professor post appointments at American universities, including Georgetown University and the University of California, Berkeley, between 2000 and 2003. He was active in international research networks and scholarly conferences and publications, including the American-based International Conference Group on Portugal (1972–2002).

A member of the **Socialist Party**, Teixeira was director of the Instituto da Defesa Nacional, a government academy and think-tank, from 1996 to 2000 and, from 2000 to 2002, he served as minister of internal administration. From 2003 to 2006, he was the director of the Portuguese Institute of International Relations, at the New University of Lisbon. In July 2006, he became Portugal's minister of national defense in the government of Prime Minister José Sócrates. His scholarly publications are numerous, including books on mod-

ern history, the European Union, and defense and war studies. As defense minister, Teixeira was active in the pan-European activities of the European Union (EU) and made important contributions as a speaker and theorist. In EU meetings, he analyzed strategic defense planning in order to help determine the future military roles of the EU as it dealt with transnational terrorism, failed states, and the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction in Europe, the Middle East, and Africa.

TELECOMMUNICATIONS IN PORTUGAL. As of 2004–05, Portugal had 4.2 million telephone main lines in use but, in the ownership of cell or mobile phones, the Portuguese were perhaps world record-holders, with 10,362,100 cellphones in use, a rate of about one per inhabitant. Its international telephone system uses six submarine cables, as well as connections with several satellites. Its telephone system is advanced, with broadband, high-speed capabilities. Radio ownership was estimated to be well over 3 million, and there are over 110 radio broadcast stations (both AM and FM). More than 3.3 million **television** sets are owned.

TELEVISION. *See* MEDIA.

TELMO, JOSÉ ÂNGELO COTTINELLI (1897–1948). Architect, artist, musician, photographer, illustrator, and filmmaker. Trained at the Escola de Belas-Artes, **Lisbon**, he produced the classic film *A Canção de Lisboa* (Song of Lisbon). Although best known for his extraordinary architectural creations, he was also a musician, dancer, and photographer, and it was Cottinelli Telmo who introduced the newspaper cartoon (*banda desenhada*) to Portugal. A visionary creator and organizer, he pioneered the notion of the “garden-city” in Lisbon. While he was employed by the Portuguese railroads, he designed train stations and other structures, including several in Lisbon, Campolide, and Caçém.

His most memorable contribution was work at the massive 1940 Exposition of the Portuguese World at Belém, a kind of world’s fair that opened in the weeks before the fall of **France** in June 1940. The centerpiece of this exposition, in what is now the Praça do Império and fronting on the **Monastery of Jerónimos**, was the Pavilion of the

Portuguese in the World. Named chief architect by Minister of Public Works **Duarte Pacheco**, Cottinelli Telmo gathered around him a stellar array of the country's finest architects and artists of their generation. Other major projects were buildings in Belém, the Sanctuary at Fátima, the Catholic shrine, and Coimbra's University City.

TENTH OF JUNE. An official Portuguese national holiday, called "Camões Day" or "Portugal Day" in official literature. It commemorates the death, on 10 June 1578, of Portugal's national epic poet, **Luís de Camões**, after the Moroccan disaster of the loss of **King Sebastian** and his army to Muslim forces in North Africa. The Tenth of June has become the principal national independence day of Portugal, a time when Portuguese in Portugal and in overseas Portuguese communities from New Bedford, Massachusetts, to Macau, China, to Caracas, Venezuela, celebrate national independence and history. This is a day also when traditionally various honors and awards for the year are conveyed by the national leaders in ceremonies and when citizens in parades mark this historic day.

THEATER, PORTUGUESE. There are two types of theater in Portugal: classical or "serious" theater and light theater, or the Theater of Review, largely the *Revistas de Lisboa* (Lisbon Reviews). Modern theater, mostly but not exclusively centered in **Lisbon**, experienced an unfortunate impact from official censorship during the **Estado Novo** (1926–74). Following laws passed in 1927, the government decreed that, as a cultural activity, any theatrical presentations that were judged "offensive in law, in morality and in decent customs" were prohibited. One consequence that derived from the risk of prohibition was that directors and playwrights began to practice self-censorship. This discouraged liberal and experimental theatrical work, weakened commercial investment in theater, and made employment in much theater a risky business, with indifferent public support.

Despite these political obstacles and the usual risks and difficulties of producing live theater in competition first with emerging **cinema** and then with **television** (which began in any case only after 1957), some good theatrical work flourished. Two of the century's greatest repertory actresses, Amélia Rey-Colaço (1898–1990) and Maria Matos (1890–1962), put together talented acting companies and per-

formed well-received classical theater. Two periods witnessed a brief diminution of censorship: following World War II (1945–47) and during Prime Minister **Marcello Caetano's** government (1968–74). Although Portuguese playwrights also produced comedies and dramas, some of the best productions reached the stage under the authorship of foreign playwrights: Shakespeare, George Bernard Shaw, Arthur Miller, and others.

A major new phase of Portuguese serious theater began in the 1960s, with the staging of challenging plays by playwrights José Cardoso Pires, Luís Sttau Monteiro, and Bernardo Santareno. Since the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, more funds for experimental theater have become available, and government censorship ceased. As in so much of Western European theater, however, the general public tended to favor not plays with serious content but techno-hits that featured foreign imports, including musicals, or homegrown musicals on familiar themes. Nevertheless, after 1974, the theater scene was enlivened, not only in Lisbon, but also in **Oporto, Coimbra**, and other cities.

The Theater of Review, or light theater, was introduced to Portugal in the 19th century and was based largely on French models. Adapted to the Portuguese scene, the Lisbon reviews featured pageantry, costume, comic skits, **music** (including the ever popular *fado*), dance, and slapstick humor and satire. Despite censorship, its heyday occurred actually during the Estado Novo, before 1968. Of all the performing arts, the Lisbon reviews enjoyed the greatest freedom from official political censorship. Certain periods featured more limited censorship, as cited earlier (1945–47 and 1968–74). The main venue of the Theater of Review was located in central Lisbon's Parque Mayer, an amusement park that featured four review theaters: Maria Vitória, Variedades, Capitólio, and ABC.

Many actors and stage designers, as well as some musicians, served their apprenticeship in the Lisbon reviews before they moved into film and television. Noted *fado* singers, the *fadistas*, and composers plied their trade in Parque Mayer and built popular followings. The subjects of the reviews, often with provocative titles, varied greatly and followed contemporary social, economic, and even political fashion and trends, but audiences especially liked satire directed against convention and custom. If political satire was

not passed by the censor in the press or on television, sometimes the Lisbon reviews, by the use of indirection and allegory, could get by with subtle critiques of some personalities in politics and society. A humorous stereotyping of customs of “the people,” usually conceived of as Lisbon street people or naive “country bumpkins,” was also popular. To a much greater degree than in classical, serious theater, the Lisbon review audiences steadily supported this form of public presentation. But the zenith of this form of theater had been passed by the late 1960s as audiences dwindled, production expenses rose, and film and television offered competition.

The hopes that governance under Prime Minister Marcello Caetano would bring a new season of freedom of expression in the light theater or serious theater were dashed by 1970–71, as censorship again bore down. With revolution in the offing, change was in the air, and could be observed in a change of review show title. A Lisbon review show title on the eve of the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, was altered from: “To See, to Hear . . . and Be Quiet” to the suggestive, “To See, to Hear . . . and to Talk.” The review theater experienced several difficult years after 1980, and virtually ceased to exist in Parque Mayer. In the late 1990s, nevertheless, this traditional form of entertainment underwent a gradual revival. Audiences again began to troop to renovated theater space in the amusement park to enjoy once again new lively and humorous reviews, cast for a new century and applied to Portugal today. *See also* LITERATURE; VICENTE, GIL.

TOMÁS, AMÉRICO DE DEUS RODRIGUES (1894–1987). Admiral Tomás was the last president of the republic of the **Estado Novo** (1958–74). Although he was selected by Prime Minister **António de Oliveira Salazar** for his exceptional qualities of loyalty to the system’s principles and to the dictator, the last period of the regime, a time of crisis, tested those very characteristics. In the crisis of September 1968, when Salazar was suddenly incapacitated, Tomás selected Salazar’s successor, **Marcello Caetano**. Later, when Caetano faltered and wished to resign his besieged office, it was Tomás’ intransigence that worked to make Caetano go on.

A career naval officer who graduated from the Naval School in 1916, Tomás rose steadily through naval ranks to top positions, including minister of the navy. Salazar chose him to be the regime’s

presidential candidate in the controversial 1958 elections, because he considered Tomás to be the most reliable, honest, and hardworking of the regime's military officers of the day. Twice Tomás was reelected in the managed presidential elections of 1965 and 1972, as pressures on the regime mounted.

After the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, Tomás, along with Caetano, his now reluctant prime minister, was sent into exile on **Madeira Island** and later to **Brazil**. Despite demands from leftist forces for the arrest and prosecution of Tomás, the new Lisbon government never initiated a legal case against him. Tomás was allowed to return from his Brazilian exile in July 1978, to settle in Cascais, outside Lisbon. In 1980, he was granted a state pension, but, despite numerous requests, he was not restored to his rank and membership in the navy. He died peacefully at home at age 92.

TORDESILLAS, TREATY OF (1494). Following the voyage to the West Indies by Columbus in **Spain's** service, a treaty between Spain and Portugal, which in effect divided the known world between the two Iberian states, was signed. A line of demarcation was set 370 leagues west of the **Cape Verde Islands**, which gave Portugal claim to **Brazil**, yet to be discovered. Lands found by either country in the bounds of the other had to be surrendered. Portugal's lands were to the east of the line, Spain's to the west. A commission of representatives of the states' pilots, mariners, and astrologers would establish the line. This commission was assigned the task of sailing two caravels to the west within 10 months until they found land or had established the line. Bickering over the issue of how to determine the line of the Treaty of Tordesillas continued until at least 1777.

TORRES VEDRAS, BATTLE OF (1810). A hilly area near the village of Torres Vedras, north of **Lisbon**, is the site where Portuguese and English forces of the **Duke of Wellington** withstood repeated French attacks under Andre Masséna from 9 October to 14 November 1810. Blocking the way to Lisbon, Wellington's defensive preparations were successful, based as they were on successful British and Portuguese liaison and shared fighting spirit. After his failure before the Lines of Torres Vedras and British and Portuguese fortified works, Masséna hesitated and sent to Napoleon for instructions.

The French commander, however, was greatly weakened due to food shortages and to the fact that the supply lines with **Spain** were now cut. Therefore, before Napoleon could answer his messages, Masséna was forced to begin his withdrawal to Spain. Masséna withdrew from Portugal in April 1811 and, with the abandonment of a French garrison at Almeida on the frontier, France's occupation of Portugal was at an end. The remainder of the Peninsular Wars then moved to Spain.

TOURISM. Although certain places in Portugal have attracted travelers since the 18th century, mass tourism did not begin until the 1960s. After 1780, English romantics such as Robert Southie, Lord Byron, and other foreign writers put the town of **Sintra** on the map of romantic places to visit. In the 1920s and 1930s, the town of **Estoril**, about 32 kilometers (18 miles) west of **Lisbon**, along the coast, began to be developed as a high-class resort town. During the 1930s, Estoril attracted wealthy Spaniards escaping from the Spanish Civil War (1936–39) and, after World War II, displaced and dethroned ex-royalty from Europe. Tourism was encouraged in the late 1930s, when the **Estado Novo** began to restore **Portuguese castles** in connection with the Double Centenary Exposition of the Portuguese World in 1940, an event designed to attract visitors to Portugal. In the 1960s, the Estado Novo began to develop the infrastructure for a mass tourist industry. Hotels and golf courses were built, especially in the Algarve, and a national system of *pousadas* (government subsidized inns) was established in restored castles and other historic structures.

During the 1960s, the number of tourists visiting Portugal reached 6 million per year. Tourists stayed away from Portugal during the turbulent years immediately after the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, but returned during the 1980s, and the tourist industry has grown at a phenomenal rate ever since. The number of tourists rose from 7.3 million in 1981–82 to about 18.4 million in 1990. **Expo '98**, Portugal's worlds fair of 1998, attracted hundreds of thousands of additional visitors, mostly from Europe. *See also* COMMEMORATIONS, PORTUGUESE HISTORIC.

TRADE. Owing to the **Anglo-Portuguese Alliance**, England (**Great Britain** after 1707) was, until the 1920s, Portugal's main trading

partner. The **Methuen Treaty** (1703) stipulated that Portuguese wines and English woollens would be exempt from custom duties. The imperial nationalist economic ideas of the **Estado Novo** directed Portuguese trade toward its Africa colonies of **Angola**, **Mozambique**, and **Guinea-Bissau**. The historical importance of the British export market to Portuguese trade necessitated Portugal becoming a charter member of the European Free Trade Area (EFTA) in 1959.

When Britain joined the European Economic Community (EEC) in 1973, Portugal had to follow, with a trade agreement with the European Union (EU). Negotiations between Portugal and the EU produced an accord that stipulated mutual tariff reductions, until their disappearance in mid-1977 on industrial products, while EU member states were allowed to restrict some Portuguese textiles and paper and cork products. Tariffs were also reduced for Portuguese tinned tomatoes and fish, as well as for **port wine**. Since gaining full membership in the EU in 1986, Portugal's trade has shifted strongly toward continental EU member states. In the 1990s, EEC/EU member states purchased nearly 75 percent of Portugal's exports and supplied nearly 70 percent of its imports. Within the EEC/EU, **Britain**, **Germany**, **France**, and **Spain** are Portugal's a main trading partners. Portuguese trade with its former colonies fell sharply after the **Revolution of 25 April 1974**, as Portugal turned away from Africa and toward Europe.

In 2007, Portugal's major commodity exports have been textiles, clothing, footwear, machinery, transportation equipment, paper and cork products, wine, tomato paste, chemicals, and plastic products. Portugal's comparative advantage lies in its low hourly costs for skilled labor, which are about 20 percent lower than other EU member states. Manufactured goods account for about 75 percent of merchandise imports; food and beverages about 10 percent; and raw materials (mainly petroleum) about 15 percent.

TRANSPORTATION. Portugal's transportation system consists of 820 kilometers (492 miles) of navigable waterways, 3,630 kilometers (2,178 miles) of railroad, and 73,660 kilometers (44,196 miles) of roads, of which 12,660 (7,596 miles) are unpaved. Improving Portugal's roads and railroads were major priorities during the **Estado Novo**. In 1946, all of Portugal's private railroad companies

were amalgamated into one, the Companhia Portuguesa de Caminhos de Ferro, which was granted a monopoly for rail transport. In 1959, the electrified line from **Lisbon** to Cascais and the Lisbon metro (subway) opened. Steam engines were gradually replaced with electric and diesel locomotives. During the Estado Novo, the length of Portugal's road network increased threefold and were considered good by European standards in 1950. However, accelerated economic development and the increase in the number of vehicles during the 1960s and 1970s outstripped road capacity, and Portuguese roads became the most dangerous in western Europe.

Bridge building was also an Estado Novo priority, with bridges over the **Douro** at **Oporto** and the suspension bridge (the longest in Europe) at **Lisbon** being the most impressive examples. The Estado Novo also improved port facilities in Lisbon and Oporto, and built a new deep-water port at Sines. The Estado Novo also built airports at Lisbon (Portela), Oporto (Pedras Rubras), Faro in the Algarve, and Funchal on Madeira to encourage tourism. In 1946, a government-owned airline, Transportes Aéreos Portugueses (TAP), was created and began operating flights within Portugal and to the major cities of western Europe, several larger cities in the United States, South America, and the capital cities of Portugal's colonies in Africa.

After joining the **European Union (EU)**, Portugal began an ambitious program to modernize its transportation networks in 1986. During the 1990s, the nationalized railroad, airline, trucking, and bus companies were restructured and/or privatized. With the help of EU monies, Portugal's road network was upgraded and superhighways (*auto estradas*) completed from Lisbon to Oporto and Faro in the Algarve, and from Lisbon and Oporto into **Spain**. Portugal's railroad network was upgraded to handle high-speed trains (TGVs) between the country's major cities and to Madrid. To facilitate logistics during **Expo '98**, a new metro station (Oriente) was opened and a new bridge (Vasco da Gama Bridge) built across the Tagus. In the meantime, Lisbon's international airport at Portela, despite steady improvements, could no longer accommodate efficiently the increasing air traffic. An important part of the plan to modernize the Lisbon region's transportation system is the long-debated construction of an additional airport, across the Tagus River, with adjoining roads and underground metro, set to open between 2010 and 2012.

TWENTY-EIGHTH OF MAY. During the **Estado Novo** (1926–74), 28 May was an important national holiday celebrated by the regime as marking the day of the 1926 military coup led by General **Gomes da Costa**, which overthrew the first parliamentary republic. During that 48-year period, the regime employed this celebration as a means to impress the citizenry with its armed strength and support, show solidarity among regime stalwarts, and unify regime ranks. Traditionally, the regime organized a military parade in **Lisbon** on the major Avenida de Liberdade, from Praça Pombal to Praça Rossio. In regime propaganda, 28 May symbolized the beginning of the so-called “National Revolution” of the conservative, nationalist, corporatist authoritarian system led by Prime Minister **António de Oliveira Salazar** and later by Prime Minister **Marcello Caetano**, until it was overthrown in 1974. *See also* REVOLUTION OF 25 APRIL 1974; TWENTY-FIFTH OF APRIL.

– U –

ULTIMATUM, ENGLISH (1890). A painful and, for Portugal, embarrassing, diplomatic incident with **Great Britain** during the “Scramble for Africa.” On 11 January 1890, England presented the Lisbon government with an ultimatum stating that, unless Portugal withdrew her armed forces from what is today a section of Malawi in central east Africa, Britain would consider breaking the ancient **Anglo–Portuguese Alliance** and would dispatch naval units to **Mozambique** and possibly to Portugal itself. The center of the conflict was disputed claims over an area to the west of northern Mozambique, a region in which Britain claimed to have special interests. Portugal requested international arbitration of the dispute, but London refused and presented the ultimatum. At the time, Portugal had an armed force in the disputed sector and was claiming sovereignty.

The English Ultimatum led to the fall of the Lisbon government of the day, which gave in and withdrew Portugal’s forces, as well as to unprecedented public agitation over the question. The Anglo–Portuguese Alliance came under great strain, although it was mended and renewed with the 1899 **Treaty of Windsor**. The monarchy was badly damaged by the national humiliation, and the Republican Party

gained supporters. Portugal's current national anthem, *A Portuguesa*, was inspired by it.

UNIÃO NACIONAL. The officially sanctioned political movement of regime loyalists during the **Estado Novo**. Founded in 1930, the "National Union," whose name may have been modeled in part on the "Patriotic Union" of Spain's Primo de Rivera dictatorship (1923–30), was not a mass political party, but a movement whose purpose was to support the policies and aims of the Estado Novo. The strategy of the founders, in particular, Prime Minister **António de Oliveira Salazar**, was that an organization like the União Nacional would unite diverse groups in one movement, including warring monarchists and republicans, and would replace political parties. After 1935, when all political parties and other associations such as the Masons were banned by the government, the União Nacional was the only legal political "party." In all future elections during the Estado Novo, this organization sponsored all regime candidates, who were hand-picked by Salazar and close associates. Only beginning with the 1942 municipal elections, under severe restrictions, were opposition candidates allowed to run against the União Nacional slates. Membership in the União Nacional for a long period was compulsory for most government employees. *See also* SALAZARISM.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA (USA). Portugal and the United States established full and formal diplomatic relations in 1791, and the first commercial treaty between them was signed in 1840. The two very different countries have been linked by geography and by Portuguese immigration to the United States. Both share the status of being Atlantic powers. Significant Portuguese immigration to the eastern seaboard, especially to coastal New England, began in the first half of the 19th century, but the numbers of Lusitanian immigrants reached their peak only after 1910. Although there was relatively little **trade** between the two countries until after 1880, Portugal's diplomats briefly toyed with the notion of using the United States as a counterweight ally to her oldest ally, **Great Britain**, especially during the era of bitter territorial and trade disputes between Britain and Portugal over south-central Africa after 1850.

It was during the 20th century, however, that Luso–American diplomatic relations assumed a new importance, and again the Atlantic connection played a key role. On two occasions during world wars, in 1917–18 and 1944–45, the United States armed forces used the Azores Islands for air and naval bases. In 1951, Portugal and the United States signed the first major Azores base agreements, at first as part of America’s Cold War defense strategy needs. The Azores base question has assumed an essential role in the diplomatic relationship between the two countries.

The United States also sponsored Portugal’s entry in the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO). American trade and investment in Portugal increased significantly since the 1940s and, by 1980, the United States had become one of Portugal’s main trade partners. By the 1990s, this relationship experienced some changes, as Portugal’s membership in the **European Union (EU)** strengthened the trade positions of EU members such as Britain, Germany, **France**, and **Spain**. Luso–American cultural relations, however, including the increasing knowledge of English in Portugal, became closer. Among the factors responsible for this were the presence of a larger American community in Portugal, American investment, the Fulbright exchange program, and American-language schools, whose activity suggested that English taught in British-language schools in Portugal no longer held a clear monopoly. *See also* AZORES ISLANDS; EMIGRATION.

– V –

VIANNA DA MOTTA, JOSÉ (1868–1948). One of Portugal’s greatest musicians, pianists, and **music** scholars. Vianna da Motta (or Viana da Mota) was born in **São Tomé Island**, a Portuguese West African colony, and came to Portugal at a young age. Soon honored and patronized by Portuguese royalty for his musical genius, he first performed on the piano in public at age 10. This child prodigy was trained in **Lisbon** as well as in Germany. In 1918, he directed Lisbon’s Symphonic Orchestra, and the next year he was appointed director of Portugal’s National Conservatory, Lisbon, a post he held

until retirement in 1938. As one of the premier interpreters in his day of the compositions of Bach, Beethoven, Schubert, Chopin, and Liszt, Vianna da Motta was also a famous composer and scholar of music. Widely published as an authority on the great central European Romantic pianist-composers, he also composed music that was influenced by popular Portuguese folk melodies. One of his more celebrated nationalistic compositions was his *Canções Portuguesas* (Portuguese Songs), Opus 10. He was honored and decorated by Portugal and other countries, and helped train future generations of musicians.

VICENTE, GIL (ca. 1465–ca. 1537). Sixteenth-century Portuguese playwright, perhaps Portugal's greatest, who was also a talented goldsmith, musician, actor, and dramatist. Born in humble circumstances, Gil Vicente rose to become an important figure, recognized and celebrated in the royal court of his day. His first play or *auto* was performed in 1502, and his last piece was produced in 1536. Vicente's work was influenced not only by the religious plays of late medieval Portugal, but by work from contemporary humanism and the Renaissance.

There were at least four basic aspects of Vicentine plays: dramatization of rural folklore, social satire, imaginative analysis of nature, and religious themes. What was remarkable about Vicente, in addition to his great versatility (he was the goldsmith who produced the gold monstrance in the **Monastery of Jerónimos**) and brilliance, was that he was popular with both the people and the elite, and was a masterful dramatist in a country lacking extraordinary dramatic traditions. Some of his plays were censored by the **Inquisition** after his death, and it was only during the 19th-century romantic era that Portuguese writers sought a revival of his reputation. *See also* JERÓNIMOS, MONASTERY OF, THEATER.

VIEIRA, ÁLVARO SIZA (1933–). Architect of world renown, designer of many public buildings, including the Portuguese Pavilion at Lisbon's **Expo '98**, Portugal's end-of-the-century world's fair. Born in Matosinhos, near **Oporto**, from an early age Siza was fascinated with the art of drawing, a lifetime's vocation. Trained as an architect at the Faculty of Architecture, University of Oporto, Siza began to

win commissions for various public places, including opportunities to design parks, churches, swimming pools, and residences of various kinds. Following early work in sculpture and watercolor, he devoted his professional efforts solely to creating a new **architecture**, under the influence of Oporto instructors as well as foreign architects, including the work of the revolutionary Le Corbusier of **France**. Among his more emblematic, minimalist works is the Church of Marco de Canavezes. The recipient of the most sought-after architectural prizes from various countries, and the architect of Expo '98's impressive Portuguese Pavilion, Siza's greatest professional honor to date is the equivalent of a Nobel Prize in architecture, the coveted Pritzker Prize, from the Hyatt Foundation, in Chicago.

VIEIRA, FATHER ANTÓNIO DE (1608–1697). A talented and influential individual, and one of the greatest speakers and prose writers of early modern Portugal, Vieira was a Jesuit priest, writer, missionary, advisor to kings, and diplomatic negotiator. At age eight, he went to **Brazil** and was educated there in a Jesuit College. Like **Francisco Manuel de Melo**, his Jesuit-educated contemporary, Vieira participated in the great crises and conflicts of his day, including the ongoing war between the **Inquisition** and Portugal's **New Christians**, the loss and partial recovery of parts of Portugal's still extensive overseas **empire**, the rise to the Portuguese throne of the Braganza dynasty, the restoration of Portugal's independence from **Spain** in 1640, and the subsequent struggle to retain that independence under adverse circumstances.

One of Father Vieira's major efforts was his campaign to have the Portuguese Inquisition relax its policy of confiscation of New Christian capital and property and to convince converted Jews in Portugal and Portuguese Jews in exile to provide capital in Portugal's efforts to reinforce its defenses against many threatened Spanish invasions during 1640–68, when Spain finally officially recognized Portugal's independence in a treaty. Such monies were also employed in defending Portugal's overseas empire and helping to drive out enemies who had occupied portions of Portugal's dominions abroad.

Father Vieira spent a large part of his career in Brazil as a Jesuit missionary and administrator and was famous for defending the freedom and rights of Amerindians against settlers. A great sermonizer

who possessed a strong messianic belief and grounding in the prophecies of the Old Testament, Vieira became an influential advisor to the Portuguese kings, as well as a diplomat assigned important tasks abroad. Vieira preached sermons in which he proclaimed that the awaited messiah who would restore Portugal to world power status in the future was not **King Sebastião I**, who died in 1578 in battle against the Muslims in Morocco, but **King João IV**, an assertion that lost some credibility following the king's death in 1656.

Among Father Vieira's prolific writings, his most noted are his collected sermons in 15 volumes, *Letras*, his *História do Futuro*, and his famous defense against accusations when on trial before the Portuguese Inquisition, the *Defesa perante o Tribunal do Santo Ofício*.

VIRIATUS. Ancient hero who led Lusitanian resistance against Roman rule from about 154 to 135 BCE. In Roman-ruled Hispania or Iberia, **Lusitania** was one of the westernmost provinces. Viriatus was a hunter and shepherd who lived in the mountainous areas of Lusitania between the **Tagus** and **Douro Rivers**. A ferocious fighter and fearless leader, Viriatus successfully held off Roman occupation by repeatedly defeating Roman forces for years. Betrayed by friends who sold out to the Romans, Viriatus was murdered while he slept. In Portuguese tradition, Viriatus became a mythic figure, a symbol of Portuguese resistance to foreign threats. Under the **Estado Novo**, his name and example were invoked to promote loyalty to the government and national independence. "The Legion of Viriatus" was the name the regime gave to its corps of so-called volunteer soldiers who fought for Generalíssimo **Francisco Franco**'s Nationalists in the Spanish Civil War (1936–39).

– W –

WAR OF RESTORATION (1641–68). After the revolution of 1 December 1640, when **King João IV** of Braganza overthrew Spanish rule and declared Portugal independent, Portugal and Spain fought a war that decided the fate of Portugal. The War of Restoration was fought between Spanish and Portuguese armies, assisted by foreign mercenaries and by Portugal's oldest ally, **England**. Portugal's

1640 Revolution and the war against Spain to maintain its reclaimed independence were supported as well by France during the 1610–59 period. After 1659, France gave no more assistance to Lisbon and cut off diplomatic relations. Portugal's great friend during this war, which was fought largely near the Luso–Spanish frontier or in Portugal in the flat Alentejo province, with no natural barriers to Spanish invasion, was thus England. This crucial alliance was reestablished in the Anglo–Portuguese treaties of 1642, 1654, and 1661. Various truce and peace treaties, too, were signed with Holland, which was willing to side with Portugal, or at least be neutral, against Spain. Catalonia's prolonged rebellion against Spanish (Castilian) rule during Portugal's struggle played an important role in weakening Spain's effort to recover Portugal. At Ameixial, on 8 June 1663, a decisive battle in the war occurred, resulting in the defeat of the Spanish army and its withdrawal from Portugal. The Luso–Spanish Peace Treaty (1668) concluded the War. *See also* PEACE TREATY OF 1668.

“WAR OF THE BROTHERS” (1831–34). Civil war in Portugal fought between the forces of absolutist monarchy and constitutionalist monarchy. Each side was headed and represented by one of two royal brothers, **King Miguel I**, who usurped the throne of young **Maria II**, and **King Pedro IV**, formerly emperor Pedro I of **Brazil**, who abdicated to restore his daughter Maria to the throne her uncle Miguel had purloined. In the end, the forces of Pedro triumphed, those of Miguel lost, and Miguel went into exile in Austria. *See also* CARLOTA JOAQUINA, QUEEN.

WELLINGTON, DUKE OF (ARTHUR WELLESLEY) (1769–1852). The British general who helped liberate Portugal from French occupation under Napoleon's armies (1808–11), turned back three French invasions, and enabled Portugal to reassert its independence as a nation-state. Born in Ireland, Arthur Wellesley became the most talented and honored soldier of several generations during the first half of the 19th century. He attended **Great Britain's** famed public school, Eton, and entered the British army and first served in the Low Countries in the 1790s and then in campaigns in British India and the 1807 Copenhagen expedition.

When the British government decided to send an expedition to oppose Napoleon's occupation of Portugal, Wellesley was appointed commander of the force, which landed at the mouth of the **Mondego River** on 1 August 1808. For the next three years, the famous lieutenant general led Anglo-Portuguese forces against the three French invasions and, by 1811, had defeated the French. Wellington's forces proceeded across the frontier into **Spain** where, for the next two years, the allied forces fought victoriously against the French. Wellington received a number of honors, titles, and decorations from Portugal for his heroic efforts; after the final expulsion of French forces under Masséna, in 1810, Portugal's government granted Wellington—among other honors—the title of viscount of Vimieiro and the medal the Grand Cross of the Tower and the Sword (*Torre e Espada*). *See also* BUÇACO, BATTLE OF; FRANCE; TORRES VEDRAS, BATTLE OF.

WINDSOR, TREATIES OF. Various Anglo-Portuguese treaties bear the name of Windsor. Among others were the treaties of 1386 and 1899. Signed at Windsor, England, on 9 May 1386, the former treaty confirmed the Alliance Treaty between England and Portugal of 1383 and committed both signatories to defend the other against all enemies and to participate in a “perpetual” league, friendship, and confederation. The 1899 Treaty of Windsor (a misnomer since it was signed in London) followed the outbreak of the Anglo-Boer War in South Africa. Portugal pledged to allow the movement of British forces through its east-African colony of **Mozambique** to South Africa and to prevent arms from reaching the Boers through the same colony. At the same time, there was a reaffirmation of the ancient **Anglo-Portuguese Alliance**, as spelled out in articles of the 1642 and 1661 Anglo-Portuguese treaties, thus signifying a mutual defense treaty for both countries. Especially vital for Portugal, concerned about secret negotiations between **Great Britain** and Germany over the possible breakup of Portugal's African empire due to Portugal's bankruptcy, was the 1899 treaty's reconfirmed pledge on Britain's part that it would defend Portugal as well as her overseas empire against all enemies “future and present.”

WINE. The Portuguese winemaking tradition goes back to Roman times, when **Lusitania** began exporting wine to the city of Rome.

The modern wine-exporting industry began with the **Methuen Treaty** (1703), which stipulated that henceforth Portuguese wines would be favored as exports to **Great Britain** in the same way that British woolens imported to Portugal would have advantages. Portugal has the oldest appellation system in the world, which was established by the first minister of **King José I**, the **Marquis of Pombal** in 1758. In that year, Pombal ordered the demarcation of the wine producing region along the **Douro River** valley, the *Região Demarcada do Douro*, in order to assure the production of high quality **port wines**. During the reign of King Carlos I (1889–1908), the *Vinho Verde*, *Dão*, *Colares*, *Carcavelos*, *Setúbal*, and *Madeira* regions were demarcated, each of which has its own *Comissão Vitivinícola* to supervise the preparation and cultivation of the vineyards and to assure the quality of the wines produced.

Portuguese wines are labeled *Denominação de Origem Controlada* (DOC), which indicates that the wine is of superior quality from a specific vineyard; *Indicação de Pronveniência Regulamentada* (IPR), which indicates that wines so labeled were produced under some regulations in a certain demarcated region but are not DOC wines; *Vinho Regional*, which indicates that such wine was produced without regulation within a specific demarcated region; and *Vinho de Mesa*, which indicates only that the wine was made in Portugal by a certain producer.

Portugal produces some of the world's top wines, the best of which are port, madeira, *dão*, moscatel, and vinho verde. Portugal's most widely known wines are its lightly sparkling rosés, which were successfully mass-marketed in the United States and Europe by Mateus and Lancers beginning in the 1960s. These wines accounted for 40 percent of Portugal's total table wine exports in the 1980s. Increasingly, Portuguese wines are winning international recognition, which has increased their popularity among wine lovers the world over. *See also* AGRICULTURE.

WOLFRAM. Deposits of the mineral wolfram or tungsten ore are found in central and northern Portugal. Essential for the war industry, for hardening steel in aircraft, tanks, small arms, artillery, and ammunition, wolfram played an unexpectedly important part in Portugal's **economy** and society during **World War II** when the belligerents sought large supplies of it. Nazi Germany had its principal supplies

of wolfram in Asia, until its invasion of the Soviet Union in June 1941 cut off these supply routes. Thereafter, Germany sought to acquire wolfram in Spain and Portugal, which between them possessed the largest wolfram deposits in Europe.

Wolfram had been mined in Portugal since 1900, in the mountainous Beira Alta province. As of 3 September 1939, when Portugal declared its neutrality, most of the wolfram mines were owned by British and American firms, but the post-1941 wartime demand for it had an impact on Portugal's economy, finance, and neutrality. Although the Allies could obtain most of their tungsten ore in North America, Germany came to depend on exports from wolfram mines in Portugal and Spain. To obtain more wolfram supplies, Germany arranged to purchase wolfram mines, as well as to purchase and import wolfram from mines owned by Portuguese investors. To thwart the German wolfram program, the British and Americans launched an extensive wolfram preemption program that cost more than \$US1 billion during the period from 1942 to 1944.

The booming wolfram industry had a significant, if brief, impact on the poor, rural regions where the mines were located, and there was increased income and employment. Wolfram revenues for Portugal also affected its position as a debtor to ally Britain and, by the end of the war, Britain owed Portugal more than 90 million pounds for war-related products and services. After the war, this windfall enabled Portugal to upgrade its merchant marine fleet. Complex diplomatic negotiations between Portugal and both sets of belligerents ensued, and "the wolfram question" represented a foreign policy nightmare for Prime Minister **António de Oliveira Salazar**. On 6 June 1944, Salazar came to a controversial decision about wolfram. In what was hoped to be perceived as an even-handed new policy, to satisfy both the Allies and the Axis, Portugal decreed a halt to the wolfram industry for the remainder of the war. Thus, within a few weeks, the wolfram mines were closed, and all mining, sales, and export of the mineral ceased. It was not until the 1950s that wolfram mines reopened. However, the industry gradually declined and, at present, wolfram mining and production is relatively small. *See also* FOREIGN POLICY.

WOMEN. A paradox exists regarding the equality of women in Portuguese society. Although the **Constitution** of 1976 gave women

full equality in rights, and the right to vote had already been granted under Prime Minister **Marcello Caetano** during the **Estado Novo**, a gap existed between legal reality and social practice. In many respects, the last 30 years have brought important social and political changes with benefits for women. In addition to the franchise, women won—at least on paper—equal property-owning rights and the right of freedom of movement (getting passports, etc.). The workforce and the electorate afforded a much larger role for women, as more than 45 percent of the labor force and more than 50 percent of the electorate are women. More women than ever attend universities, and they play a larger role in university student bodies. Also, more than ever before, they are represented in the learned professions. In politics, a woman served briefly as prime minister in 1979–80: **Maria de Lourdes Pintasilgo**. Women are members of government cabinets (“councils”); women are in the judicial system, and, in the late 1980s, some 25 women were elected members of parliament (Assembly of the Republic). Moreover, women are now members of the police and armed forces, and some women, like Olympic marathoner Rosa Mota, are top athletes.

Portuguese feminists participated in a long struggle for equality in all phases of life. An early such feminist was Ana de Castro Osório (1872–1935), a writer and teacher. Another leader in Portugal’s women’s movement, in a later generation, was Maria Lamas (1893–1983). Despite the fact that Portugal lacked a strong women’s movement, women did resist the *Estado Novo*, and some progress occurred during the final phase of the authoritarian regime. In the general elections of 1969, women were granted equal voting rights for the first time. Nevertheless, Portuguese women still lacked many of the rights of their counterparts in other Western European countries. A later generation of feminists, symbolized by the three women writers known as “The Three Marias,” made symbolic protests through their sensational writings. In 1972, a book by the three women writers, all born in the late 1930s or early 1940s (Maria Isabel Barreno, Maria Teresa Horta, and Maria Velho da Costa), was seized by the government and the authors were arrested and put on trial for their writings and outspoken views, which included the assertion of women’s rights to sexual and reproductive freedom.

The **Revolution of 25 April 1974** overthrew the *Estado Novo* and established in law, if not fully in actual practice in society, a

full range of rights for women. The paradox in Portuguese society was that, despite the fact that sexual equality was legislated “from the top down,” a gap remained between what the law said and what happened in society. Despite the relatively new laws and although women now played a larger role in the workforce, women continued to suffer discrimination and exclusion. Strong pressures remained for conformity to old ways, a hardy *machismo* culture continued, and there was elitism as well as inequality among classes. As the 21st century commenced, women played a more prominent role in society, government, and culture, but the practice of full equality was lacking, and the institutions of the polity, including the judicial and law enforcement systems, did not always carry out the law.

WORLD WAR II (1939–1945). In the European phase of the war, neutral Portugal contributed more to the Allied victory than historians have acknowledged. Portugal experienced severe pressures to compromise her neutrality from both the Axis and Allied powers and, on several occasions, there were efforts to force Portugal to enter the war as a belligerent. Several factors lent Portugal importance as a neutral. This was especially the case during the period from the fall of **France** in June 1940 to the Allied invasion and reconquest of France from June to August 1944.

In four respects, Portugal became briefly a modest strategic asset for the Allies and a war materiel supplier for both sides: the country’s location in the southwesternmost corner of the largely German-occupied European continent; being a transport and communication terminus, observation post for spies, and crossroads between Europe, the Atlantic, the Americas, and Africa; Portugal’s strategically located Atlantic islands, the **Azores**, **Madeira**, and **Cape Verde** archipelagos; and having important mines of **wolfram** or tungsten ore, crucial for the war industry for hardening steel.

To maintain strict neutrality, the **Estado Novo** regime dominated by **António de Oliveira Salazar** performed a delicate balancing act. **Lisbon** attempted to please and cater to the interests of both sets of belligerents, but only to the extent that the concessions granted would not threaten Portugal’s security or its status as a neutral. On at least two occasions, Portugal’s neutrality status was threatened. First, Germany briefly considered invading Portugal and **Spain** during 1940–

41. A second occasion came in 1943 and 1944 as **Great Britain**, backed by the **United States**, pressured Portugal to grant war-related concessions that threatened Portugal's status of strict neutrality and would possibly bring Portugal into the war on the Allied side. Nazi Germany's plan ("Operation Felix") to invade the Iberian Peninsula from late 1940 into 1941 was never executed, but the Allies occupied and used several air and naval bases in Portugal's Azores Islands.

The second major crisis for Portugal's neutrality came with increasing Allied pressures for concessions from the summer of 1943 to the summer of 1944. Led by Britain, Portugal's oldest ally, Portugal was pressured to grant access to air and naval bases in the Azores Islands. Such bases were necessary to assist the Allies in winning the Battle of the Atlantic, the naval war in which German U-boats continued to destroy Allied shipping. In October 1943, following tedious negotiations, British forces began to operate such bases and, in November 1944, American forces were allowed to enter the islands. Germany protested and made threats, but there was no German attack.

Tensions rose again in the spring of 1944, when the Allies demanded that Lisbon cease exporting wolfram to Germany. Salazar grew agitated, considered resigning, and argued that Portugal had made a solemn promise to Germany that wolfram exports would be continued and that Portugal could not break its pledge. The Portuguese ambassador in London concluded that the shipping of wolfram to Germany was "the price of neutrality." Fearing that a still-dangerous Germany could still attack Portugal, Salazar ordered the banning of the mining, sale, and exports of wolfram not only to Germany but to the Allies as of 6 June 1944.

Portugal did not enter the war as a belligerent, and its forces did not engage in combat, but some Portuguese experienced directly or indirectly the impact of fighting. Off Portugal or near her Atlantic islands, Portuguese naval personnel or commercial fishermen rescued at sea hundreds of victims of U-boat sinkings of Allied shipping in the Atlantic. German U-boats sank four or five Portuguese merchant vessels as well and, in 1944, a U-boat stopped, boarded, searched, and forced the evacuation of a Portuguese ocean liner, the *Serpa Pinto*, in mid-Atlantic. Filled with refugees, the liner was not sunk but several passengers lost their lives and the U-boat kidnapped two of the ship's passengers, Portuguese Americans of military age, and

interned them in a prison camp. As for involvement in a theater of war, hundreds of inhabitants were killed and wounded in remote **East Timor**, a Portuguese colony near Indonesia, which was invaded, annexed, and ruled by Japanese forces between February 1942 and August 1945. In other incidents, scores of Allied military planes, out of fuel or damaged in air combat, crashed or were forced to land in neutral Portugal. Air personnel who did not survive such crashes were buried in Portuguese cemeteries or in the English Cemetery, Lisbon.

Portugal's peripheral involvement in largely nonbelligerent aspects of the war accelerated social, economic, and political change in Portugal's urban society. It strengthened political opposition to the dictatorship among intellectual and working classes, and it obliged the regime to bolster political repression. The general economic and financial status of Portugal, too, underwent improvements since creditor Britain, in order to purchase wolfram, foods, and other materials needed during the war, became indebted to Portugal. When Britain repaid this debt after the war, Portugal was able to restore and expand its merchant fleet. Unlike most of Europe, ravaged by the worst war in human history, Portugal did not suffer heavy losses of human life, infrastructure, and property. Unlike even her neighbor Spain, badly shaken by its terrible Civil War (1936–39), Portugal's immediate postwar condition was more favorable, especially in urban areas, although deep-seated poverty remained.

Portugal experienced other effects, especially during 1939–42, as there was an influx of about a million war refugees, an infestation of foreign spies and other secret agents from 60 secret intelligence services, and the residence of scores of international journalists who came to report the war from Lisbon. There was also the growth of war-related mining (especially wolfram and tin). Portugal's media eagerly reported the war and, by and large, despite government censorship, the Portuguese print media favored the Allied cause. Portugal's standard of living underwent some improvement, although price increases were unpopular.

The silent invasion of several thousand foreign spies, in addition to the hiring of many Portuguese as informants and spies, had fascinating outcomes. "Spyland" Portugal, especially when Portugal was a key point for communicating with occupied Europe (1940–44),

witnessed some unusual events, and spying for foreigners at least briefly became a national industry. Until mid-1944, when Allied forces invaded France, Portugal was the only secure entry point from across the Atlantic to Europe or to the British Isles, as well as the escape hatch for refugees, spies, defectors, and others fleeing occupied Europe or Vichy-controlled Morocco, Tunisia, and Algeria. Through Portugal by car, ship, train, or scheduled civil airliner one could travel to and from **Spain** or to Britain, or one could leave through Portugal, the westernmost continental country of Europe, to seek refuge across the Atlantic in the Americas.

The wartime Portuguese scene was a colorful *mélange* of illegal activities, including espionage, the black market, war propaganda, gambling, speculation, currency counterfeiting, diamond and wolfram smuggling, prostitution, and the drug and arms trade, and they were conducted by an unusual cast of characters. These included refugees, some of whom were spies, smugglers, diplomats, and business people, many from foreign countries seeking things they could find only in Portugal: information, affordable food, shelter, and security. German agents who contacted Allied sailors in the port of Lisbon sought to corrupt and neutralize these men and, if possible, recruit them as spies, and British intelligence countered this effort. Britain's MI-6 established a new kind of "safe house" to protect such Allied crews from German espionage and venereal disease infection, an approved and controlled house of prostitution in Lisbon's *bairro alto* district.

Foreign observers and writers were impressed with the exotic, spy-ridden scene in Lisbon, as well as in **Estoril** on the Sun Coast (Costa do Sol), west of Lisbon harbor. What they observed appeared in noted autobiographical works and novels, some written during and some after the war. Among notable writers and journalists who visited or resided in wartime Portugal were Hungarian writer and former communist Arthur Koestler, on the run from the Nazi's Gestapo; American radio broadcaster-journalist Eric Sevareid; novelist and Hollywood script-writer Frederick Prokosch; American diplomat George Kennan; Rumanian cultural attaché and later scholar of mythology Mircea Eliade; and British naval intelligence officer and novelist-to-be Ian Fleming. Other notable visiting British intelligence officers included novelist Graham Greene; secret Soviet agent in MI-6 and

future defector to the Soviet Union Harold “Kim” Philby; and writer Malcolm Muggeridge. French letters were represented by French writer and airman, Antoine Saint-Exupéry and French playwright, Jean Giroudoux. Finally, Aquilino Ribeiro, one of Portugal’s premier contemporary novelists, wrote about wartime Portugal, including one sensational novel, *Volframio*, which portrayed the profound impact of the exploitation of the mineral wolfram on Portugal’s poor, still backward society.

In Estoril, Portugal, the idea for the world’s most celebrated fictitious spy, James Bond, was probably first conceived by Ian Fleming. Fleming visited Portugal several times after 1939 on Naval Intelligence missions, and later he dreamed up the James Bond character and stories. Background for the early novels in the James Bond series was based in part on people and places Fleming observed in Portugal. A key location in Fleming’s first James Bond novel, *Casino Royale* (1953) is the gambling Casino of Estoril. In addition, one aspect of the main plot, the notion that a spy could invent “secret” intelligence for personal profit, was observed as well by the British novelist and former MI-6 officer, while engaged in operations in wartime Portugal. Greene later used this information in his 1958 spy novel, *Our Man in Havana*, as he observed enemy agents who fabricated “secrets” for money.

Thus, Portugal’s World War II experiences introduced the country and her people to a host of new peoples, ideas, products, and influences that altered attitudes and quickened the pace of change in this quiet, largely tradition-bound, isolated country. The 1943–45 connections established during the Allied use of air and naval bases in Portugal’s Azores Islands were a prelude to Portugal’s postwar membership in the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO).

– X –

XAVIER, SAINT FRANCIS (1506–1551). Jesuit missionary and preacher in Asia, known as the “Apostle of the Indies” and the “Apostle of Japan,” one of the most prominent and admired saints in the **Catholic** tradition. Born a Basque in Navarre, Spain, Xavier studied at the University of Paris and became one of the first Jesuits following his friendship and association with St. Ignatius Loyola.

He became a Jesuit in Italy and, in 1540, was named by the pope Apostolic Nuncio to the East. After an arduous 13-month journey, he reached Goa, **Portuguese India**, which became the base for his personal preaching and conversion crusade in Asia. He spread the Gospel and converted thousands in India, Malaysia, Malacca, and Japan during a full decade of tireless effort. Prematurely, he died exhausted in China on the eve of an effort to preach in that kingdom. He was buried in Goa, India, in 1551; his body remained in an incorrupt state for a long period and his grave became an important Catholic shrine and center of devotion. In 1622, he was canonized by Pope Gregory XV, and Pope Pius XI declared him patron saint of all foreign missions.

– Z –

ZÉ POVINHO. The Portuguese “everyman” or “common person,” Zé Povinho (literally in Portuguese, “Joe Little People,” Zé being a common abbreviation for “José” or “Joe”) originated as a cartoon character created in 1875 by the artist Rafael Bordalo Pinheiro. Zé Povinho is a variation of “Zé-dos-anzois” (“Joe of the Fish-Hooks”), representing the ordinary Portuguese fisherman. The character was representative of the rural masses, the common people, and was intended to be in sharp contrast to the slick, sophisticated, spoiled urban Portuguese of **Lisbon**.

Pinheiro’s cartoon character’s traits included peasant simplicity, candor, long-suffering patience, and credulity. As Pinheiro drew Zé Povinho, he was a short, bearded, swarthy figure, his heavy features wreathed in smiles; he was dressed in a white open shirt, dark trousers, and a hat. While the name, idea, and appearance of this cartoon character were meant to depict the majority of Portuguese of Pinheiro’s day—largely rural, peasant, illiterate masses—more than a century later, Zé Povinho still appears regularly in the print media and books, both in Portugal and in Portuguese-language newspapers among overseas Portuguese communities. Joe Little People’s appearance changes little, and in some Portuguese-language periodicals in the United States and Canada, his critical function in political discussions remains, namely to indicate the weaknesses of the government of the day.

Appendix A

Monarchs of Portugal (1140–1910)

BURGUNDIAN DYNASTY

Afonso Henriques (Afonso I) (1140–1185)
Sancho I (1185–1211)
Afonso II (1211–1223)
Sancho II (1223–1246)
Afonso III (1246–1279)
Dinis (1279–1325)
Afonso IV (1325–1357)
Pedro I (1357–1367)
Fernando I (1367–1383)

AVIS DYNASTY

João I (1385–1433)
Duarte I (1433–1438)
Afonso V (1438–1481)
João II (1481–1495)
Manuel I (1495–1521)
João III (1521–1557)
Sebastião I (1557–1578)
Henrique (cardinal-king) (1578–1580)

PHILLIPINE (SPANISH) DYNASTY

Phillip [Filipe] I (Phillip II of Spain) (1580–1598)
Phillip II (Phillip III of Spain) (1598–1621)
Phillip III (Phillip IV of Spain) (1621–1640)

BRAGANZA DYNASTY

João IV (1640–1656)

Afonso VI (1656–1668)

Pedro II (prince-regent, 1668–83; king, 1683–1706)

João V (1707–1750)

José I (1750–1777)

Maria I (1777–1799)

João VI (prince-regent, 1799–1816; king, 1816–1826)

Pedro IV (1826–1828)

Miguel I (1828–1834; regent, then self-proclaimed king)

Maria II (1834–1853)

Pedro V (1853–1861)

Luís I (1861–1889)

Carlos I (1889–1908)

Manuel II (1908–1910)

Appendix B

Presidents of the Republic (1910–present)

FIRST REPUBLIC (1910–1926)

Teófilo Braga (1910–1911)
Manuel de Arriaga (1911–1915)
Teófilo Braga (1915)
Bernardino Machado (1915–1917)
Sidónio Pais (1917–1918)
João do Canto e Castro (1918–1919)
António José de Almeida (1919–1923)
Manuel Teixeira Gomes (1923–1925)
Bernardino Machado (1925–1926)

ESTADO NOVO (SECOND REPUBLIC, 1926–1974)

Óscar Carmona (1926–1951)
Higino Craveiro Lopes (1951–1958)
Américo Tomás (1958–1974)

THIRD REPUBLIC (1974–PRESENT)

António de Spínola (May–September 1974)
Francisco de Costa Gomes (September 1974–October 1976)
Ramalho Eanes (1976–1981; 1981–1986)
Mário Soares (1986–1991; 1991–1996)
Jorge Sampaio (1996–2001; 2001–2006)
Aníbal Cavaco Silva (2006–)

Appendix C

Prime Ministers since 1926

ESTADO NOVO (SECOND REPUBLIC, 1926–1974)

José Mendes Cabeçadas (May–June 1926)
Manuel Gomes da Costa (June–July 1926)
António Óscar de Fragoso Carmona (July 1926–January 1928)
Artur Ivens Ferraz (January 1928–April 1928)
José Vicente de Freitas (April 1928–Nov. 1928)
José Vicente de Freitas (November 1928–July 1929)
Artur Ivens Ferraz (July 1929–January 1930)
Domingos da Costa Oliveira (January 1930–July 1932)
António de Oliveira Salazar (July 1932–September 1968)
Marcello Caetano (September 1968–April 1974)

THIRD REPUBLIC (1974–PRESENT)

Provisional Governments (1974–1976)

1. Adelino de Palma Carlos (May–July 1974)
2. Vasco Gonçalves (July 1974–September 1974)
3. Vasco Gonçalves (September 1974–March 1975)
4. Vasco Gonçalves (11 March –8 August 1975)
5. Vasco Gonçalves (8 August–19 September 1975)
6. Azevedo Pinheiro (19 September 1975–July 1976)

Constitutional Governments (1976–present)

1. Mário Soares (July 1976–January 1978)
2. Mário Soares (January 1978–August 1978)

3. Alfredo Nobre de Costa (August–November 1978)
4. Carlos Mota Pinto (November 1978–July 1979)
5. Maria de Lourdes Pintasilgo (July 1979–January 1980)
6. Francisco Sá Carneiro (January 1980–December 1980) (Sá Carneiro died in air crash 1 December 1980)
7. Francisco Pinto Balsemão (January 1981–September 1981)
8. Francisco Pinto Balsemão (September 1981–June 1983)
9. Mário Soares (June 1983–October 1985)
10. Aníbal Cavaco Silva (October 1985–July 1987)
11. Aníbal Cavaco Silva (July 1987–July 1991)
12. Aníbal Cavaco Silva (July 1991–October 1995)
13. António Guterres (October 1995–October 1999)
14. António Guterres (October 1999–March 2002)
15. José Durão Barroso (March 2002–July 2004)
16. Pedro Santana Lopes (July 2004–February 2005)
17. José Sócrates (February 2005–)

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INTRODUCTION

For a small country perched on the edge of western Europe but with an early history that began more than 2,000 years ago, there is a vast bibliography extant in many languages. Since general reference works with bibliography on Portugal are few, both principal and minor works are included. In the first edition, works in English, and a variety of Portuguese language works that are counted as significant if not always classic, were included. In the second and third editions, more works in Portuguese are added.

It is appropriate that most of the works cited in some sections of the bibliography are in English, but this pattern should be put in historical perspective. Since the late 1950s, the larger proportion of foreign-language works on Portugal and the Portuguese have been in English. But this was not the case before World War II. As a whole, there were more studies in French, with a smaller number in German, Italian, and Spanish, than in English. Most of the materials published today on all aspects of this topic continue to be in Portuguese, but English-language works have come to outnumber the other non-Portuguese language studies. In addition to books useful to a variety of students, a selection of classic works of use to the

visitor, tourist, and foreign resident of Portugal, as well as to those interested in Portuguese communities overseas, have been included.

Readers will note that publishers' names are omitted from some Portuguese citations as well as from a number of French works. There are several reasons for this. First, in many of the older sources, publishers no longer exist and are difficult to trace. Second, the names of the publishers have been changed in some cases and are also difficult to trace. Third, in many older books and periodicals, printers' names but not publishers were cited, and identifying the publishers is virtually impossible.

Some recommended classic titles for beginners are in historical studies: José Hermano Saraiva, *Portugal: A Companion History* (1997); A. H. de Oliveira Marques, *History of Portugal* (1976 ed.), general country studies in two different historical eras: Sarah Bradford, *Portugal* (1973) and Marion Kaplan, *The Portuguese: The Land and Its People* (2002 and later editions); political histories, António de Figueiredo, *Portugal: Fifty Years of Dictatorship* (1975) and Douglas L. Wheeler, *Republican Portugal: A Political History (1910–1926)* (1978; 1998). On Portugal's Revolution of 25 April 1974 and contemporary history and politics: Kenneth Maxwell, *The Making of Portuguese Democracy* (1995); Phil Mailer, *The Impossible Revolution* (1977); Richard A. H. Robinson, *Contemporary Portugal: A History* (1979); Lawrence S. Graham and Douglas L. Wheeler (eds.), *In Search of Modern Portugal: The Revolution and Its Consequences* (1983); Lawrence S. Graham and Harry M. Makler (eds.), *Contemporary Portugal: The Revolution and its Antecedents* (1979). On contemporary Portuguese society, see Antonio Costa Pinto (ed.), *Contemporary Portugal: Politics, Society, Culture* (2003).

Enduring works on the history of Portugal's overseas empire include: C. R. Boxer, *The Portuguese Seaborne Empire, 1415–1825* (1969 and later editions); and Bailey W. Diffie and George Winus, *The Foundations of the Portuguese Empire, 1415–1580* (1977); on Portugal and the Age of Discoveries: Charles Ley (ed.), *Portuguese Voyages 1498–1663* (2003). For a new portrait of the country's most celebrated figure of the Age of Discoveries, see Peter Russell, *Prince Henry 'The Navigator': A Life* (2000). A still useful geographical study about a popular tourist region is Dan Stanislawski's *Portugal's Other Kingdom: The Algarve* (1963). A fine introduction to a region of rural southern Portugal is José Cutileiro's *A Portuguese Rural Society* (1971).

Early travel account classics are Almeida Garrett, *Travels in My Homeland* (1987) and William Beckford, *Recollections of an Excursion to the Monasteries of Alcobaca and Batalha* (1969 and later editions). On travel and living in Portugal, see Susan Lowndes Marques and Ann Bridge, *The Selective Traveller in Portugal* (1968 and later editions); David Wright and Patrick Swift, *Lisbon: A Portrait and Guide* (1968 and later editions); Sam Ballard and Jane Ballard, *Pousadas of Portugal* (1986); Richard Hewitt, *A Cottage in Portugal* (1996);

Ian Robertson, *Portugal: The Blue Guide* (1988 and later editions); and Anne de Stoop, *Living in Portugal* (1995). Fine reads on some colorful, foreign travellers in Portugal are found in Rose Macauley, *They Went to Portugal* (1946 and later editions) and *They Went to Portugal Too* (1990). An attractive blend of historical musing and current Portugal is found in Paul Hyland's, *Backing Out of the Big World: Voyage to Portugal* (1996); Datus Proper's *The Last Old Place: A Search through Portugal* (1992); and Portugal's 1998 Nobel Prize winner in Literature, José Sarmago, writes in *Journey through Portugal* (2001).

For aspects of Portuguese literature in translation, see Aubrey F. G. Bell, *The Oxford Book of Portuguese Verse* (1952 edition by B. Vidigal); José Maria Eça de Queirós, *The Maias* (2007 and earlier editions); and José Sarmago's *Baltasar and Blimunda* (1985 and later editions), as well as many other novels by this, Portugal's most celebrated living novelist. See also Landeg White's recent translation of the national 16th century epic of Luis de Camões, *The Lusiads* (1997). A classic portrait of the arts in Portugal during the country's imperial age is Robert C. Smith's *The Art of Portugal, 1500–1800* (1968).

For those who plan to conduct research in Portugal, the premier collection of printed books, periodicals, and manuscripts is housed in the country's national library, the Biblioteca Nacional de Lisboa, in Lisbon. Other important collections are found in the libraries of the major universities in Coimbra, Lisbon, and Oporto, and in a number of foundations and societies. For the history of the former colonial empire, the best collection of printed materials remains in the library of Lisbon's historic Geography Society, the Sociedade de Geografia de Lisboa, Lisbon; and for documents there is the state-run colonial archives, the Arquivo Historico Ultramarino, in Restelo, near Lisbon. Other government records are deposited in official archives, such as those for foreign relations in the archives of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, housed in Necessidades Palace, Lisbon.

For researchers in North America, the best collections of printed materials on Portugal are housed in the Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.; New York Public Library, New York City; Newberry Library, Chicago, Illinois; and in university libraries including those of Harvard, Yale, Johns Hopkins, Brown, Indiana, Illinois, University of California at Los Angeles, University of California – Berkeley, University of California – Santa Barbara, Stanford, Florida State, Duke, University of New Hampshire, Durham, University of Toronto, University of Ottawa, McGill, and University of British Columbia. Records dealing with Portuguese affairs are found in U.S. government archives, including, for instance, those in the National Archives and Record Service (NARS), housed in Washington, D.C.

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portugalweb.com

ELECTRONIC RESOURCES

This information can become rapidly dated or obsolete, depending on circumstances, and websites can disappear from the internet.

Websites from Portuguese Government Agencies and Institutions

- On investments, trade, and tourism from Ministry of Economy: <http://www.portugal.org>
- On cultural events, calendars, online version of periodical Agenda Cultural (Lisbon's Câmara Municipal): <http://www.cm-lisboa.pt>
- Search engine and catalogue of Portuguese webpages by category, such as museums, and entertainment: <http://www.sapo.pt> [SAPO=Servidor de Apontadores Portugueses]
- Biblioteca Nacional de Lisboa website: <http://www.bn.pt> [links to online catalogue of BNL: PORBASE]

National archives website: <http://iantt.pt>

Websites for Portuguese daily newspapers online (including Jornal de Notícias, Público, Avante, and Correio da Manhã): Público's website: <http://www.publico.com>

Websites of Leading Political Parties: PSD: <http://www.psd.pt> PS: <http://www.ps.pt> PCP: <http://www.pcp.pt> PP: <http://partido-popular.pt>

Websites of Interest from Former Colonies

On Macau:

<http://www.macau.ctm.net/>

On Mozambique:

Eduardo Mondlane University website, Maputo: <http://www.uem.mz>

Link to Mozambique's webpage and libraries:

http://www.sas.vpenn.edu/African_studies/Country_specific/Mozambique.html

On Angola:

Republic of Angola website: <http://www.angola.org>

On Cape Verde Islands:

Government website: <http://www.umassd.edu/specialprograms/caboverde/capeverdean.html>

On East Timor:

East Timor Action Network: etan-outreach@igc.apc.org [New York base]
etan-dc@igc.apc.org [Washington, DC base]

Portuguese Pousadas (State-run Inns)

www.pousadas.pt

About the Authors

Douglas L. Wheeler (A.B., Dartmouth College, M.A. and Ph.D., Boston University) is professor of history emeritus, University of New Hampshire, Durham. He taught history in that institution's Department of History from 1965 to 2002, and, from 1995 to 2002, he held a chair, the Prince Henry the Navigator Professorship. He has been a research associate, African Studies Center, Boston University and an affiliate, Center for International Affairs, Harvard University. He has also been a visiting professor at Boston University; University College, Rhodesia (Zimbabwe); and Morgan State College. He was also Richard Welch Fellow in Advanced Research on the History of Intelligence at the Center for International Affairs, Harvard University (1984–85). In the 1980s, he served as general secretary of the Society for Spanish and Portuguese Historical Studies (SSPHS) and was one of the founders of the International Conference Group on Portugal (1972–2002). He was founding editor of the *Portuguese Studies Review*, a semiannual academic journal. He is the author, coauthor, or coeditor of six other books on Portugal, Angola, and espionage history, including *Republican Portugal: A Political History (1910–1926)*, *A Ditadura Militar Portuguesa, 1926–1933*, and (with Lawrence S. Graham), *In Search of Modern Portugal: The Revolution and Its Consequences*. Among the periodicals in which he has published articles are *Foreign Affairs*, *USA Today Magazine*, *International Herald Tribune*, and *The Christian Science Monitor*. In 1993, he was decorated by the Government of Portugal with the Order of Prince Henry the Navigator medal and in 2004, with the Order of Merit.

Walter C. Opello Jr. (B.A., M.A., and Ph.D., University of Colorado, Boulder) is professor of political science, State University of New York, Oswego. Before joining the faculty at that institution, he was

professor of political science, University of Mississippi, Oxford, from 1976 to 1987. Since the 1970s, he has carried out research in Portugal as a Fulbright Scholar (1981 and 1984) and as a Gulbenkian Foundation Scholar (1978 and 1980). In 1989, he was the director for research on Portugal's regions, carried out by the European Integrations and Regions Project under the auspices of the European Universities Institute, Florence, Italy. Professor Opello has published more than 50 journal articles, book chapters, books, and book reviews pertaining to Portugal's politics and government. His Portugal-related books are *Portugal's Political Development: A Comparative Political Approach* and *Portugal: From Monarchy to Pluralist Democracy*.