



Portugal

Scott Pearson
Professor Emeritus
Stanford University

This essay focuses on the political, economic, cultural, and gastronomic history of Portugal. It is written for the participants in two Stanford Travel/Study programs – Portugal and Galicia Food and Wine, May 11-22, 2016 and Insider’s Portugal Seminar, June 1-June 16, 2008.

I begin with Lusitania in the Roman Empire (3rd century BCE-8th century CE) – Roman conquest, sources of wealth, and takeover by the Visigoths. I then focus on Portugal as part of Islamic Al-Andalus (8th-13th centuries) – evolution of Muslim rule, Medieval Green Revolution, and formation of the Christian Kingdom of Portugal. I move on to discuss Portugal in the Age of Exploration (1415-1640) – why Portugal led the Age of Discovery, how it dominated Indian Ocean trade, and why Portugal was taken over by Spain (1580-1640). I next examine Portuguese Colonialism in Brazil and Africa (1640-1822) – why the slave trade linked Portugal with Brazil, Portugal depended on British military aid, and export cycles led to Brazilian independence. I conclude by analyzing the phases of modern Portugal (1820-present) – monarchy, republicanism, totalitarianism, and European integration. I append a time line, a bibliography, and a description of sites that I visited.

Roman and Visigothic Lusitania (3rd century BCE-8th century CE).

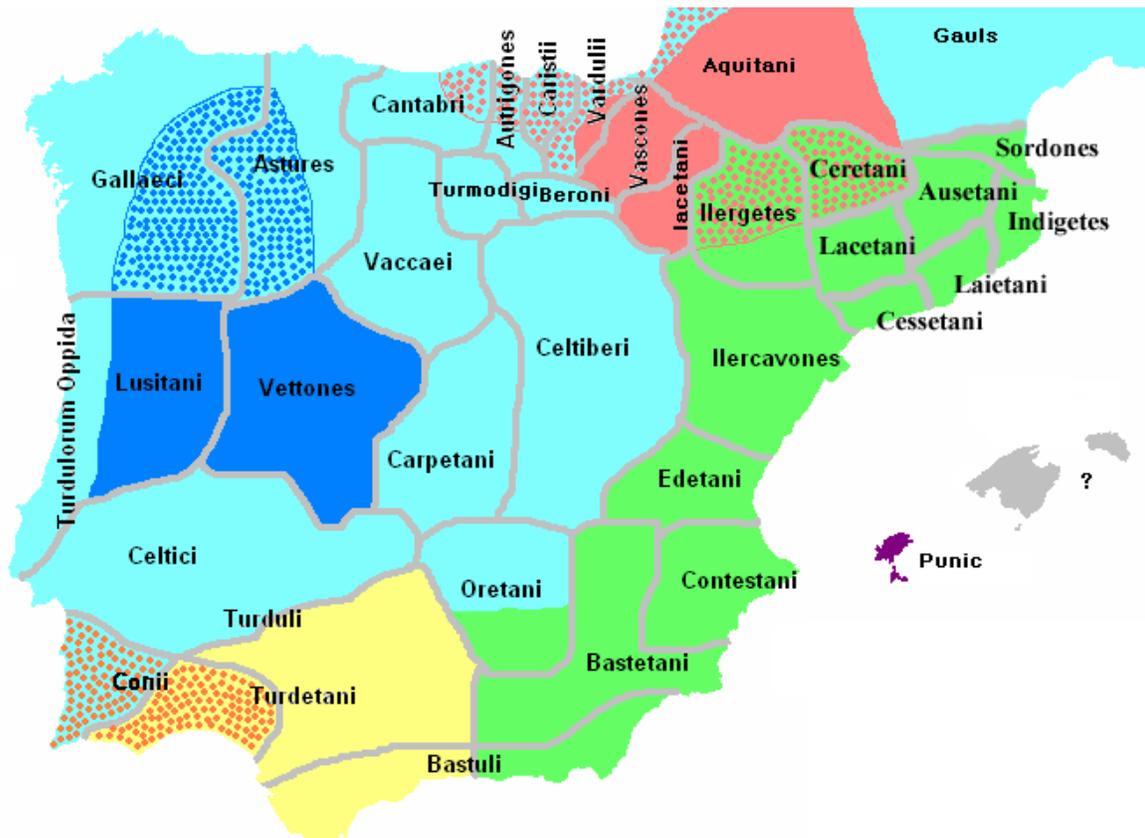
Geography and Settlement. The history of Portugal has been strongly influenced by the country's geography and its pattern of settlement. Portugal occupies nearly 36,000 square miles in the western fifth of the Iberian Peninsula. The country stretches 350 miles from north-to-south and 80 to 140 miles from east-to-west. Portugal's north is wet, hilly, and densely populated, whereas its south is dry, flat, and sparsely populated.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Portugal_location_map_Topographic.png>

Topography of Portugal

Neolithic peoples began practicing agriculture in Portugal about 5000 BCE. Starting about 1600 BCE, people who later became known as the Iberians, migrated from southern Europe to Portugal. The Iberians were agriculturalists but preferred to live in urban settlements. They spoke and wrote two non-Indo-European languages that have not been deciphered.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Ethnographic_Iberia_200_BCE.PNG

Ethnographic Iberia, c. 200 BCE – Iberians (Green), Celts (Light and Dark Blue), and Phoenicians (Yellow)

Nearly a millennium later, a wave of Celtic migrants from the Hallstatt culture of central Europe settled the northern and western portions of the Iberian Peninsula. They brought knowledge of iron-working and settled in numerous *castros*, fortified hill-top villages. The Celts intermarried with the Iberians, formed a fused culture now called the Celtiberian culture, practiced agriculture and metallurgy, and dominated much of Iberia, including Portugal.

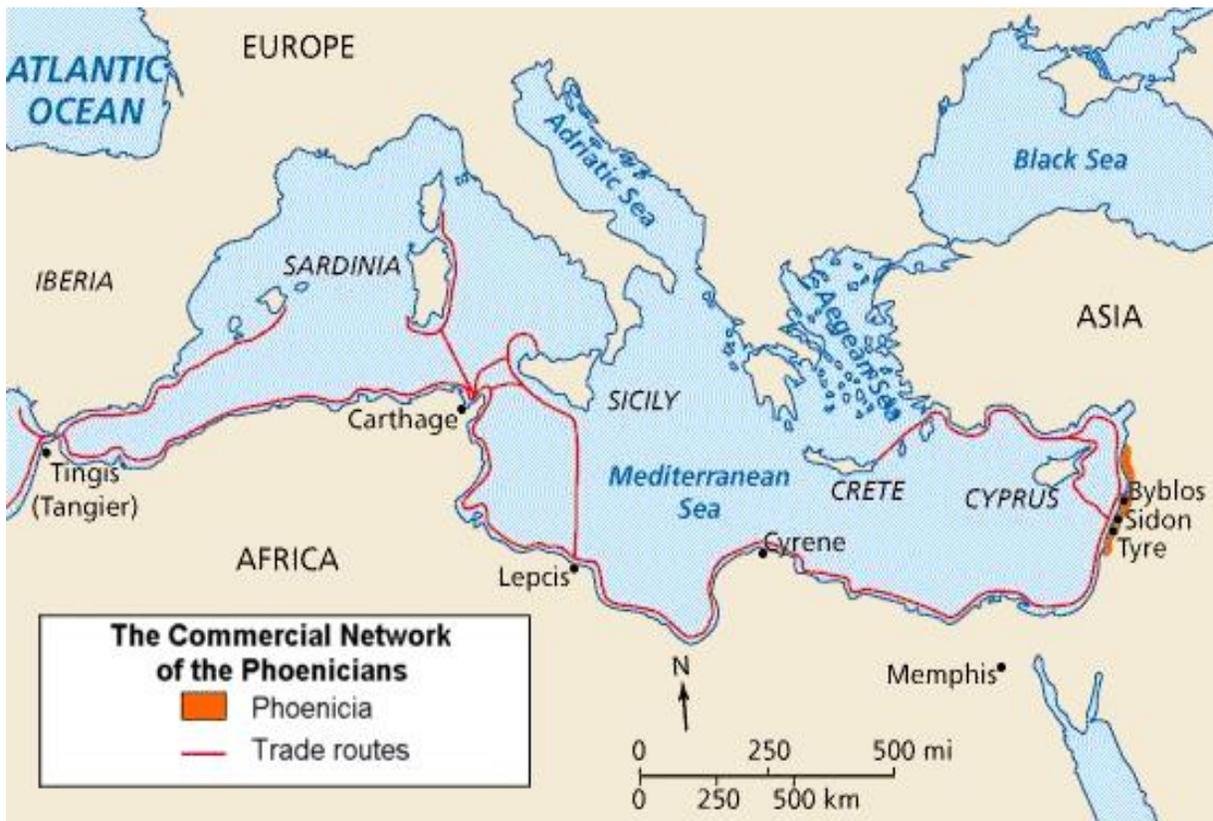


Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Castro_en_santa_trega.jpg>

Celtic Castro, Santa Tegra – A Guarda, Galicia, Spain

From about the 8th century BCE, a third group of migrants, the Phoenicians, settled the Mediterranean and south- western Atlantic

coastal regions of Iberia, as far north as Olisipo (Lisbon). The Phoenicians were Semitic-speaking, entrepreneurial traders from the Levant (modern Lebanon), mostly from the port of Tyre, who established a network of trading settlements throughout North Africa, Sicily, and Iberia. From Iberia, they exported metals (silver, copper, tin, and gold) in return for Levantine pottery, arms, and wine.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:PhoenicianTrade.png>>

*The Phoenician Expansion, 11th-2nd centuries BCE –
Established Trading Colonies in North Africa, Sicily, and Iberia*

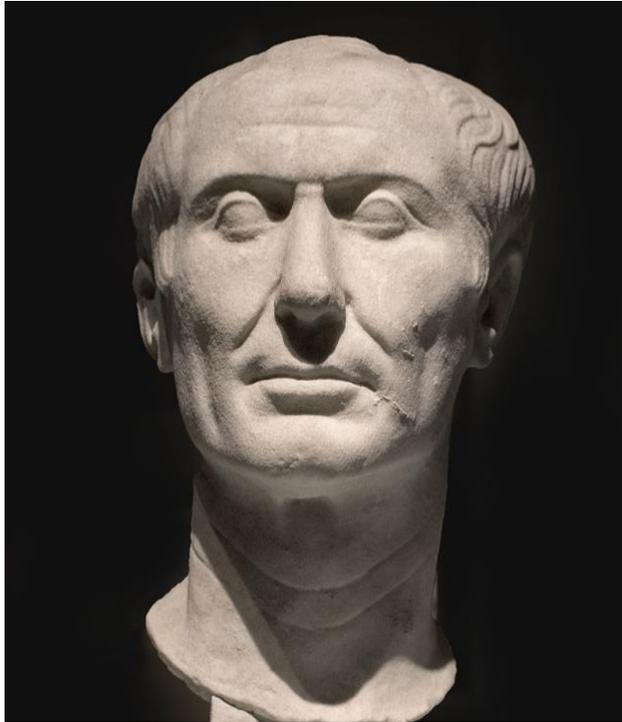
Roman Conquest of Portugal (205-19 BCE). By the 3rd century BCE, the Phoenicians had established a wealthy maritime empire of ports and their hinterlands in the southern Mediterranean, centered on Carthage. An upstart rival empire, Rome, defeated Carthage in the 1st Punic War (264- 241 BCE) and claimed Sicily and Sardinia, causing the Carthaginians to expand their reach in the Iberian Peninsula. After Rome again defeated Carthage in the 2nd Punic War (218-201 BCE), finally overcoming Hannibal and his 37 war-elephants, the expanding Roman Empire claimed all of Iberia and its rich metal resources. Rome quickly controlled the former Phoenician regions in southern Iberia, but had great difficulty overcoming the fierce resistance of the Lusitanians, the Celtiberian peoples in the west (northern Portugal and Galicia).



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Galea_\(helmet\)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Galea_(helmet))>

*Militaristic Ethos in Roman Administration of Iberia –
Decorated Roman Officer's Helmet (Galea)*

The Lusitanians periodically fought guerrilla wars against Roman legions for nearly two centuries. The Lusitanian hero, Viriatus, whom the Romans assassinated in 139 BCE, was immortalized by the Portuguese poet, Camões, in his epic, *Os Lusíadas* (The Lusiads). After a twenty-year siege, Numantia on the Douro River fell in 133 BCE. Rome sent one of its greatest conquerors, Julius Caesar, to Olisipo (Lisbon) in 60 BCE to bring the rebels to heel. Caesar reduced Lusitanian control to a small region of the northwest.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Retrato_de_Julio_C%C3%A9sar_\(26724093101\)_cropped.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Retrato_de_Julio_C%C3%A9sar_(26724093101)_cropped.jpg)>

*Julius Caesar, Conqueror of Roman Lusitania, 60 BCE –
Tusculum Sculptural Portrait, Archeological Museum, Turin, Italy*

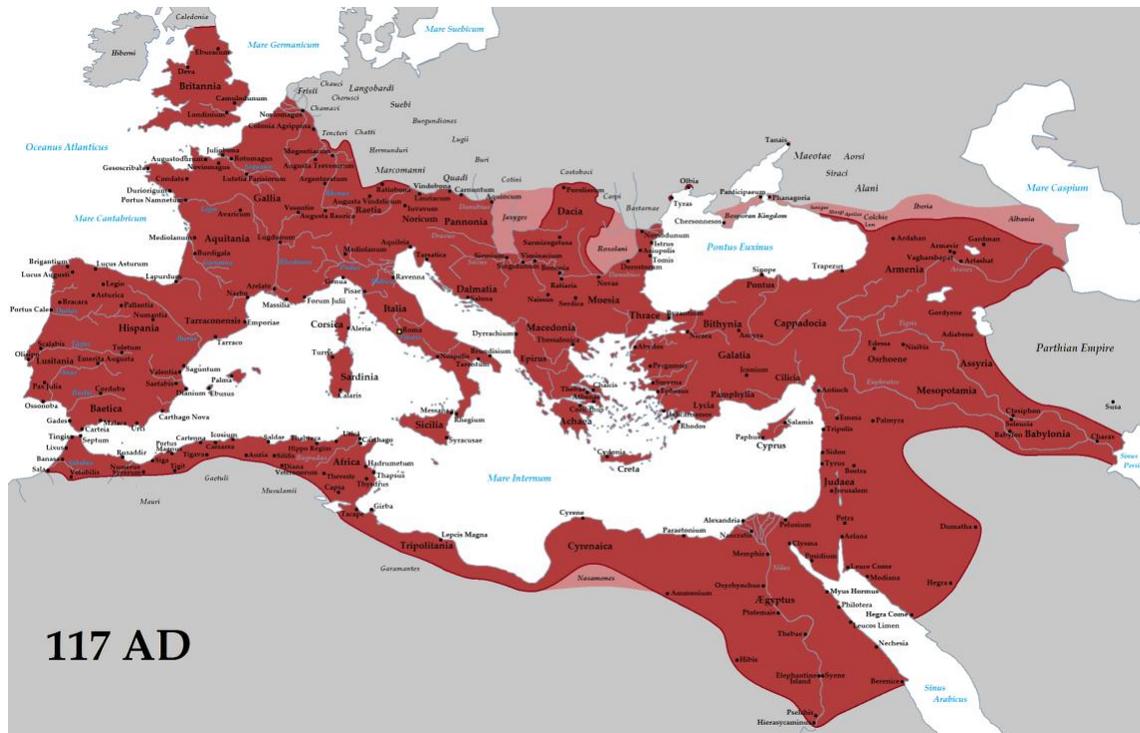
After Augustus Caesar became emperor, he ended Lusitanian resistance in 19 BCE, and all of Portugal fell under Roman rule. Augustus divided Iberia into three Roman provinces – Lusitania (roughly modern Portugal), Baetica, and Tarraconensis. Initially, Roman administration tolerated local languages, laws, customs, and gods. But gradually Iberia was Romanized with the introduction of new Roman roads and cities and the increasing use of the Latin language.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
 <https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Iberian_Peninsula_in_125-en.svg>

*Iberia Under Roman Rule (Hispania), c. 125 CE –
 Lusitania, Baetica, and Tarraconensis*

Sources of Wealth – Foreign Conquest. The Roman Empire grew between the 3rd century BCE and the 2nd century CE until the Mediterranean Sea became a Roman lake. Initially, Rome expanded to defeat its foreign enemies and control its natural frontiers. Then, Rome settled soldiers in provincial colonies to develop an agricultural tax base.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Roman_Empire_Trajan_117AD.png

The Roman Empire At Its Peak, 117 CE

Imperial Rome followed three different models in governing, developing, and taxing its new territories. In the eastern Mediterranean, Rome sought to pacify the areas formerly ruled by Hellenes, preserve the advanced Greek culture, rule indirectly through existing local governments, and tax enough to pay provincial expenses (including Roman troops) and to provide modest transfers to Rome. In the western Mediterranean and northern Africa (except Egypt), Rome's strategy was to settle Roman ex-soldiers, introduce Roman culture and direct Roman

rule, invest in irrigation to expand agriculture, and tax agriculture heavily to provide food and revenues for Rome and Italy. In Egypt, Rome preserved the Egyptian culture, ruled the province as an imperial reserve, introduced improved water wheels and threshers to enhance agricultural productivity, and taxed Nile agriculture highly to transfer wheat and funds to Rome.

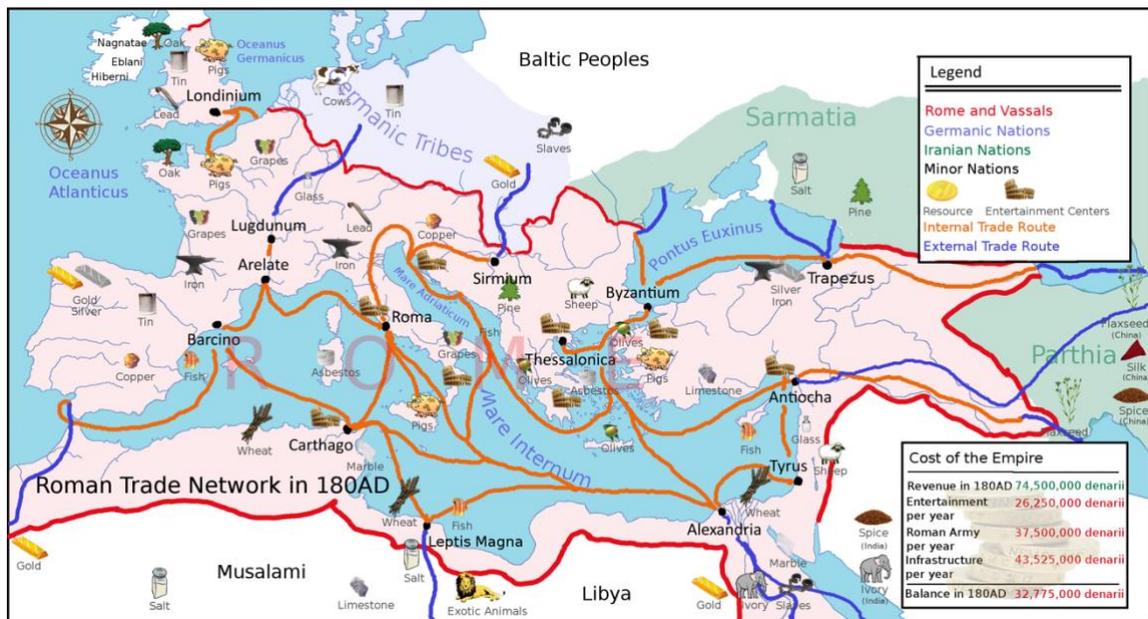


Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Pont_du_Gard_BLS.jpg>

*Rome Developed and Taxed the West –
Pont du Gard, Roman Aqueduct Near Nîmes, Provence, France*

The goals of Roman conquest in Iberia, including Lusitania, were to exploit the peninsula's rich metal resources (copper, tin, silver, and gold) and to develop Iberian agriculture and thereby to expand tax collections and transfer food (especially olive oil, wine, and *garum* (fish

paste)) to Rome. Iberia became one of the richest parts of the Roman Empire. Within the Empire, the locus of economic power shifted twice – from the Greek east to Italy (1st century BCE) and from Italy to the western provinces (2nd century CE).



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Europe_180ad_roman_trade_map.png

Roman Trade Routes and Ports, 180 CE – Iberia (Hispania) Supplied Rome with Olive Oil, Wine, and Garum

Sources of Wealth – Agriculture. Agriculture, producing cereals, olives, grapes, and animals, was the main source of wealth in the Roman Empire. Most farms were small, and even the larger farms consisted of many fragmented plots. Much of the agricultural land in Roman

Lusitania – and throughout the empire – was farmed by private owner-operators, mostly smallholders but including some larger farmers.

Tenant farmers provided labor on the aristocratic large estates and on the vast imperial land-holdings, confiscated when Rome annexed new provinces. Agricultural profitability arose from intensification (greater labor use and shorter fallow periods) and specialization (new cash crops and better crop combinations). The Romans did not expand agriculture much by introducing better agricultural technologies or new crops.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:M%C3%A4hmaschine.jpg>>

*Harvesting in Roman Agriculture –
Bas Relief On Wall in Buzanoi, Belgium*

Most agricultural expansion – of wheat (in Africa, Egypt, Gaul, and Britain), olives (in Africa and Iberia), and vineyards (in Gaul and Iberia) – occurred in the newly developed west (and in Egypt), not in the previously settled east. Iberia’s principal agricultural exports to Rome were olive oil, wine, and fish paste (*garum*). The colonization of the western provinces, including Iberia, with former Roman soldiers transferred manpower, skills, and capital to newly opened lands.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Western_Roman_Empire_395_Tribes.png

Agricultural Wealth – Concentrated in the Western Roman Empire

Public investments in irrigation and transportation encouraged greater agricultural production. Agricultural taxation consisted of land taxes and head taxes that amounted to one-tenth to one-fifth of the value of farm production. Those taxes transferred most agricultural surpluses from smallholders and tenants and left many of them in dire poverty. Agriculture thus produced vast wealth for Rome's aristocracy but not for many of the empire's farmers.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Evora_roman-temple_panoramic-view_cropped.jpg

Temple of Diana, Roman Goddess of the Hunt, Évora, Alentejo, Portugal – Agriculture Produced Wealth for the Rich Romans

Contrasts in Food Patterns. Wide income disparities existed in Roman Hispania, as in the rest of the Roman Empire. Most rural and urban residents were very poor and subsisted on a meager diet. Many poor farmers and plebians were aware of the extravagant consumption of the rich aristocracy. As the income inequalities widened in the 2nd and 3rd centuries, the rural poor increasingly resented the heavy agricultural tax burden that funded aristocratic extravagance.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:0_Sarcophage_d%27Acilia -
Pal. Massimo alle Terme.JPG](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:0_Sarcophage_d%27Acilia_-_Pal._Massimo_alle_Terme.JPG)>

*Roman Senators, 3rd century CE –
Effective Bureaucracy For Tax Collection*

Poor consumers obtained their food energy mostly from starch in cereals and protein mainly from pulses, and they drank vinegary, cheap wine. They consumed emmer wheat and barley as porridge, durum wheat as flat-cakes, and, rarely, soft wheat as bread. The poor made soups of pulses – lentils, chickpeas, broad beans, and peas. Sometimes they were able to diversify their diets with cheese, figs, or grapes and, at festivals, fish or meat. But heavy taxation kept the poor at near subsistence consumption levels.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Wheat_close-up.JPG>

*Bread Wheat (Triticum aestivum) –
Food Staple of the Poor in Hispania, Consumed as Porridge*

In contrast, the Roman elite – government officials, landowners, and merchants – had a diversified and high caloric diet. Their cereal consumption was mostly wheat bread and cakes sweetened with honey. The rich ate large amounts of meat (beef, lamb, and pork), fish, and shellfish, but little pulses in soups. They used dill, mint, thyme, and imported pepper in meat sauces and enjoyed a variety of fruits (figs, grapes, apples, pears, and olives) and vegetables (lettuce, onions, celery, and cabbage). The rich drank quality wines, but avoided beer. The best wine was Falernian from Campania.

This contrast in food consumption patterns illustrates the growing societal pressures in the Roman Empire. The rich became complaisant while the poor were resentful. Neither group saw defense of the empire as a high priority.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Pompejanischer_Maler_um_70_001.jpg>

*Elite Food in the Roman Empire –
Still-life Painting, Pompeii, c. 70 CE*

Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire. The Roman Empire began to decline in the mid-3rd century, divided in half in the late 4th century, and the western part, centered in Rome, splintered and fell in the 5th century (476). The eastern half, centered in Constantinople, became the Byzantine Empire and succumbed to Turkish invaders in the mid-15th century. Why did the Roman Empire divide and fall? Edward Gibbon, the 18th-century British historian, argued that the loss of individual liberty eroded the Romans' will to resist invasion and that the

pax Romana led to military indiscipline. Those influences can be reinterpreted as parts of a process of internal decay and foreign invasion.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Roma06\(js\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Roma06(js).jpg)>

*Bread and Circuses in the Roman Empire –
The Colosseum (Flavian Amphitheater), Built in 80 CE*

Internal decay resulted from extravagant aristocratic spending and the over-taxing of provincial agriculture. Poor farmers increasingly resented the rising income inequality. Together with increased religious dissension, exemplified by persecution of Christians in the mid-3rd century, economic disparities created social unrest. Tight central political control might have staved off these growing pressures. But

Rome instead experienced political instability. Provincial military commanders vied for central leadership and caused imperial succession crises. Provincial residents resented Roman taxation. Political instability was coupled with a loss of military strength, especially in the Roman west. To keep their estates operating, western aristocrats substituted cash for troops, exacerbating military manpower shortages.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Pompeii_family_feast_painting_Naples.jpg>

*An Elite Roman Family's Meal, Pompeii, 1st century CE –
Tax Breaks for the Rich Led to Political Instability*

Rome thus became ripe for foreign invasion. Fierce Barbarian invaders from central and northern Europe – Vandals, Alans, Suevi,

Visigoths, Franks, Anglo-Saxons, and Ostrogoths – took advantage of Roman military weakness, inflicted large losses on Roman armies, and dismembered the Empire.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:British Museum Thetford Hoard Rings.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:British_Museum_Thetford_Hoard_Rings.jpg)>

*Gold Jewelry from the Thetford Hoard –
The Privilege of Ruling in the Roman Empire*

Visigothic Kingdom (456-711). Roman rule of the Iberian Peninsula was briefly interrupted by a mid-3rd-century secessionist crisis. Germanic Franks invaded Gaul in 258 and established a break-away Gallic Empire that incorporated Iberia. But Rome regained control in 270.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Map_of_Ancient_Rome_271_AD.svg>

Rome's Mid-3rd-century Crisis – Secession of the Gallic Empire (Green Area) and the Palmyrene Empire (Yellow Area), 271 CE

Roman rule in Iberia ended in 409. Three tribes from northern Europe – the Germanic Vandals and Suevi (Swabians) and the non-Germanic Alans – perhaps 200,000 in number, migrated into Iberia. The Suevi and Vandals ruled northern Portugal, the Alans settled in the center, and another group of Vandals took over the south. In a desperate attempt to regain power, Rome invited the Visigoths, a Germanic group who had taken over Gaul, to invade Iberia in 456. The Visigoths defeated the earlier invaders and established a ruling elite.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Visigothic_Kingdom.png>

The Visigothic Kingdom At Its Peak (Orange and Red Areas), c. 500

The Visigoths comprised less than one-tenth of Iberia's estimated population of four million. To maintain control, the elite adopted the previous Roman-style administration, which had been maintained by the earlier invaders. The Visigothic military elite retained the key positions in the royalty and the clergy, but they permitted the Hispano-Roman nobles to run the provincial and local governments and to collect taxes.

They used Roman law and Latin as the language of government and commerce, and they set up their capital at Toledo in the center of the Iberian Peninsula. The Visigothic nobility-clergy owned the land and dominated the peasantry. Christianity had spread rapidly in Iberia, following the Roman edict of toleration in 313. Most Visigothic leaders were devout Catholics who strengthened the power of the church, which was led by two principal bishoprics – at Braga and Toledo.

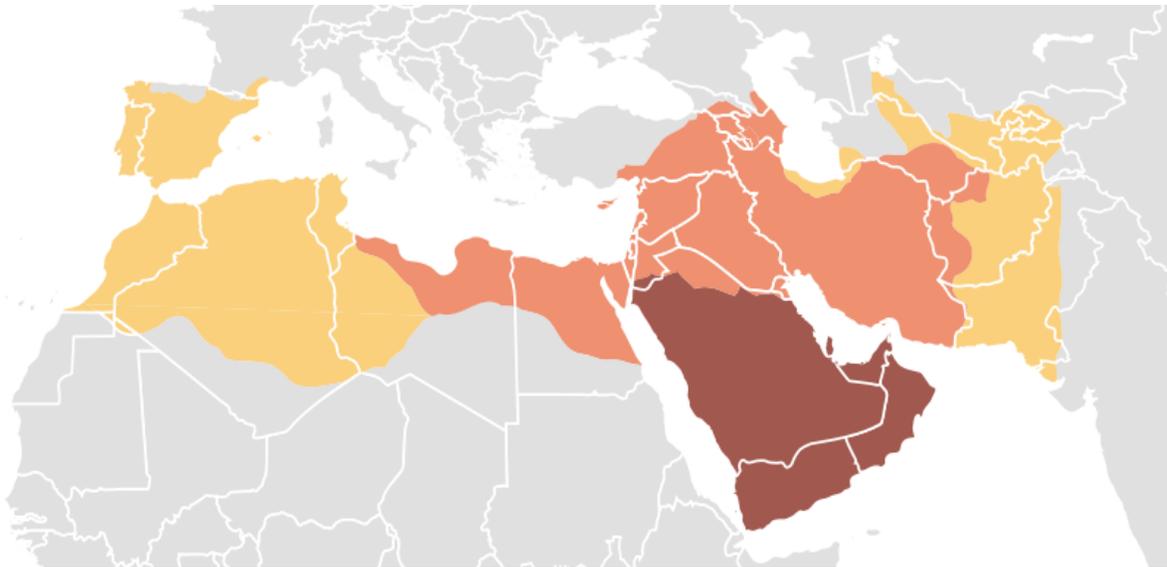


*Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Se_Catedral_de_Braga.jpg>*

*Cathedral, Bishopric of Braga, Northern Portugal – Constructed in the
15th-17th centuries on the Site of the Visigothic Cathedral*

Al-Andalus and the Kingdom of Portugal (8th-15th centuries)

Islamic Conquest of Iberia (8th century). Following the death of the Prophet Muhammad in 632, a Muslim-Arab diaspora erupted out of Arabia and spread across North Africa by the end of the 7th century. In 711, the Muslim *jihad* continued into Iberia. Tariq ibn Ziyad led 40,000 Muslim warriors across the narrow Strait of Gibraltar (which means the mountain of Tariq) into southern Spain.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Map_of_expansion_of_Caliphate.svg>

*The Muslim Arab Diaspora –
622-632 (Dark Red), 632-661 (Light Red), 661-750 (Yellow)*

Soon thereafter, the Muslim Governor of North Africa, Musa ibn Nusayr, led a second force into the Iberian Peninsula. The Muslim army

was made up mainly of Berbers from Morocco, but contained also Arabs, Syrians, and Egyptians. The disparate Muslim force quarreled over the spoils from the invasion and engaged in conflicts over the distribution of conquered land. At the crucial Battle of Guadalete in 712, Tariq led his army to victory over the Visigothic king, Roderic, who died in battle.



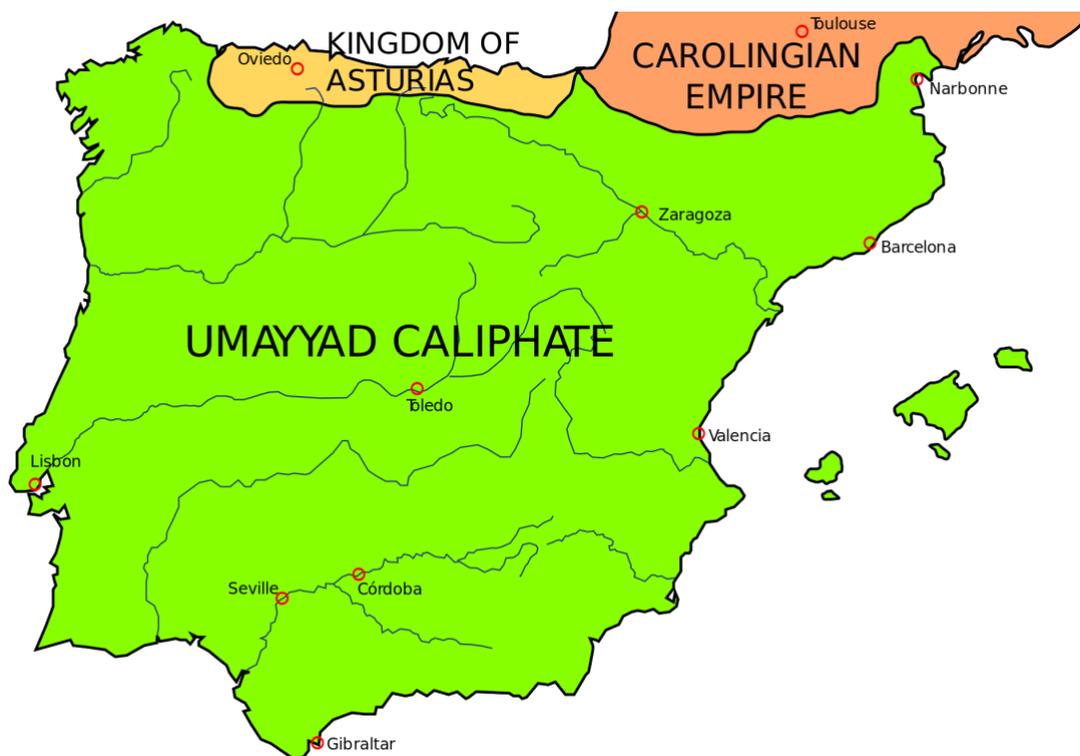
Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:El_rey_Don_Rodrigo_arengando_a_sus_tropas_en_la_batalla_de_Guadalete_\(Museo_del_Prado\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:El_rey_Don_Rodrigo_arengando_a_sus_tropas_en_la_batalla_de_Guadalete_(Museo_del_Prado).jpg)>

*King Roderic and His Troops at the Battle of Guadalete (1712) –
Painting by Bernardo Blanco y Perez, 1871, Prado Museum*

Iberia was vulnerable to invasion. Roderic had gained the kingship after a vicious succession struggle in 711, and his noble ranks were thin

and quickly depleted in battle. The Hispano-Roman population (90 percent of the total) was neutral in the conflict with the invading Muslims, and the important Jewish minority preferred Muslim to Christian rule.

By 720, the Muslims had taken over all of Iberia, except the north and northeast. They annihilated the Visigothic nobles in battle and captured their capital, Toledo, in 712.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Map_Iberian_Peninsula_750-en.svg

The Umayyad Caliphate At Its Greatest Extent, c. 760

The Muslim invaders forced many Iberian cities to surrender without fighting. If cities chose to fight and then lost, their men were killed and their women and children enslaved. The rapid conquest was greatly aided by the highly developed system of Roman-Visigothic roads and communications, and the victors adapted existing Romanic governmental institutions for Muslim rule.

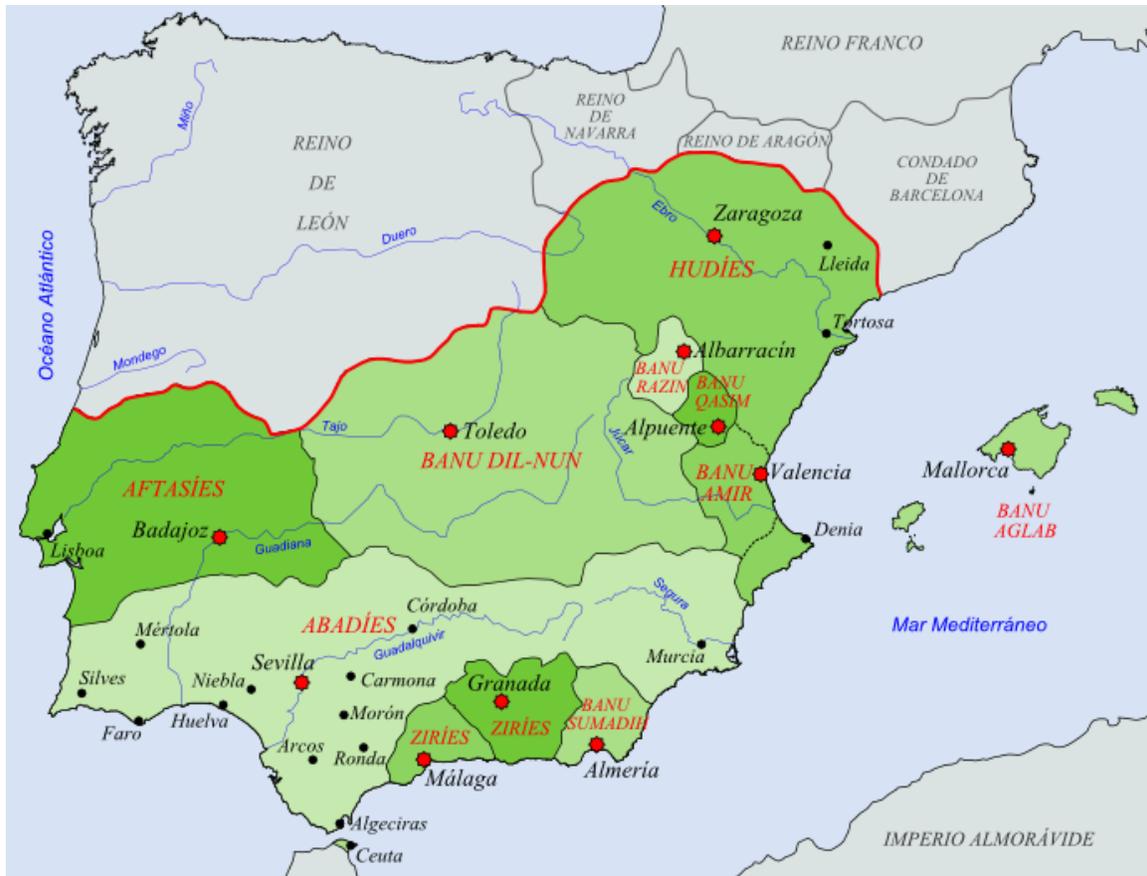


Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Roman_Aqueduct_Segovia_night_2012_Spain.jpg>

Roman Aqueduct – Segovia, al-Andalus

Political Evolution in al-Andalus (8th-15th centuries). Following a half century of rule by small Muslim emirates, the Umayyad Caliphate of Córdoba was established in 756. The new caliphate gradually

A half dozen of those *taifas* became prominent, and Seville emerged as the strongest *taifa* and the successor to Córdoba as the leading city of al-Andalus.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Reinos_de_Taifas_1080.png

Islamic Taifa Kingdoms, c. 1080

In the late eleventh century, some of the *taifas* sought military assistance from the Almoravids, a revivalist Islamic group of Berber camel breeders who were ruling Morocco. The Almoravids asserted

control of al- Andalus in 1103, but lost their religious zeal and became decadent governors.

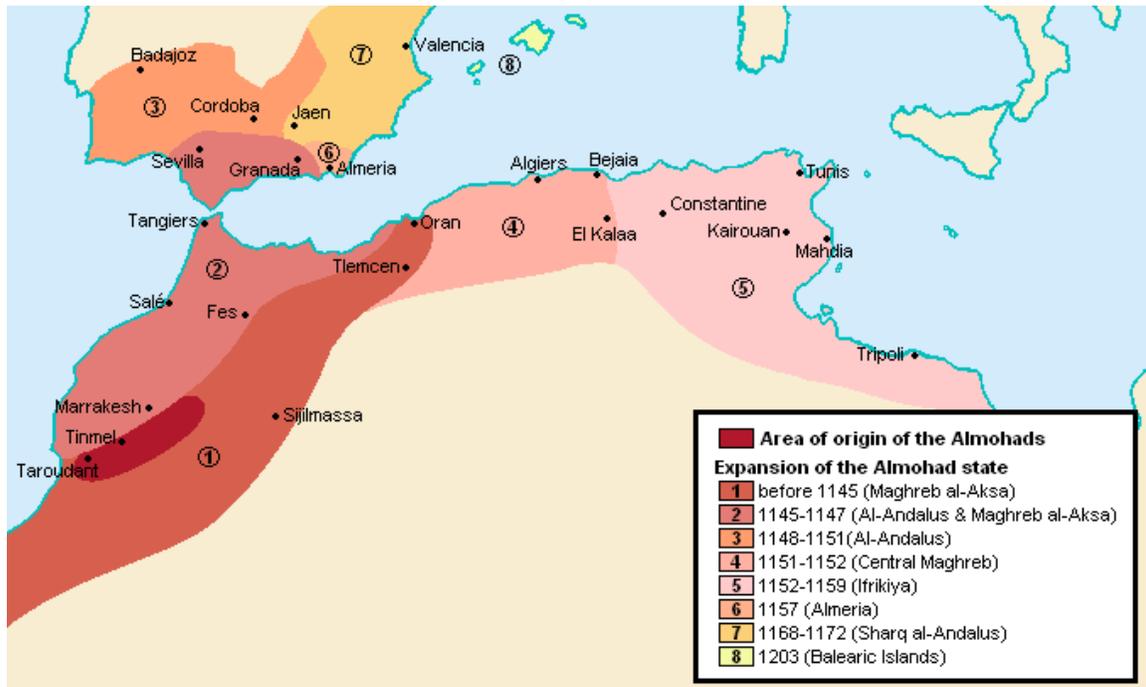


*Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Djemaa_el_Fna.jpg>*

*Jemaa el-Fnaa, Main Square In Modern Marrakech, Morocco –
Former Almoravid Capital (1062-1147)*

The Almohads, an even more puritanical Islamic sect, defeated the Almoravids and created a new Berber empire in Morocco. The Almohads invaded al-Andalus in 1146, displaced Almoravid hegemony there, and ruled Moorish Iberia from their capital at Marrakech in Morocco. For half a century, the Almohads dominated the Christian

kingdoms from northern Iberia. But the Christians gained the upper hand in the thirteenth century and ended Almohad rule in 1236.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Almohad_Expansion.png

Expansion of the Almohad Empire, 1152-1203 – Northward Into Iberia, Eastward Through Tunisia

The small Emirate of Granada, in southeastern Spain, remained under Muslim rule from 1237 until 1492, when Ferdinand and Isabella of León-Castile finally conquered it. Granada survived as a vassal of Castile and paid half of its revenues to its more powerful northern neighbor.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Dawn_Charles_V_Palace_Alhambra_Granada_Andalusia_Spain.jpg>

The Alhambra, Fortified Palace-city – Kingdom of Granada

Islamic Wealth and Legacy (8th-15th centuries). Muslim agriculturalists in Iberia developed sophisticated irrigation systems, intensified cropping rotations and use of farm labor, advanced scientific knowledge of soil structure, moisture, and temperature, and introduced new crops – durum wheat, sorghum, rice, sugar cane, several citrus fruits, bananas, coconut palms, watermelon, spinach, artichokes, taro, eggplant, and mangoes. This “Medieval Green Revolution” led to a

steady expansion of food supplies, agricultural trade, population, urbanization, and the standard of living.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:The_Albolafia_Water_Mill_\(10823918983\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:The_Albolafia_Water_Mill_(10823918983).jpg)>

*The Islamic Medieval Green Revolution, 10th-12th centuries –
Albolafia Water Wheel and Roman Bridge, Cordoba, Spain*

Iberian manufacturing centers supplied high quality iron and brass as well as mineral ores, especially cinnabar (for mercury). Iberia produced a rich array of artisanal goods, such as woolen, linen, and silk textiles, leather goods, carpets, glass, ceramics, and jewelry. Trade flourished between Iberia and North Africa and the Middle East,

exchanging Iberian textiles, mercury, olive oil, dried figs, and salt for imports of dates, almonds, salted tuna, rice, and spices.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Oliven_V1.jpg

*Olive Oil –
Major Export from Iberia, Eight Centuries Ago and Today*

Rulers imposed a strict system of taxes on imports and exports of commodities moving through al-Andalus. Citizens were subject only to a poll-tax, levied on Christians and Jews, and a tax on cultivable land based on productivity, paid by all land-owners. The Islamic rulers were generous patrons of religion, science, and the arts. Architects developed a unique style of Moorish design and built monumental religious centers.

Islamic scholars in Iberia made significant advances and discoveries in mathematics, medicine, astronomy, physics, chemistry, botany, geography, history, philosophy, and jurisprudence. Muslim mathematicians wrote the first texts on algebra and trigonometry and were the first to solve quadratic and cubic equations.



*Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Mosque_of_Cordoba.jpg>*

*Interior of the Great Mosque at Cordoba,
Constructed Prior To the Moroccan Invasion of Spain –
Illustrates Muslim Spanish Wealth and Creativity*

Province of Portugal (9th-11th centuries). Portugal started in Cale, the contemporary city of Porto. The first known settlement at Cale

was a Celtic *castro* (hill-top fortress) at least two-and-a-half millennia ago. About two thousand years ago, the Romans converted Cale into a fort to guard the estuary of the Douro River. The Suevis centered a Christian diocese in Cale in the 6th century. When the Muslims attacked Cale in the 8th century, the inhabitants fled to the countryside and depopulated the town. In 868, the Christian Kingdom of León captured and repopulated Cale. The León rulers detached the area between the Lima and Douro Rivers from Galicia in the late 9th century and called their new province Portucale (later Portugal) – after the port of Cale.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:View_of_Porto,_Portugal.jpg>

Modern Porto – Where Portucale Began in 868

The first recorded reference to Portucale province was in a document dated 938. The remote province was only loosely controlled by the kings of León. By the 11th century, Braga, the bishopric see, was its largest town with perhaps 5,000 residents, Porto (originally Cale) was its commercial center and port, and Guimarães became its capital. Portugal's total population then was less than 400,000.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Castelo_de_Guimar%C3%A3es_Castelo_da_Funda%C3%A7%C3%A3o.JPG>

Castle at Guimaraes – Capital of Portugal, 10th century

Society in early Portugal was dominated by the feudal system. The church owned most of the land, the royalty and nobles held substantial

shares, and a few freeholders farmed small plots. Most of the farmers were serfs or tenants. The main source of wealth was agriculture, and most of the taxes were paid by farmers. Animal husbandry (cattle, sheep, goats, and horses) and crop agriculture (wheat, barley, rye, grapes, apples, and flax) predominated. In the few towns, commerce and artisanship (food processing, weaving, and linen production) supplemented agriculture. The Leónese province of Portugal was growing in population and prosperity.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:MontemorVelho-CCBY-4.jpg>>

*11th-century Fortress, Montemor-o-Velho –
Built to Defend Coimbra from Islamic Invasion*

Christian Re-conquest of Portugal (9th-13th centuries). The Christian re-conquest (*Reconquista*) of Portugal and Spain took place

sporadically during the five centuries of Muslim rule. Contrary to popular myth, it did not occur because of crusading Christian desires to free Europe from Muslim rule. Instead, the re-conquest was a gradual southward push of small Christian kingdoms – Portugal, León, Castile, Navarre, and Aragon-Catalonia – that needed more land, wanted to buy-off noble supporters, and claimed a right to Iberian lands through Visigothic inheritance. The advance into central Iberia was through a sparsely-populated frontier zone.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Almohad1200.png>>

*The Moroccan Almohads Versus the Five Iberian Christian Kingdoms,
c. 1200 – Portugal, León, Castile, Navarre, and Aragon-Catalonia*

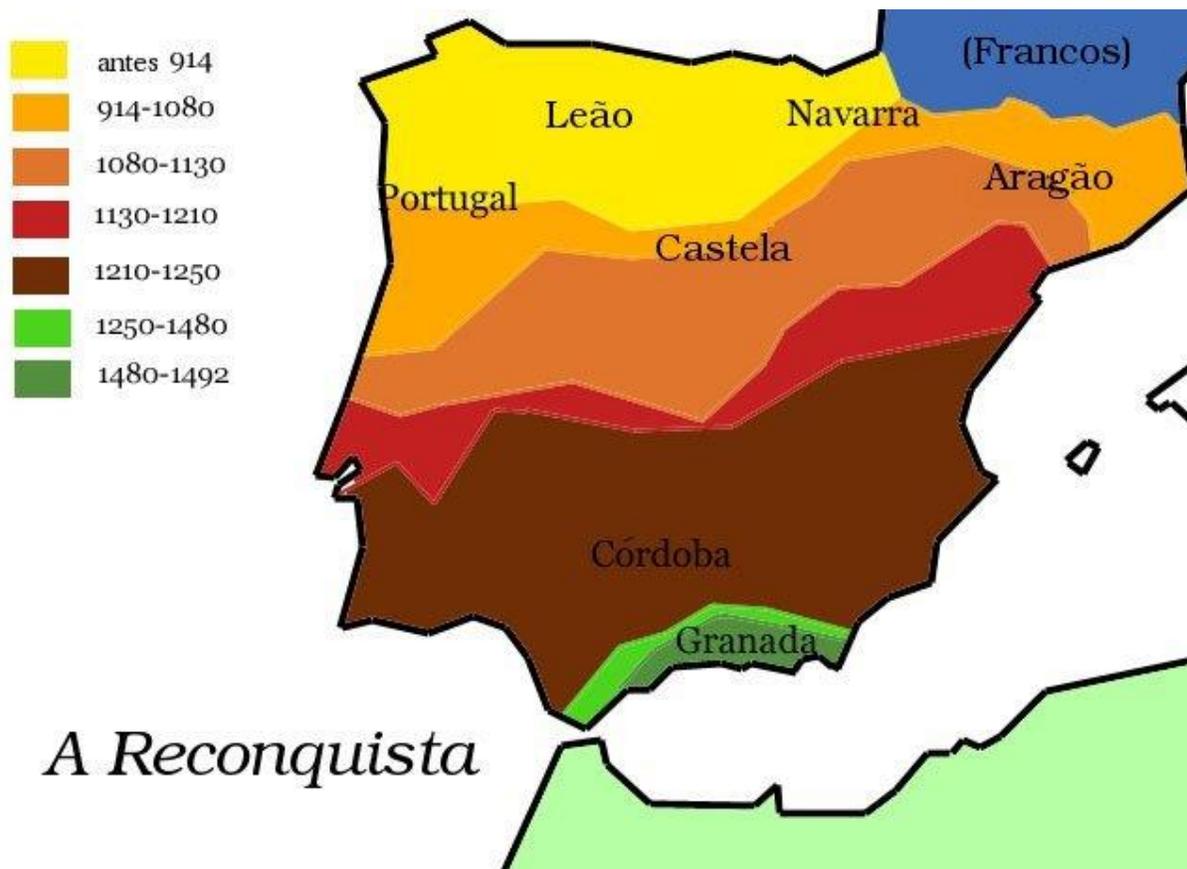
The first Muslim city taken by the Christian kingdoms was Toledo in 1085. The Christian kings kept control of the conquered cities and granted most agricultural land to military orders. The re-conquest was rolled back during the rule of the Almoravids (1103-1146) and the Almohads (1146-1236). Christian advances were vulnerable because they had insufficiently re-settled conquered areas. The turning point was the Christian victory at Las Navas de Tolosa in 1212, which paved the way for Castilian takeovers of Córdoba (1236) and Seville (1248).



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Battle_of_las_navas_de_tolosa.jpg>

Spanish Christian Kingdoms Defeated Almohad Morocco In the Battle of Las Navas de Tolosa – Painting By Francisco de Paula Van Halen

By 1250, Muslim control was limited to Granada, a small emirate in southern Iberia, which paid annual tribute to Castile. Isabella (of Castile) and Ferdinand (of Aragon) married in 1469 and united their kingdoms to form Spain in 1479. They laid siege to Granada and finally conquered it in 1492, completing the re-conquest and ending Muslim control in Iberia.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
< <https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Pt-Reconquista2.jpg> >

Christian Reconquest of Portugal, 1147-1250

The re-conquest of central-southern Portugal occurred in two phases – in the mid-12th and mid-13th centuries. In 1139, the Portuguese re-conquest took on a separate identity from that of León-Castile when Portugal defeated the Almoravids at Campo de Ourique. Eight years later, Portugal claimed the key cities of Santarém (with assistance from the Knights Templar) and Lisbon (with aid from a fleet of English Crusaders). More than a century passed before Portugal claimed the southern coastal region of Algarve and thereby gained control of the area within its current boundaries.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Igreja_Matriz_de_M%C3%A9rtola.jpg>

*Church in Mértola, Algarve, Portugal –
Transformed from a Mosque after the Portuguese Reconquest in 1238*

Rise of the Kingdom of Portugal (12th-15th centuries). In the 12th century, Portugal evolved from a province of León-Castile to become an independent kingdom. Afonso Henriques (ruled 1128-1185) was the son of Henry of Burgundy and Teresa of Castile. Upon their marriage, the king of Castile had given Portugal to Teresa as a dowry. Afonso Henriques desired to expand Portuguese territory and confirm its independence. In 1143, he received papal sanction of Portugal's independence with the title of *dux* (leader) of Portugal. Four years later, he gained control of Santarém and Lisbon. In 1179, in return for the promise of a large annual tribute the pope conferred on him the title of *rex* (king) of Portugal. Portugal thus became an independent kingdom.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Siege_of_Lisbon_-_Muslim_surrender.jpg>

*King Afonso Henriques (ruled 1139-1185), At the Siege of Lisbon –
Made Rex (King Afonso I) by the Pope in 1179*

In the mid-14th century, Portugal (like the rest of Europe) was devastated by the Black Death. The bubonic plague killed at least one-third of the Portuguese population. Intermittent attacks of pestilence continued during the next century and created a shortage of manpower. The depopulation of rural areas led to periodic food crises and much

misery. At least a century passed before the population of Portugal regained its pre-plague level of about one million.

Castile threatened Portugal's political independence in 1383 by invading after the Portuguese king died without an heir. At the Battle of Aljubarrota in 1385, João of Avis led 8,000 Portuguese troops and 800 English archers to victory over a much larger Spanish force. The Portuguese Cortes then elected him King João I.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Mosteiro_da_Batalha_78a.jpg>

*Dominican Abbey, Batalha, Founded in 1388 –
To Commemorate Victory at Aljubarrota, 1385*

In 1386, Portugal and England signed the Treaty of Windsor, a mutual defense pact that is still in force. João I revolutionized Portuguese government by promoting bourgeoisie and artisans to positions of power. Portugal's independence was assured for another two centuries.

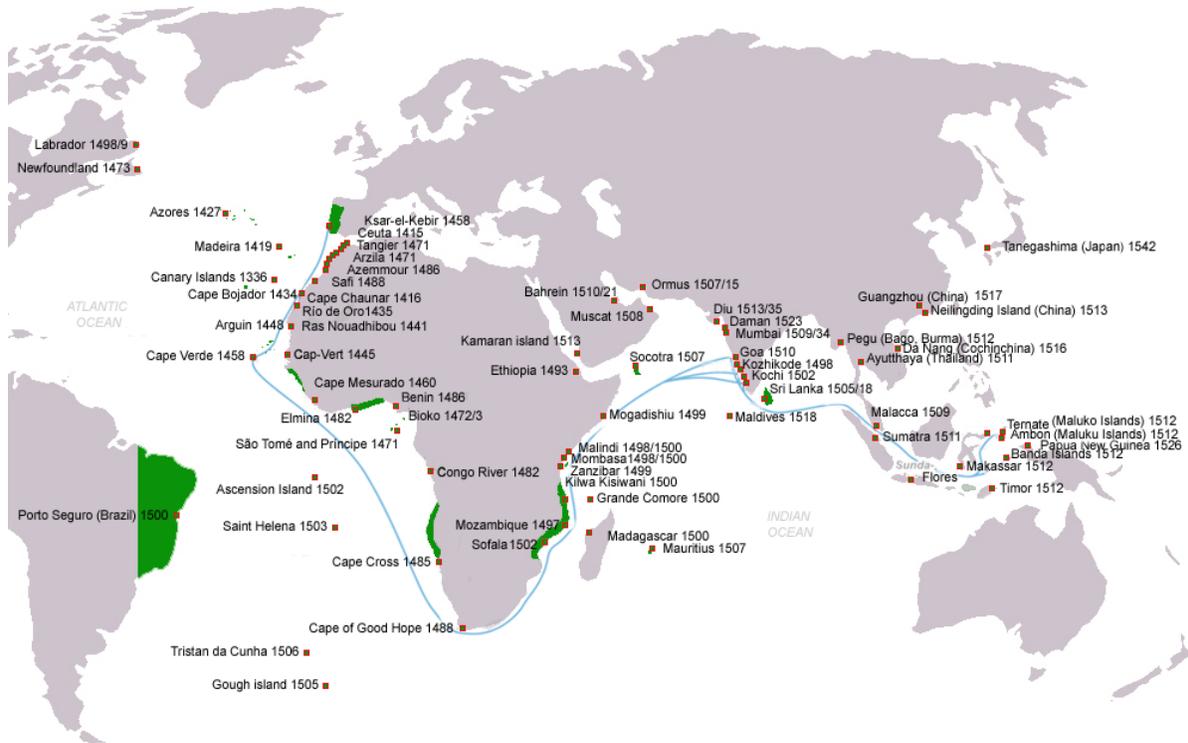


Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Casamento_Jo%C3%A3o_I_e_Filipa_Lencastre.JP>
G

*Marriage of Joao I of Portugal and Philippa of Lancaster, 1387 –
15th-century Painting*

Portugal in the Age of Exploration (1415-1640)

Portuguese Expansionism in the Age of Discovery (15th-16th centuries). Portugal led the European Age of Discovery in the 15th and 16th centuries. The Portuguese kingdom had three main objectives – trade, religion, and empire – in seeking a maritime route around Africa. Merchants in Portugal sought commercial wealth from trans-shipping European manufactures for West African gold, Indian pepper, and Southeast Asian spices. Portuguese clergy wished to promote the spread of Christianity, stem the expansion of Islam, and avenge Moorish control of southern Iberia. Portuguese royalty hoped to establish an empire of fortified trading posts around coastal Africa and across the Indian Ocean and of African-manned plantations in colonial Brazil.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at

https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Portuguese_discoveries_and_explorationsV2en.png

Portuguese Trade Routes and Settlements (Green) – 1415-1543

But Portuguese expansionism faced constraints in circumnavigating Africa. Muslim adversary states (Mamluk Egypt, Ottoman Turkey, Safavid Iran, and Mughal India) controlled the principal trade routes to India and Southeast Asia – over land on the Silk Road and through the Red Sea or Persian Gulf into the Indian Ocean. To open a new trade route around Africa that would circumvent Muslim control, the Portuguese had to overcome a geographic barrier on the

Saharan coast of northwestern Africa. Year-round northeast trade winds and ocean currents made it difficult for sailing ships to return to Europe.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Islamic_Gunpowder_Empires.jpg

The Ottoman (Red), Safavid (Purple), and Mughal (Orange) Empires, c. 1700

In the 1440s, Portuguese innovators developed the caravel ship and a new return route to solve that problem. The caravel was an ingenious combination of Mediterranean (three masts), Arab (lateen sails), and northern European (wide hull) design, and it could tack easily into the

wind despite carrying more than fifty tons. Improvements in navigation led to a northwest route via the Azores Islands where sailing ships could use westerly winds to return to Portugal.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Portuguese_Caravel.jpg>

*Portuguese Caravel Ship, 15th-century Innovation –
Led to the European Age of Exploration and Imperialism*

Portuguese Expansion in West Africa (15th century). During the 15th century, Portuguese mariners, merchants, and colonists expanded down the western coast of Africa from Morocco to the Cape.

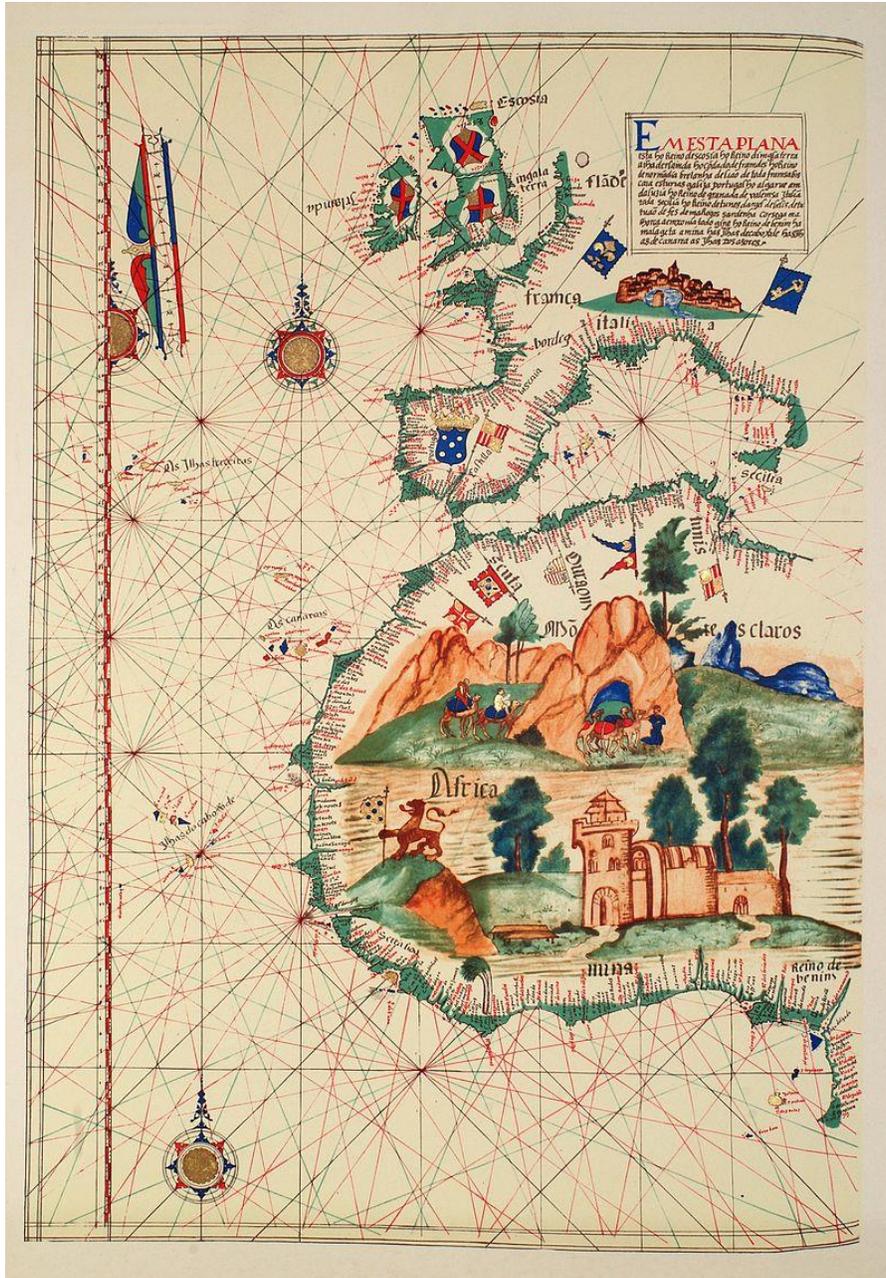
Portugal began this expansion in 1415 when it took control of the Moroccan port of Ceuta. Portuguese leaders wanted to increase their country's supplies of food and wine. Because of poor local transport systems, distant islands were more accessible than interior regions of Portugal. Portuguese leaders thus looked first to the Azores Islands and Madeira, both sited 1000 miles from the mainland and neither inhabited. Portuguese nobles used Italian capital, Portuguese migrants, and Moroccan slaves to colonize those islands and produce wheat to feed coastal cities in Portugal. In the Canary Islands, located off the Moroccan coast, Portugal conquered and enslaved the Berber inhabitants. Portuguese migrants established slave vineyards and produced wine for export to Portugal (until Spain claimed the islands in 1479).



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Henry_the_Navigator1.jpg>

*Prince Henry the Navigator (1394-1460) –
Patron and Organizer of Early Portuguese Exploration in West Africa*

After the invention of the caravel ship and the discovery of the Azores return route to Portugal in the 1440s, the Portuguese expanded into West Africa. They first colonized the uninhabited Cape Verde Islands (sited off modern Senegal) with Portuguese migrants and slaves from the African mainland. There the Portuguese pioneered slave-manned cotton and indigo plantations. Cape Verde produced inexpensive cotton textiles, dyed with indigo, for export to West Africa and Europe.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:L%C3%A1zaro_Luis_1563.jpg

*Map of West Africa By Portuguese Cartographer Lázaro Luis, 1563 –
 The Large Castle Represents Elmina Castle*

In 1481, Portugal built a fortified trading post at Elmina on the Gold Coast (modern Ghana). The Portuguese bartered slaves, cloth,

brass, and beads for Akan gold. For 70 years, gold from West Africa constituted one-tenth of the world's total and accounted for one-fifth of Portuguese national income.



*Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Elmina_Castle_-_Ghana.jpg>*

*St. George's Castle, Elmina, Ghana –
Constructed by Portuguese Colonialists in 1481*

Portuguese Expansion in Central Africa (15th-17th centuries).

São Tomé and Príncipe were small, uninhabited islands in the Gulf of Guinea (south of modern Nigeria) when the Portuguese arrived in the late 15th century. For the next two centuries, those islands played two key roles in Portugal's imperial strategy. São Tomé was the site of the first slave-based, large-scale sugar plantations, using entrepreneurship

and capital from Portuguese merchants and slave labor from the Kongo (modern northern Angola) and Benin (modern southwestern Nigeria).



*Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Gulf_of_Guinea_\(English\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Gulf_of_Guinea_(English).jpg)>*

*São Tomé and Príncipe – Located in the Gulf of Guinea
Between Nigeria and Gabon, West Africa*

São Tomé also served as Portugal's main slave-trading entrepôt in west-central Africa. Portuguese merchants engaged in the carrying trade in West Africa, providing transportation for commodities and slaves produced by others. From São Tomé, slaves purchased in the Kongo or Benin were trans-shipped mainly to Elmina for employment in the gold mines of the Gold Coast.

Before Portuguese intervention in the late 15th century, the Kongo was a large, well-established kingdom. In hopes of enhancing his political control and obtaining technicians from Portugal, the Kongo's ruler, Dom Afonso I, converted to Christianity in 1506. But Portugal sent Jesuit missionaries, not technicians, to the Kongo. Slave raiding and trading debilitated the once-flourishing kingdom, which finally collapsed about 1670.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:The_Slave_Trade_by_Auguste_Francois_Biard.jpg

The Slave Trade – by Francois-Auguste Biard, c. 1833

Southeast of the Kongo kingdom on the Atlantic coast, the Portuguese established two fortified trading posts – Luanda and Benguela – in what became known as Angola. Luanda was the first European colony on the mainland of sub-Saharan Africa, and it quickly rivaled the Kongo for Portuguese trade. Because the region lacked minerals, slaves, bound first for São Tomé and later for Brazil, were the only significant export.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Portuguese_discoveries_and_explorationsV3en.png

Portugal's Exploration and Settlements in Africa, 1415-1507

Portuguese Domination of the Indian Ocean (16th century). In the early 16th century, Portuguese ships rounded the Cape of Good Hope

and established new all-sea trade routes between Europe and Asia. Portugal had two principal goals in pioneering a marine route around Africa. Both involved competition with the expanding Ottoman Empire. The principal Portuguese motivation was commercial – to undercut Ottoman control of European-Asian trade routes and to end the Muslim monopoly of trade in the Indian Ocean. The Portuguese expected to reap huge trading profits from African gold and Asian spices.



*Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Black_Peppercorns.jpg>*

*Black Peppercorns –
The Most Valuable Spice Exported from Asia to Europe*

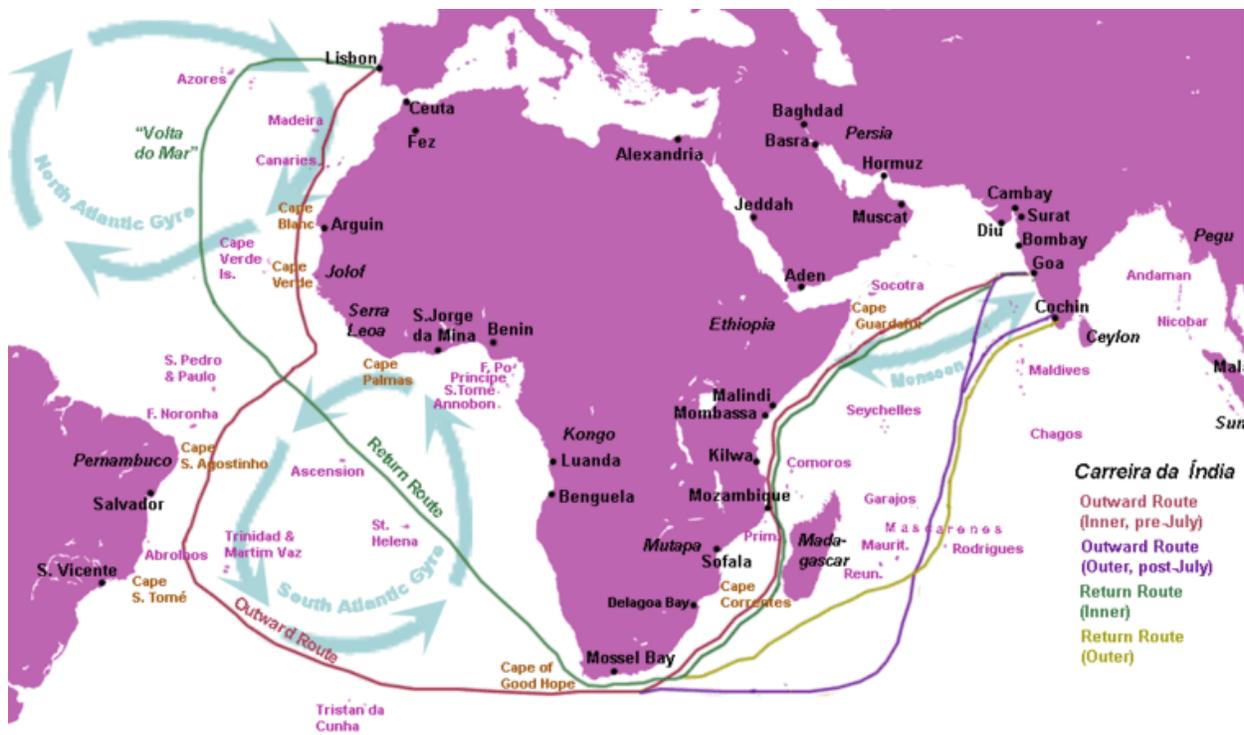
Portugal's second goal was to spread Christianity by limiting Islam in Asia and Africa. The Portuguese hoped to find Prester John, the legendary Christian king of Ethiopia, to assist their conquest of Islamic areas. In East Africa, Portugal's concentration on exporting gold from Zimbabwe led to its later colonization of Mozambique. Portuguese forces controlled key Indian Ocean ports by constructing fortresses and used superior military strength to enforce trade monopolies and collect trade taxes.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Prester_John.jpg>

*Illustration of Prester John As the Emperor of Ethiopia –
On A Map of East Africa in Queen Mary's Atlas, 1558, British Library*

Since its manpower was limited, Portugal did not attempt to control trade in interior regions. Portugal established key trading ports in Goa (1510), Malacca (1511), Hormuz (1515), Colombo (1518), and Macao (1557) and monopolized Indian Ocean trade during the 16th century.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Map_of_Portuguese_Carreira_da_India.gif

Portuguese Trade Routes To and From India, 16th century

Although Britain and the Netherlands later gained control of the Asian trade routes, Portugal continued to be the main European entrepôt for

Asian spices and diamonds until about 1650. The end of Muslim domination of Indian Ocean trade paved the way for competition between European merchant-based imperialism (British India and Dutch East Indies) and Islamic empires (Ottoman Turkey, Safavid Persia, and Mughal India).



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Cinnamomum_verum_spices.jpg

Dried Bark Strips (Quills). Bark Powder, and Flowers from the Cinnamon Tree (Cinnamomum verum) – Key Portuguese Export Item from Sri Lanka

Portuguese Colonization of Brazil (16th century). In 1500, a Portuguese fleet, commanded by Pedro Álvares Cabral, was sent to

follow Vasco da Gama's newly found trade route around the Cape of Good Hope to India. The thirteen ships blew off course in the mid-Atlantic and landed at Porto Seguro (on the coast of present-day Bahia). The accidentally-discovered territory received the name Brazil from Portuguese merchants who followed to gather brazilwood, a source of red dye, and called the area Terra do Brasil.



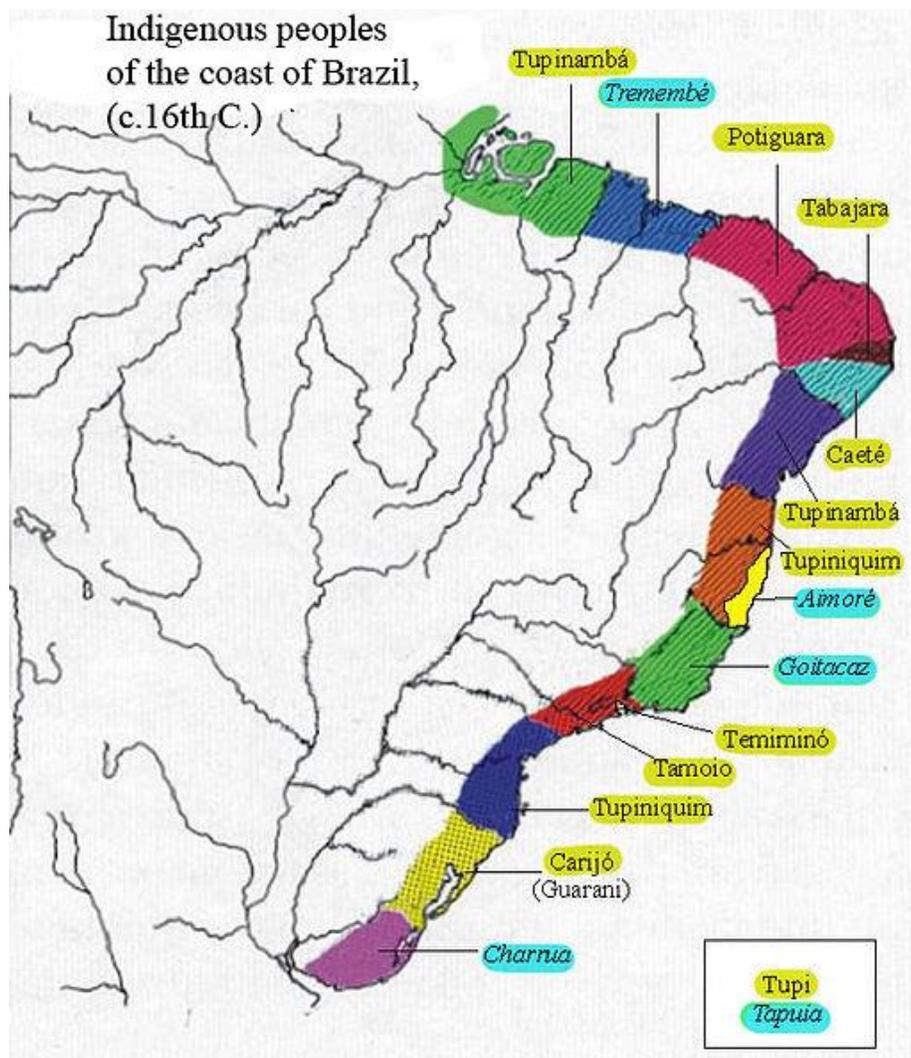
*Source: Wikimedia Commons available
at<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Pedro Alvares Cabral.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Pedro_Alvares_Cabral.jpg)>*

*Pedro Álvares Cabral (1467-1520) –
Discovered Brazil for Portugal in 1500*

Brazil then was inhabited by 2-3 million Amerindian peoples.

Tupí tribes predominated in the coastal areas and were the first Indian

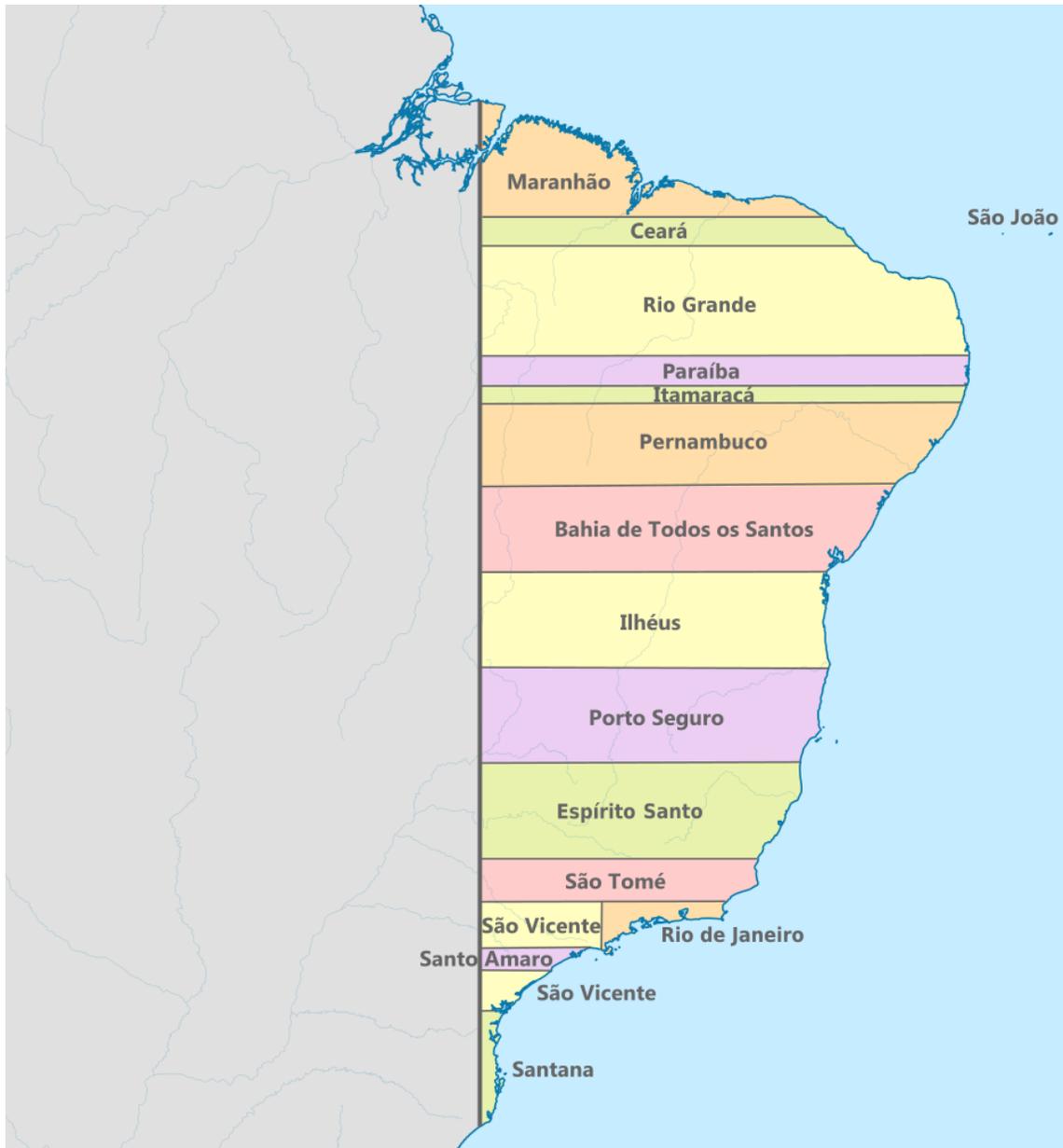
group to make contact with the Portuguese. After depleting coastal supplies of brazilwood, the Portuguese explorers ventured inland. The profits from that trade attracted French traders who challenged Portuguese territorial claims.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Map_of_indigenous_peoples_of_Brazil_\(16th_C.\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Map_of_indigenous_peoples_of_Brazil_(16th_C.).jpg)>

Indigenous Amerindian Peoples of Coastal Brazil, 16th century

King João III dispatched Martim Afonso de Sousa to colonize Brazil with the purpose of establishing coastal fortifications to forestall foreign invaders (1530-1533). The king, through de Sousa, lavishly distributed the large landmass among a small number of colonists. The Portuguese settlers introduced wheat, grapevines, sugarcane, and cattle. In 1555, the French established France Antartique around Guanabara Bay, a rich source of brazilwood. In 1565, Governor-general Mem de Sá established Rio de Janeiro as a base from which to attack the French and succeeded in removing them in 1567. Rio de Janeiro quickly grew due to the ability of its harbor to serve as an export point, particularly for the growing sugar industry, which used enslaved Amerindians for labor. The number of Portuguese settlers in Brazil expanded from 2,000 in the 1540s to about 25,000 in 1600 and to perhaps 50,000 by 1650.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Brazil_in_1534.svg>

Original Portuguese Land Grants in Brazil – Pictured in 1534

Economic and Political Change in Portugal (1415-1640).

Portugal enjoyed prosperity in the 15th and 16th centuries, based on its trading profits from African gold, Asian spices, and Brazilian sugar. In

the Treaty of Alcaçovas (1479), Spain recognized Portugal's rights to the Azores, Madeira, Cape Verde, West Africa, and the Cape of Good Hope trade route, whereas Portugal ceded the Canary Islands to Spain. The tabulation of Portugal's first census, in 1532, arrived at a range of 1 to 1.5 million residents, including 65,000 in Lisbon.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Don_Sebastian_de_Portugal.JPG?

*Portugal's Foolhardy King Sebastian –
Died at the Battle of El-Ksar-el-Kebir, 1578*

Portugal's downhill slide began in 1578. Its foolhardy king, Sebastian, led an invasion into Morocco, and his unprepared army of 26,000 troops was annihilated at the Battle of El-Ksar-el-Kebir.

Sebastian was killed in battle, and Portugal paid huge ransoms for its prisoners. Two years later, Philip II, the King of Spain, invaded Lisbon and forcibly claimed the vacant crown of Portugal. Initially, the union of Portugal with Spain received wide support within the Portuguese aristocracy. That support waned in 1588, when the Spanish Armada was routed by England (31 of the 146 ships in the Armada were Portuguese). Spain lost half its ships and three-quarters of its sailors.



*Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
>https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Spanish_Armada.jpg>*

English Defeat of the Spanish Armada, August 8, 1588 – Painting by Philip James de Loutherberg, 1796, National Maritime Museum, London

In 1640, Portugal regained its independence under King João IV. Spain was weakened because of its foreign wars and a rebellion in the Spanish province of Catalonia. Spain's demand that Portugal help suppress that rebellion triggered Portuguese secession and began a 28-year war of attrition. Half of Portugal's aristocracy remained loyal to Spain in the struggle, but the Portuguese nationalists persevered.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at

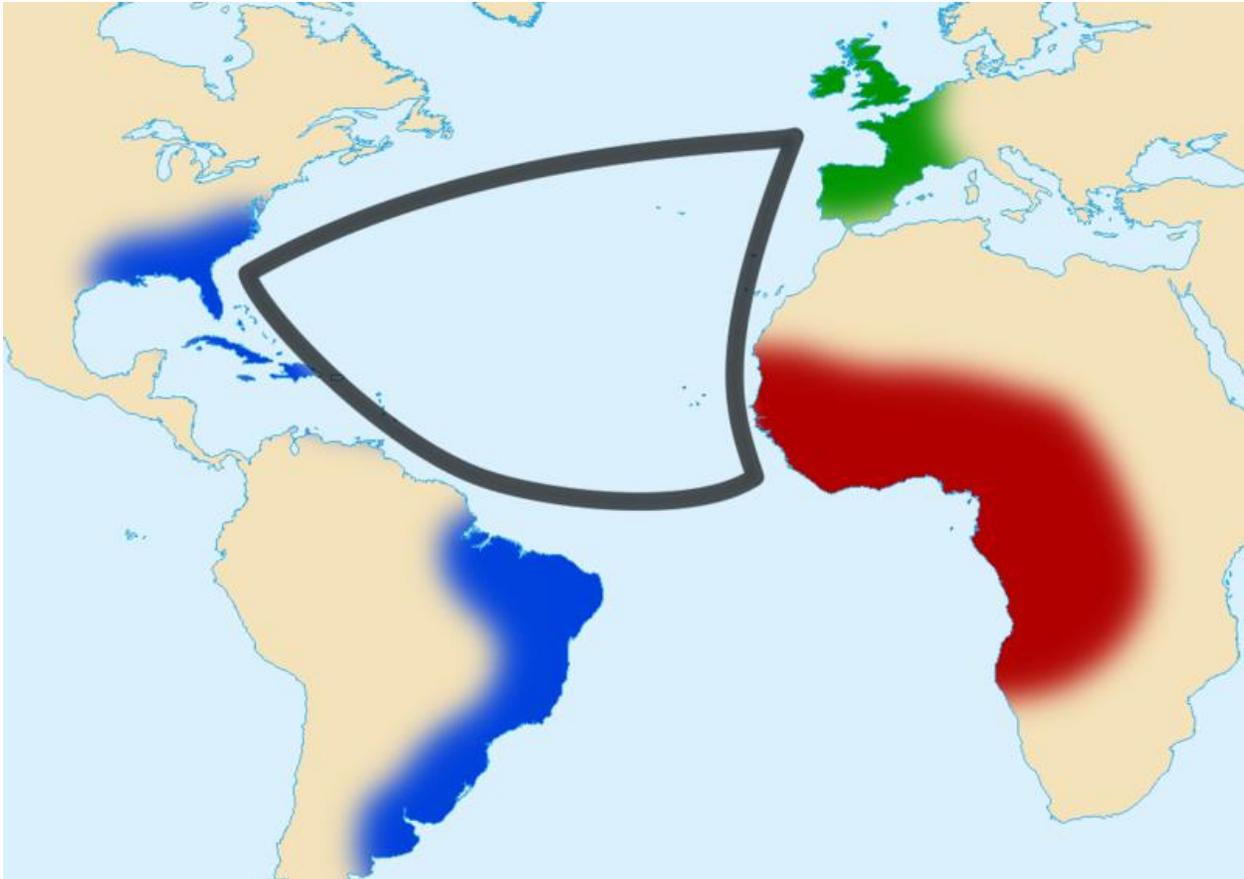
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:P%C3%A9ninsule_ib%C3%A9rique_en_1700.png>

Portugal in 1700 – After Winning Independence from Spain in 1668

Portuguese Colonialism in Brazil and Africa (1640-1822)

The Atlantic Slave Trade. After the opening of labor-intensive plantations in the Americas to produce sugar and cotton in the late 16th century, Portugal, Great Britain, France, and the Netherlands became heavily involved in the African slave trade across the Atlantic Ocean. Slavery in Africa had long pre-dated the Atlantic slave trade. Early African kingdoms practiced slavery widely, and there was a longstanding export of African slaves to Arab areas.

The enormous demand for African slaves in the Americas greatly accelerated slave-raiding in Africa. The Atlantic slave trade followed a triangular pattern – European cloth and other manufactures were sent to Africa and exchanged for African slaves, the slaves were shipped to the Americas and traded for sugar, rum, and other American commodities, and the American goods were carried to Europe and swapped for European manufactures.

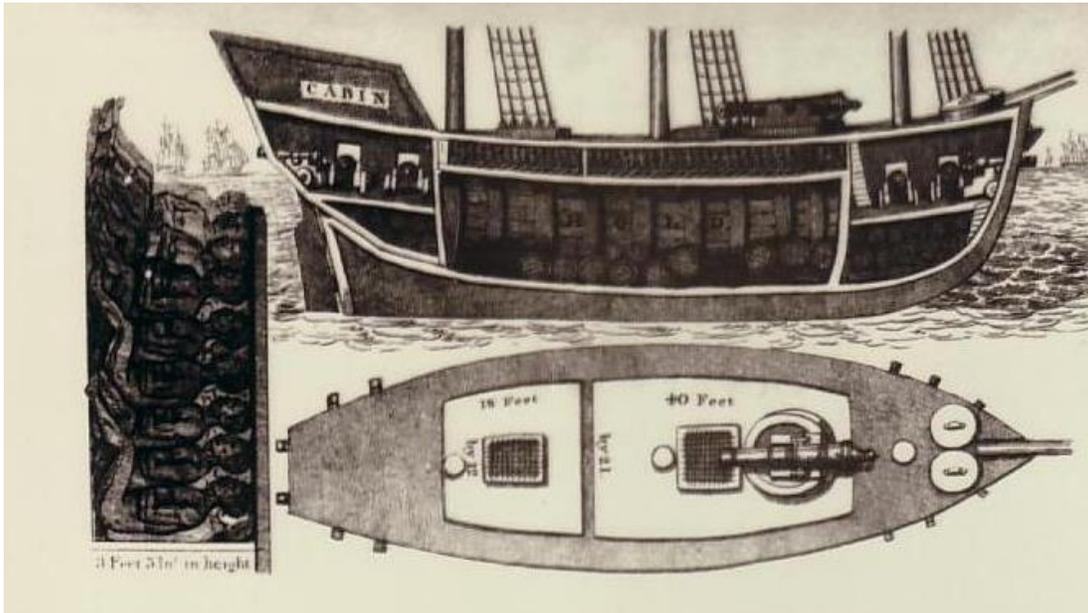


*Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Triangular_trade.png>*

Triangular Trade Route – Europe, Africa, and America

About 9.5 million African slaves survived the horrendous Atlantic crossing. Of that total, 300,000 slaves were transported in the 16th century, 1.3 million in the 17th, 6 million in the 18th, and 1.9 million in the 19th. Most of the slaves were shipped to the Caribbean (3.8 million) and Brazil (3.7 million). The Guianas (in northern South America) took

1.6 million African slaves, whereas the United States received only 400,000.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Diagram_of_a_slave_ship.jpg>

Diagram of a British Slave Ship – British Library, London

The slave trade devastated raided areas (especially the Middle Belt of West Africa and the Congo Basin) and slowed African adaptation of new techniques to produce legitimate exports. But the sub-Saharan African population grew (to about 60 million by 1800) because of the introduction of American food crops (maize, cassava, and beans). When the Atlantic slave trade was abolished in the 19th century, slave prices fell and the practice of slavery within Africa expanded significantly.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Cassava.jpg>>

*Cassava Roots After Harvest in West Africa –
Staple Food Crop Introduced from Brazil by the Portuguese*

Imperial Linkages – Portugal, Brazil, and Angola. Portugal's moment in history was the century that began in 1481 with the construction of Elmina and ended in 1580 when Portugal was absorbed into archrival Spain for 60 years. By then, the English and Dutch had claimed most of the lucrative Asian trade around the Cape of Good Hope and across the Indian Ocean. A weaker Portugal then shifted focus from Asia to its new colony in Brazil.

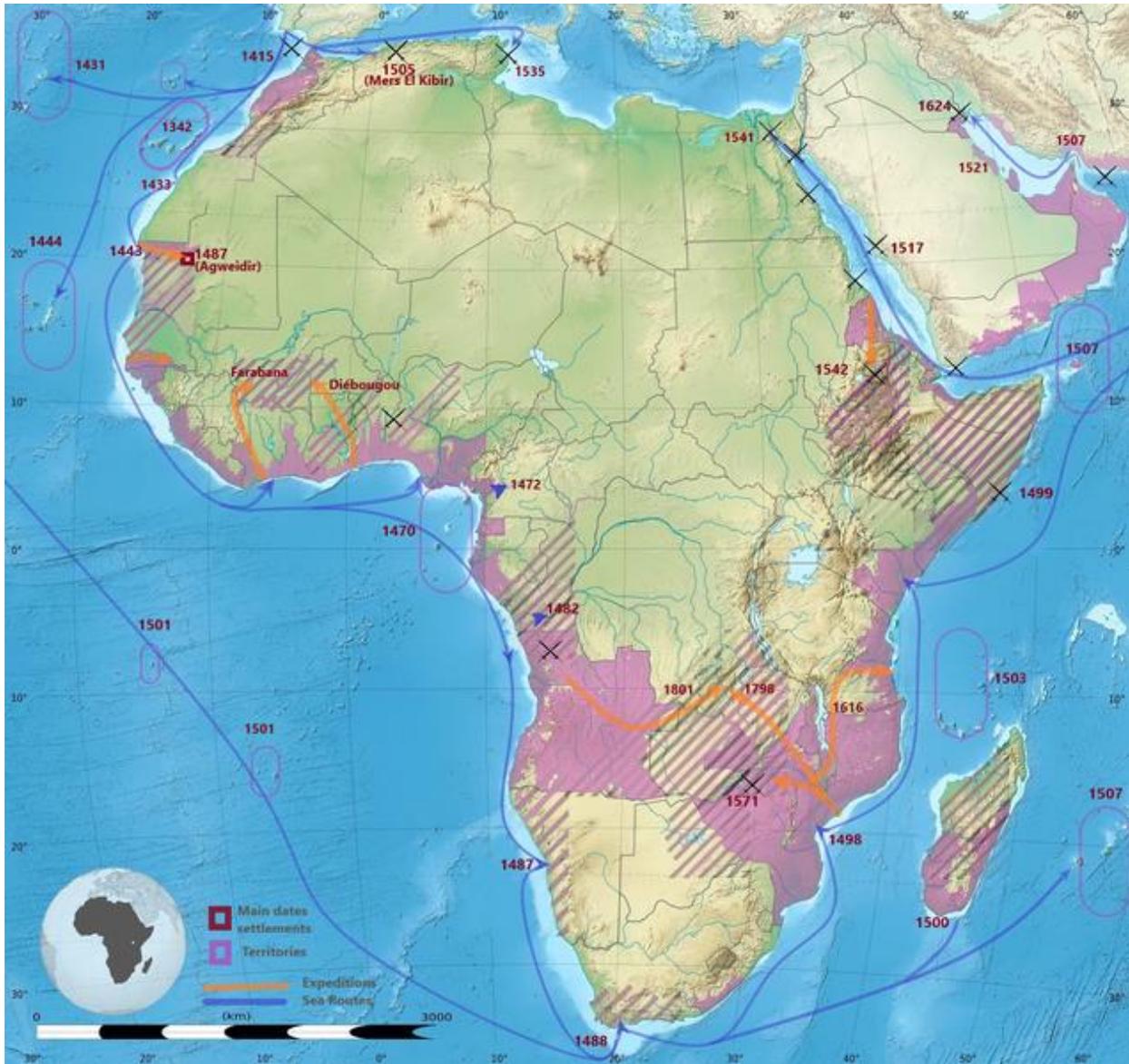
Brazil needed manpower to underpin its export booms in sugar (17th century), gold (18th century), and coffee (19th century). Portuguese merchants transferred African slaves from Angola (and later Mozambique) to Brazil. They ran the slave trade from Brazil, took their profits there (to protect against European competitors in Africa), and in the process left Portuguese Africa undeveloped.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:16th_century_Portuguese_Spanish_trade_routes.png>

Portuguese (Blue) and Spanish (White) Convoy Routes in the 16th century – Portuguese Ships Crossed from Rio de Janeiro to Lisbon

Portugal structured the slave trade in Angola to undermine the legitimate kingdoms there. In their place arose new broker kingdoms of warriors-traders based on the slave trade. The Imbangala kingdom inland of Luanda was a confederation of ethnic groups who gained wealth from the slave trade, and the Ovimbundu people formed slave-trading kingdoms in the highlands east of Benguela. Portugal was not strong enough to conquer those broker kingdoms, but they allied with them since both sides depended on the slave trade.

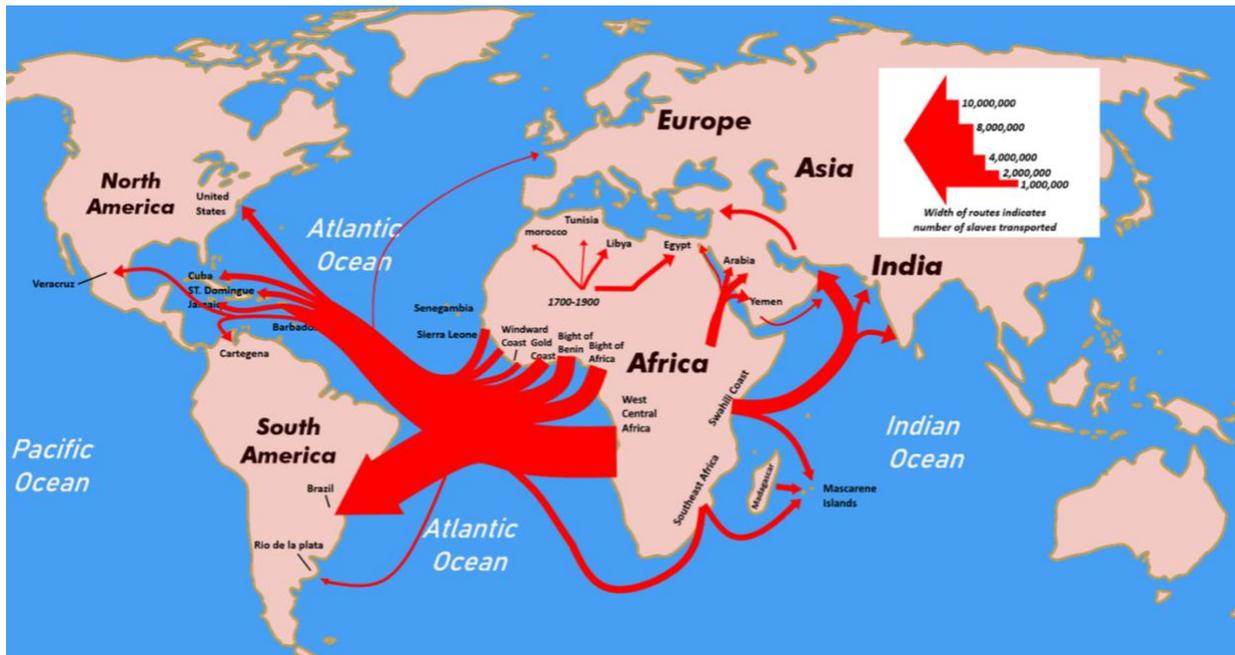


Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Africa_Portuguese_Empire_1342-1801.jpg.png

The Portuguese Empire in Africa, 1415-1800

Textiles (Portuguese or Cape Verdean cottons, French linens, and Italian silks) constituted about half of the value of the goods bartered for slaves in Africa, whereas alcoholic beverages (spirits and wine)

accounted for another fifth and guns and ammunition a further tenth. Brazil's importation of slaves, mostly from Angola, increased from 100,000 slaves in the late 16th century to 600,000 (in the 17th century), 1.4 million (18th century), and 1.6 million (19th century).



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:African_Slave_Trade.png

The Capture and Export of African Slaves, 1500-1900

International Dependence – Britain, Portugal, and Brazil.

During its War of Independence from Spain (1640-1668), Portugal began three centuries of international dependence on Britain. In treaties negotiated in 1654 and 1661, the Portuguese crown permitted Britain to

trade advantageously in the Portuguese empire in exchange for the right to hire British mercenaries. In 1662, the alliance was cemented with a dynastic marriage between Charles II of England and Catherine of Bragança. In the dowry, Portugal gave Bombay, Tangiers, and two million pieces of gold to Britain.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Wedding_of_King_Charles_II_and_Catherine_of_Braganza.png>

The Wedding of King Charles II of England and Catherine of Braganza, 1662 – Engraving c. 1662, National Portrait Gallery, London

Portugal's economic dependence on Britain soon deepened. Through the Treaty of Methuen (1703), Britain gave preferential access to Portuguese wine and agricultural products and Portugal granted trade preferences to British manufactures. In the 1720s, British entrepreneurs began fortifying Portuguese wine with brandy and exporting the port wine from Porto to England. British manufactures sold in Portugal and Brazil far surpassed Britain's imports from Portuguese territories, and Portugal had to make up the deficits with Brazilian gold.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Cockburn%27s_Port_Lodge_Version_2_\(384595175_94\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Cockburn%27s_Port_Lodge_Version_2_(384595175_94).jpg)>

*Cockburn's Port Lodge, Vila Nova de Gaia, Portugal –
English-owned Producers Dominated Portugal's Port Wine Industry*

Portugal's dependence on Britain intensified during the Napoleonic Wars. When France and Spain invaded Portugal in 1807, the British navy moved the Portuguese court to Brazil. For the next fourteen years, Portugal was a virtual protectorate of Britain, run by William Beresford, the British commander of the Portuguese armed forces. In 1810, Britain forced the Portuguese king in Brazil, João VI, to grant Britain generous trade preferences for British goods sold in Brazil and to give Britain exclusive rights to build and maintain ships in Brazil. The Treaty of Navigation and Commerce (1810) initiated Brazil's 19th-century economic dependence on Britain.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Embarque da Fam%C3%ADlia Real para o Brasil - Nicolas-Louis-Albert Delerive, attrib. \(Museu Nacional dos Coches\).png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Embarque_da_Fam%C3%ADlia_Real_para_o_Brasil_-_Nicolas-Louis-Albert_Delerive,_attrib._(Museu_Nacional_dos_Coches).png)>

*Embarkation of the Portuguese Royal Family to Brazil, 1807 –
Painting by Nicolas-Louis-Albert Delerive, 19th century*

Economic and Political Change in Portugal (1640-1820). After winning its long war with Spain (1640-1668), Portugal enjoyed more than a century of political stability, buttressed by British military protection. Three long-lived rulers held the crown for 110 years. Pedro II (1667-1706) followed a policy of nationalist mercantilism, practiced fiscal responsibility, and promoted local industry (textiles, glass). João V (1706-1750) was an absolutist, refusing to call meetings of parliament, and a successful imperialist, benefiting from the booms in

Brazilian gold and diamonds (although extensive smuggling prevented the crown from taking its legislated one-fifth share of the newfound riches).



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Mafra_\(27595630149\)_cropped.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Mafra_(27595630149)_cropped.jpg)>

*Palace-monastery, Mafra, Portugal –
Built (1717-1755) by Portuguese King Joao V with Brazilian Gold*

José I (1750-1777) took little interest in ruling directly and instead gave full control to Sebastião de Carvalho, the Marquis de Pombal, an enlightened despot. Pombal was brilliant, charismatic, and brutal. He favored industrialization, government monopolies, trade protection, and bureaucracy. He thus curbed the powers of the nobility, supported the

bourgeois merchants, persecuted the Jesuits, reformed public administration, especially tax collection, and redesigned the education system. He also rebuilt Lisbon after a disastrous earthquake in 1755. But he lost power in 1777, when José I died, and his reforms had little lasting effect.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Sebasti%C3%A3oJoseph.png>>

Sebastião José de Carvalho e Melo, the Marquis of Pombal – Secretary of State for Internal Affairs and Virtual Ruler of Portugal, 1750-1777

Portugal was very dependent on its colonies to create wealth, and most of that wealth accrued to the court and the nobility and not to the rural masses. Three-fourths of Portugal's exports came from its overseas territories (gold, diamonds, and sugar from Brazil, slaves from Africa, and spices from Asia), and three-fourths of its imports were transshipped to its colonies. The population of Portugal grew slowly – from 2 million at the census in 1732 to about 3 million by 1800.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Minas_geiras_moneta_d%27oro_del_brasile_portoghese_xviii_sec.JPG>

*Portuguese Colonial Brazilian Gold Coin –
Minted in Minas Gerais, Southeastern Brazil, 18th century*

Colonial Economy of Brazil. The governors-general of Brazil encouraged agriculture, especially sugar cultivation, to replace brazilwood exports. However, the labor-intensive sugar plantations suffered a shortage of workers. The Amerindians proved difficult to incorporate into the colonial system – as slaves, peasants, or wage-workers. In the mid-16th century, Brazil began to import slaves from Africa. The Dutch occupied sugar-rich Pernambuco in northeastern Brazil in 1630, but the Portuguese reclaimed the region in 1654.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Frans_Post_-_Engenho_de_Pernambuco.jpg>

*Slave-based Sugarcane Production in Pernambuco, Portuguese Brazil –
Painting by Frans Post, 17th century*

The principal commodity exports from Brazil in the first two centuries of colonization were sugar, produced mainly in the northeast, and gold and diamonds, mined mostly in Minas Gerais in the center-south. Brazil led the world in sugar production in the 17th century, but later was out-competed by British, Dutch, and French sugar planters in the Caribbean.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:-i---i-_\(6288971321\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:-i---i-_(6288971321).jpg)>

*Ouro Preto, Minas Gerais, Brazil –
Portuguese Town Founded during the 18th-century Gold Rush*

In the 18th century, Brazil produced 2 million pounds of gold (80 percent of the world's total) and 2.4 million carats of diamonds. The European ships that came to collect those exports brought manufactured goods, wine, wheat flour, codfish, butter, cheese, and salt to Brazil. Brazil's economy went through phases of prosperity based on a single export, punctuated by periods of economic decline, cycling through brazilwood, sugar, gold, diamonds, tobacco, cotton, cocoa, rubber, and coffee. Portugal extracted wealth from the colony by imposing several taxes, including duties on trade and direct shares of production, and through its mercantilist policy of preventing Brazil from manufacturing any goods it could import from Portugal. The population of Brazil grew rapidly – from 150,000 in the mid-17th century to 1.5 million in the 1770s and then to 3.6 million in 1819 (of whom half were slaves).



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:PacoImperial1.jpg>>

*The Paço Imperial, 18th-century Colonial Palace in Rio de Janeiro –
Used as a Dispatch House by João VI, Last Portuguese King of Brazil*

Transition to Brazilian Independence. Disgruntlement with the colonial system gradually increased in Brazil. Brazil contained a larger population than Portugal and had the greatest economic potential in the Portuguese empire. Plantation owners came to resent the advantages enjoyed by Portuguese traders in the coastal cities, and urban intellectuals complained about the inequity of the colonial mercantilist system. Both groups felt that an unjust, exploitative system prevented

Brazil from realizing its potential. However, the *inconfidências* (insurrections) of Minas Gerais (1789), Rio de Janeiro (1794), Bahia (1798), and Pernambuco (1801) and the rebellion in Pernambuco (1817) were short-lived and brutally suppressed.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Museu_da_Inconfid%C3%A2ncia_\(2\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Museu_da_Inconfid%C3%A2ncia_(2).jpg)>

*Museu da Inconfidência, Ouro Preto, Minas Gerais –
Museum Established in 1938 to Commemorate Those Who Died
in the Insurrections Against Portuguese Rule*

In 1807, Napoleon’s invasion of Portugal compelled the Portuguese court to flee to Brazil, becoming the only European monarchs to rule an empire from a colony. The British safeguarded the

Portuguese royal family's passage to Brazil in return for privileged access to the Brazilian market. England soon became the principal supplier of manufactured goods to Brazil. But that change forced Portugal to allow manufacturing to begin in Brazil, initially small textile factories and iron and steel mills.



*Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Portrait_of_Dom_Pedro,_Duke_of_Bragan%C3%A7a_-_Google_Art_Project_edited.jpeg>*

*Emperor Pedro I of Brazil, Declared Independence from Portugal, 1822
– Pictured in 1835*

In 1815, Brazil was elevated to the status of a kingdom, the equal of Portugal. Political turmoil in Portugal forced the king, João VI, to return to Europe in 1821, leaving behind his son, Pedro, as Prince Regent of Brazil. The wealthy and politically powerful leaders of Rio de Janeiro, São Paulo, and Minas Gerais pressured Pedro to refuse an order by the Portuguese Parliament to return to Portugal. The Brazilian nationalist, José Bonifácio, convinced Pedro to declare independence, and he was crowned Emperor of Brazil in 1822. To Portugal's chagrin, Britain supported Brazilian independence.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Brazil_in_1822.svg>

*Political Divisions in Brazil, 1822 –
At the Time of Independence from Portugal*

Modern Portugal (1820-present)

Constitutional Monarchy (1820-1851). Portugal experienced a political revolution between 1820 and 1851, evolving from an absolute to a constitutional monarchy. Urban liberals triumphed over rural conservatives. The American and French Revolutions in the late 18th century had demonstrated the importance of constitutional freedoms – of speech, religion, press, commerce, and industry – and highlighted the disadvantages of despotism. After the Napoleonic Wars, two external shocks – British occupation of Portugal (1807-1820) and Brazilian independence from Portugal (1822) – gave Portuguese liberals an opportunity for radical political change. They staged a *coup d'état* in 1820, expelled the British, wrote a new constitution, and ended feudalistic ties and taxes.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Coat_of_Arms_of_the_Kingdom_of_Portugal_1640-1910_\(3\).svg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Coat_of_Arms_of_the_Kingdom_of_Portugal_1640-1910_(3).svg)>

*Portugal's 1820 Revolution and New Constitution Ended Feudalism –
Royal Coat of Arms of the Kingdom of Portugal (1640-1910)*

Political instability marked the three decades of revolutionary change. Portugal had 40 governments in the 31 years after 1820. Portuguese leaders were forced to invite foreign interventions five times (in 1823, 1824, 1828-1834, 1836, and 1847). Britain was Portugal's main protector. The urban liberals won a brutal civil war (1832-1834) over the rural absolutists with British naval assistance.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Liberal_Wars.jpg>

*Portugal's War of Two Brothers (1828-1834) –
Pedro (and Britain) versus Miguel (and Spain)*

During the end of the transitional period (1839-1851), António Cabral, the Minister of Justice, dominated Portuguese politics. Cabral introduced authoritarian liberalism, and his innovations – fiscal reform, administrative centralization, road construction, and land registers – became known as *Cabralismo*. In 1846, the Maria da Fonte revolt, led by rural women, spread throughout the conservative Minho region of northern Portugal in response to the new policies of land registration and

the banning of burials in churches. The liberal government contained the rural rebellion and ensured the success of Portugal's political revolution.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at [https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Maria_da_Fonte_\(Roque_Gameiro,_Quadros_da_Hist%C3%B3ria_de_Portugal,_1917\).png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Maria_da_Fonte_(Roque_Gameiro,_Quadros_da_Hist%C3%B3ria_de_Portugal,_1917).png)

Maria da Fonte Rebellion, 1846 – Painting by Roque Gameiro, 1917

Parliamentary Regime (1851-1910). The liberal goal of parliamentary political control was achieved during the second half of the 19th century, when Portugal enjoyed peace, stability, and progress. A new middle class of landed oligarchs used parliamentary power to

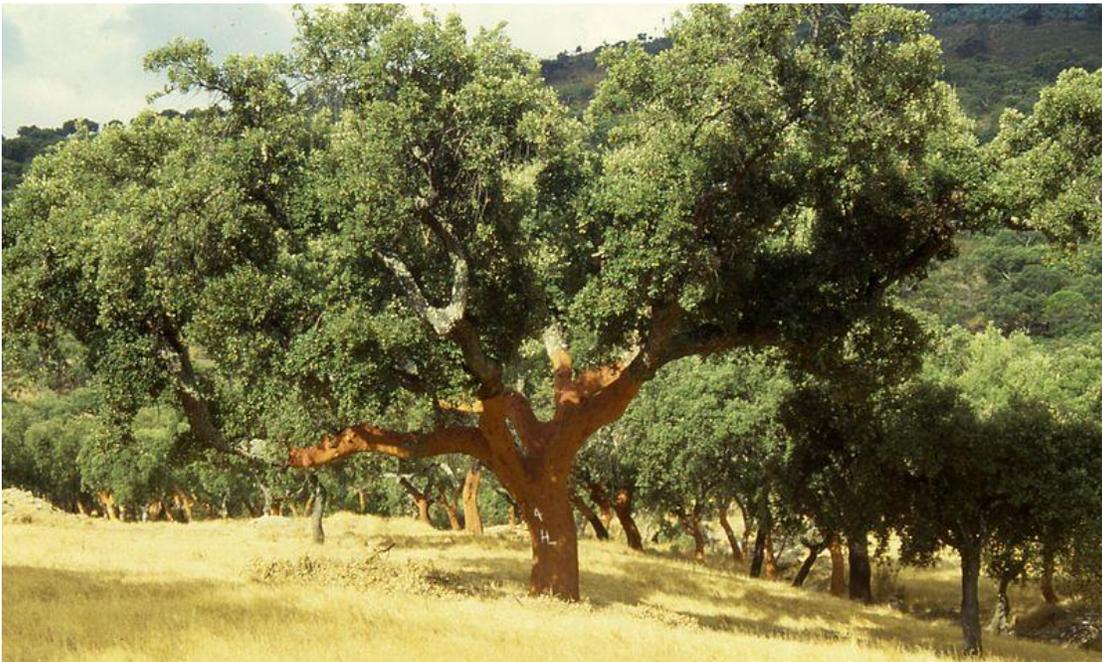
enhance their interests. In 1851, General João Carlos Saldanha engineered a military coup to replace Cabral's technocratic dictatorship with a new Age of Regeneration. Two political parties, the conservative Regenerators and the liberal Progressives, agreed to rotate power through a system of pre-decided elections. Local party bosses (*caciques*) delivered the votes in a patronage system. Fontes Pereira de Melo, the leader of the Regenerators for 35 years, implemented public works projects (roads, railways, ports, and telegraph lines).



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Fontes_Pereira_de_Melo.jpg>

Fontes Pereira de Melo (1819-1887), Leader of the Regenerators

Domestic stability, the absence of foreign wars, low tariffs, and international economic buoyancy allowed steady economic progress in Portugal. Wine and cork were Portugal's leading exports. Industrial expansion, led by textiles, leather, and glassware, was gradual. Portugal's population grew from 3.5 million in 1850 to 5.5 million in 1910.

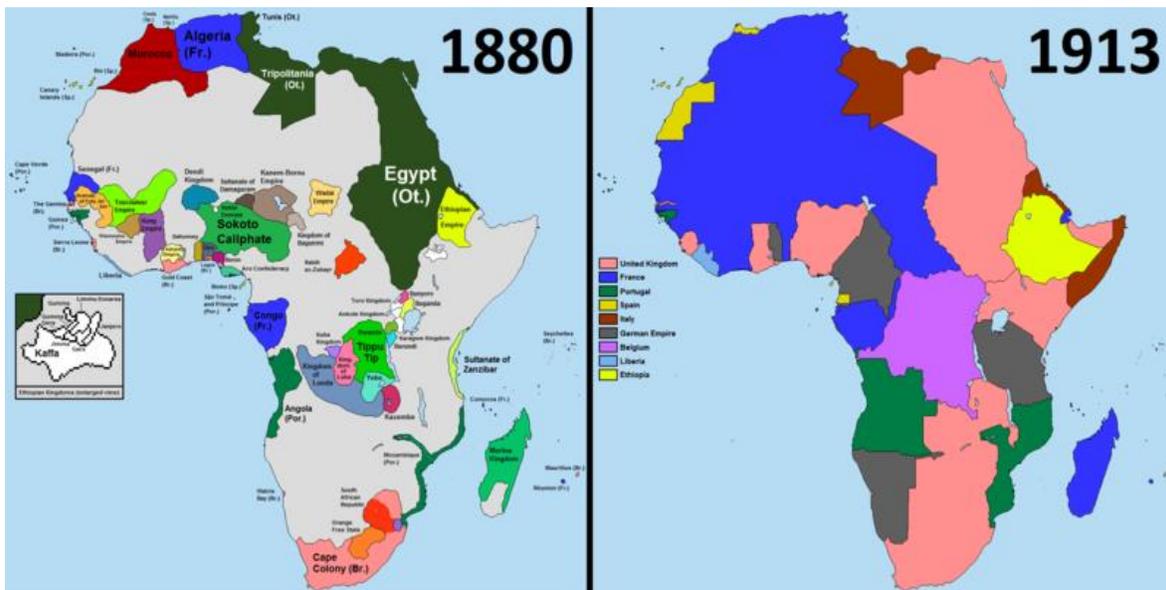


Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:KorkeichePortugal1994.jpg>>

*Cork Oak Trees (Quercus suber) in the Alentejo –
Cork Bark is Harvested Every Nine Years*

After the slave trade ended in the mid-19th century, Portugal did little to develop its main African colonies, Angola and Mozambique.

Portuguese leaders drew a rose-colored map in 1886 that envisioned their control of south-central Africa (modern Zambia, Zimbabwe, and Malawi). In 1890, however, Lord Salisbury of Great Britain issued an ultimatum demanding that Portugal withdraw from that disputed region, and the Portuguese were forced to comply. To stave off continued threats from Britain and Germany, Portugal then initiated a program of exploration, settlement, and development, including chartered companies in Mozambique and coffee plantations in Angola.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at <https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Scramble-for-Africa-1880-1913.png>

European Colonialism in Africa, 1880 and 1913 – Portugal (Green in 1913), Britain (Pink), France (Blue), Germany (Brown), Belgium (Lavender), and Italy (Red)

Unstable Republic (1910-1926). A revolution in 1910, which began as a naval mutiny, ended the constitutional monarchy in Portugal, and the last king, Manuel II, went into exile in Britain. Two years earlier, republican fanatics had assassinated King Carlos and his heir in Portugal's only regicide.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:L%27attentat_de_Lisbonne.jpg>

The Lisbon Regicide, 1908 – Republican Assassination of King Carlos I and His Heir Apparent, Luis Filipe, Prince Royal of Portugal

The Republican Revolution had radical goals – to end the monarchy, introduce freedom of religion, ban monasteries, and carry out

agrarian reform, social welfare programs, and progressive taxation.

Republican rhetoric aimed at introducing full democracy, overthrowing upper-class control, and aiding Portugal's large underserved population.

The main political party, the Portuguese Republican Party, espoused socialist principles but introduced liberal policies.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Estremoz13.jpg>>

*Proclamation of the Portuguese Republic, October 1916 –
Allegorical Figure Rising Above the Politicians and Military*

Inept leadership and widespread opposition led to political instability, the worst in Europe at that time. In 16 years, Portugal had 7

parliamentary elections and 45 governments. In 1916, Portugal joined the Allied side in World War I and sent 40,000 troops to fight in France. Sidonio Pais ruled as a military dictator in 1917- 1918 and brought fascist ministers into his cabinet before he was assassinated. The republicans met their goals of ending the monarchy and curbing the power of the Catholic Church, but they failed to achieve any of their ambitious socio-economic objectives. There was no agrarian reform, no social program, and no vote for women (and thus no full democracy).

After a brief post-war economic boom, Portugal, along with the rest of Europe, suffered from a major depression in the 1920s. The standard of living of middle-class Portuguese was halved. Conservative Catholic army officers, members of the large subversive opposition, staged a coup d'état in 1926 and ended the unsuccessful republican experiment.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Universitat_de_Co%C3%AFmbra_-_Biblioteca.JPG>

*Library of Coimbra University –
Hotbed of Conservative Support for the 1926 Military Coup*

Repressive Dictatorship (1926-1974). The military coup of 1926 ushered in a half century of authoritarian conservatism. General Oscar Carmona became president in the midst of an economic crisis. In 1928, he appointed António de Oliveira Salazar, a professor of political economy, as his finance minister. By slashing expenditures and raising taxes to balance the national budget, Salazar gained political credibility. He pushed through a constitution in 1933, which gave him, as prime minister, full dictatorial powers and established his totalitarian state.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Dr. Oliveira Salazar -
Ilustra%C3%A7%C3%A3o Portuguesa \(06Set1942\).png](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Dr._Oliveira_Salazar_-_Ilustra%C3%A7%C3%A3o_Portuguesa_(06Set1942).png)>

Antonio de Oliveira Salazar (1889-1970), Professor of Economics and Dictator of Portugal, 1933-1968 – Pictured in 1942

Salazar's goals were to promote nationalism, industrialization, and colonialism in Africa. He stayed in power by dispensing favors to his supporters – the military, businessmen (ten families held half of Portugal's wealth), the Catholic Church hierarchy, right-wing intellectuals, and monarchists. His principal policies were repression of political dissent (through a secret police force), state control of business, limits on wages and workers' rights, and public works (roads and bridges). Salazar, a bachelor with little charisma, ruled for 35 years until

he was incapacitated by a stroke in 1968. Under his direction, Portugal experienced constant fear, slow economic growth, and wide income inequality.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Ponte_25_de_Abril_Lisboa.jpg>

The 25th of April Bridge, Crossing the Tagus River in Lisbon – 1.4 Miles Long, Opened in 1966, Named Salazar Bridge Until 1974

Salazar chose Marcelo Caetano, a professor of law, as his successor. Although Caetano was in the less conservative wing of Salazar's party, the National Union, he continued Salazar's policies with only one significant change – an encouragement of foreign investment.



Source: Wikimedia Commons, available at
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Marcello Jos%C3%A9 das Neves Alves Caetano, Primeiro-ministro portugu%C3%AAs.tif](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Marcello_Jos%C3%A9_das_Neves_Alves_Caetano,_Primeiro-ministro_portugu%C3%AAs.tif)>

Marcelo Caetano, Professor of Law and Dictator of Portugal, 1968-1974 – Pictured in 1969

Those hoping for greater democratization claimed that Caetano had signaled left but turned right. Caetano was saddled with Portugal's unpopular and costly wars in its African colonies, which occupied 150,000 troops and took nearly half of the country's budget.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Portuguese_colonial_war_blank_map.svg>

Portugal's Colonies in Africa – Cape Verde, Guinea-Bissau, Sao Tomé and Principe, Angola, and Mozambique (From Left to Right)

Stable Democracy (1974-present). African war fatigue spread throughout Portugal in the 1960s. Disgruntled officers formed the secret Armed Forces Movement (AFM) in 1973 to plan a *coup d'état*. Their second attempt, the Revolution of the Carnations on April 25, 1974, was

successful. The bloodless military coup enjoyed widespread support from politicians, workers, and students. The New State crumbled, and Caetano was exiled. The AFM set up coalition governments that included all major political parties, but the Communist Party was the best-organized and its influence increased throughout 1974 and 1975.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:25_de_Abril_sempre_Henrique_Matos.jpg>

Portugal's Revolution of the Carnations, April 25, 1974

The changes in economic policy were revolutionary. The transitional governments nationalized banks, insurance companies, and 20 percent of Portuguese industry. They collectivized agriculture in the

Alentejo and settled 150,000 farm workers on 1 million hectares (formerly owned by 1,300 families). They granted independence to all Portuguese colonies (except Macao).

Following the 1976 election, the policy of state control of the economy was reversed. General Ramalho Eanes was elected president in 1976 and served as a unifying political force. During the next decade, Portugal went through a fragile transition. The four main parties entered into eight coalition governments.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:25_Abril_1983_Porto_by_Henrique_Matos_01.jpg>

Anti-government Demonstration in Porto, 1983

1986 was a watershed year. The Social Democrats (a center- right party) gained a parliamentary majority, the popular Socialist leader, Mário Soares, was elected president, and Portugal joined the European Community (now European Union).



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<[https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:M%C3%A1rio_Soares_1975_\(cropped\).jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:M%C3%A1rio_Soares_1975_(cropped).jpg)>

*Mário Soares, Socialist Party – President of Portugal (1986-1996) and
Prime Minister of Portugal (1976-1978, 1983-1985)*

Since then, Portugal has experienced political stability. The majority governments have been led by Social Democrats or Socialists,

with similar policy orientations, and two other popular leaders, Jorge Sampaio and Anibal Cavaco Silva, succeeded Soares as president.

Antonio Costa, the leader of the Socialist party, has been Prime Minister since 2015.

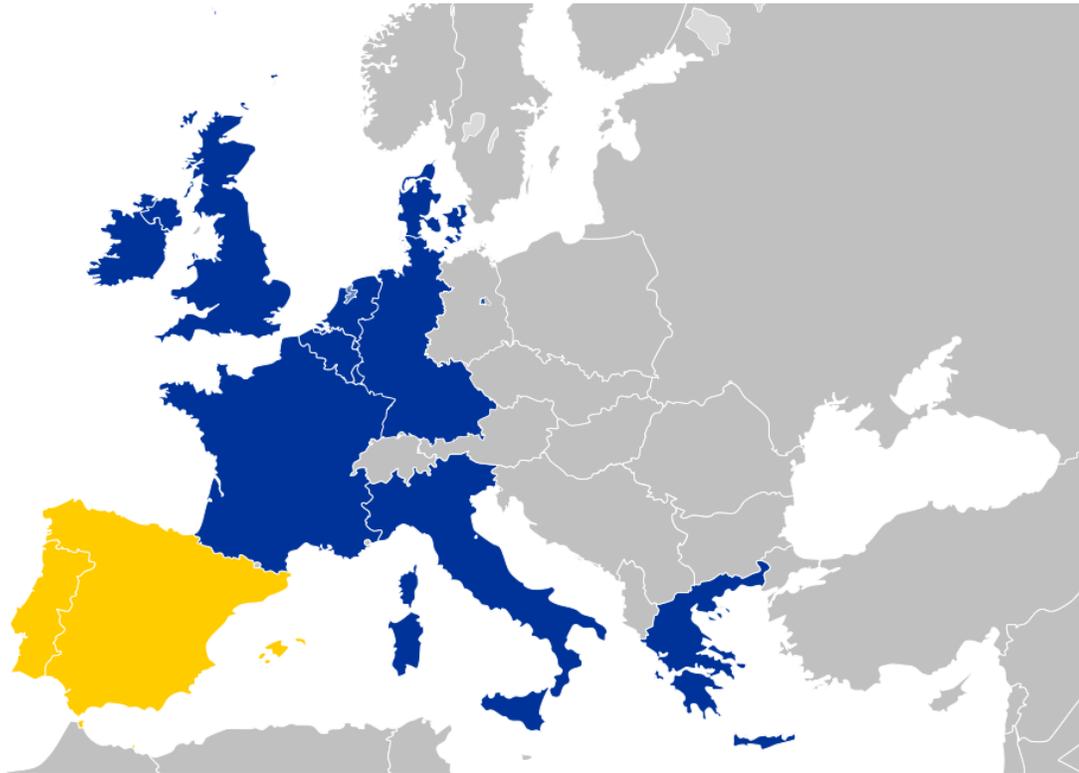


*Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Antonio_Costa.jpg>*

*Antonio Costa – Prime Minister of Portugal (November 2015- present)
and Leader of the Socialist Party*

Economic Changes and Challenges. During the past century, Portugal experienced four distinct political eras: republicanism (1910-

1926), a failed attempt to break the ruling oligarchy and serve the poor; totalitarianism (1926-1974), a successful effort to prevent social change undesired by the ruling class; socialism (1974-1986), a failed experiment with state control of much of industry and agriculture; and European integration (1986-present), a decision to underpin a stable, democratic system of government with market-oriented economic progress.

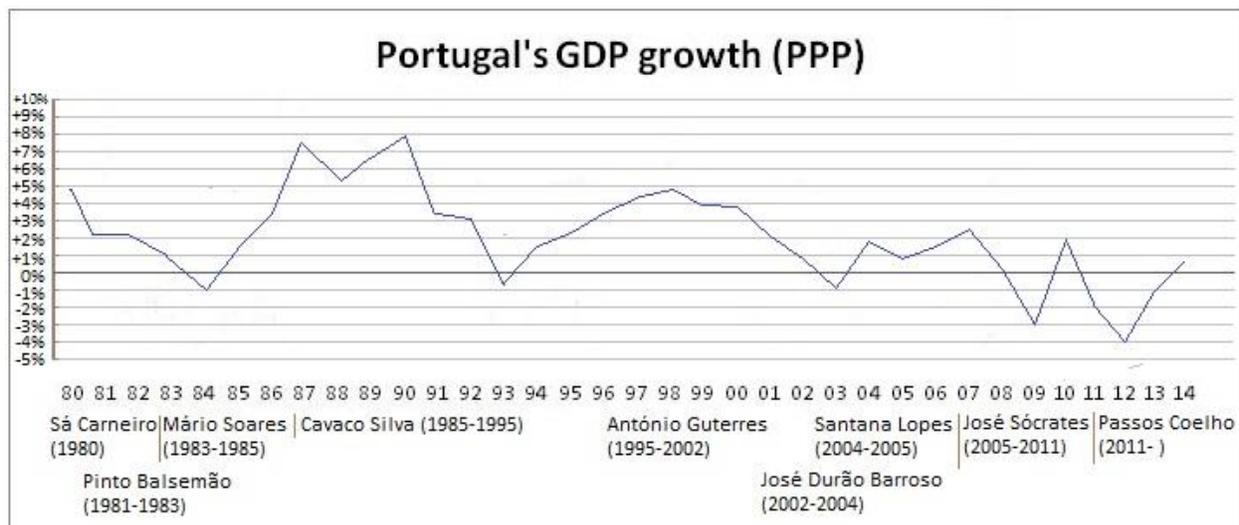


Source: Wikimedia Commons available at <https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:EC12-1986_European_Community_map_enlargement.svg>

Portugal and Spain Joined the European Community (Later European Union) in 1986 – Political Stability and Market-oriented Growth

The orientation of economic policy shifted radically during those four eras – from redistribution of income and assets (1910-1926), to corporatism linking business to the state (1926-1974), back to redistribution but through state ownership of assets (1974-1986), and on to market-driven capitalism backed by EU subsidies (1986-present). Meanwhile, Portugal experienced long-term structural changes. In 1910, most income generation and employment were in agriculture, African colonies supplemented Portuguese wealth, and wine and cork were the principal exports. In 2019, services provided 76 percent of national income, industry 22 percent, and agriculture only 2 percent, and Portugal's main exports were electrical machinery, vehicles, and textiles.

negotiated a three-year financial bailout with the European Union and the International Monetary Fund and introduced fiscal austerity. The government reduced its budgetary deficit from over 11 percent of Gross Domestic Product in 2010 to less than 5 percent in 2014. But many skilled Portuguese emigrated, and Portugal's population fell from 10.6 million in 2011 to 10.4 million in 2014 (and to 10.3 million in 2019)..



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at <https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:GDPgrowthPORTUGAL.jpg>

Growth Rates of Portugal's GDP (Purchasing Power Parity), 1980-2014

The level of GDP per capita (measured by the World Bank at PPP in constant 2017 dollars) thereafter recovered to achieve a 2.5 percent annual growth rate between 2013 and 2019. In 2019, Portugal had a

price-adjusted income level of \$36,639 (79 percent of the EU average and 39th of 186 countries), a 96 percent rate of adult literacy, and a life expectancy of 81 years. Good performance in health and education helped Portugal to rank 38th of 189 countries in the UNDP's Human Development Index (2019), which incorporates measures of income, health, and education.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Rectorat_de_l%27universit%C3%A9.png>

Rectorate of the University of Lisbon – Founded 1290, 48,000 Students

The Portuguese economy relies on tourism (16.2 million tourists spent \$24.1 billion in 2018) and on exports (\$103.9 billion in 2019) – of motor vehicles, electrical machinery, machinery (including computers), plastics, textiles, and footwear. Portugal benefits from good

infrastructure, a well-educated workforce, and quite high Internet use (75 percent in 2019). The official rate of unemployment was 5.9 percent in 2020.

Portugal ranked 39th of 190 countries in the World Bank's Ease of Doing Business index (2019) and 30th of 198 countries in Transparency International's Corruption Perceptions Index (2019, in a tie with Spain). Portuguese leaders must continue to cut costs and create new market niches to retain Portugal's competitive edge within Europe and on world markets.



Source: Wikimedia Commons available at
<<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Po-map.png>>

Contemporary Portugal

Time Line for Portugal

c. 5000 BCE	Neolithic peoples began practicing agriculture in the Iberian Peninsula
c. 1600 BCE	migration of Iberian peoples from southern Europe to Spain and Portugal
9 th century BCE	Phoenicians from Tyre, Semitic-speaking entrepreneurs and traders, settled Carthage
8 th century BCE	Phoenicians from Carthage settled coastal Iberia (Mediterranean and Atlantic)
7 th century BCE	migration of Celtic peoples from central Europe – gradual fusion to form Celtiberians
509-27 BCE	Roman Republic – Roman Senate elected rulers
262-241 BCE	1 st Punic War – Rome defeated Carthage, claimed Sicily and Sardinia
218-201 BCE	2 nd Punic War – Rome again defeated Carthage, claimed all of Iberia
205 BCE-409 CE	Roman Hispania – Rome controlled Iberia, its richest province – Latin-based languages
205-19 BCE	gradual Roman conquest of Iberia, including Lusitania
139 BCE	assassination of Viriatus, Lusitanian resistance leader
133 BCE	Romans conquered Numantia, on the Douro River

60 BCE	Julius Caesar conquered most of Iberia, including Lusitania
27 BCE-476 CE	Roman Principate – military prowess decided succession of emperors
27 BCE-14 CE	Emperor Augustus ruled Roman Empire – expanded empire to natural frontiers
19 BCE	Emperor Augustus formed Roman Hispania (Lusitania, Baetica, and Tarraconensis)
258-270 CE	temporary rule of Lusitania by Gallic Empire
409-456	Vandals, Suevi, Alans ruled Lusitania
456-711	Germanic Visigoths ruled Lusitania
476	fall of western Roman Empire – Germanic Ostrogoths took over Italy and Rome
711-1492	Islamic Spain (Al-Andalus) – parts of Iberia under control of Muslim rulers
711-720	Muslim Berber/Arab conquest of Iberian Peninsula – except northern region
712	Battle of Guadalete – Tariq ibn Ziyad defeated Visigoth King Roderic
712-756	small Muslim emirates governed Iberia (except northern parts)

756-1031	Umayyad Caliphate of Cordoba – richest state in Western world
868	foundation of city of Cale (Porto) – by Christian Kingdom of León
10 th -12 th centuries	Medieval Green Revolution in al-Andalus – irrigation, science, new crops, crop rotations
914-1492	Christian Re-conquest of Iberia (Reconquista) – gradual, north-to-south
938	formation of León province of Portucale
1031-1103	36 <i>taifas</i> (small states) in Islamic Iberia
1062-1146	Almoravid Berber Empire – West Africa, Morocco, Spain
1085	Christian reconquest of Toledo
1103-1146	Almoravid Berber rule of Islamic Iberia
1139	Portugal defeated Almoravids at Campo de Ourique
1143	Portugal's independence – Afonso Henriques <i>dux</i>
1146-1269	Almohad Berber Empire – Morocco, Spain, Portugal, Algeria, Tunisia
1146-1236	Almohad Berber rule of Islamic Iberia
1147	Portugal captured key cities of Lisbon and Santarém from Almohads

1179	Pope made Afonso Henriques <i>rex</i> (king) of Portugal – Portugal gained independence
1212	Battle of Las Navas de Tolosa – decisive Spanish Christian victory over Almohads
1236	Castile takeover of Córdoba
1237-1492	Emirate of Granada in southern Spain
1248	Castile takeover of Seville
1348-1351	one-third of the Portuguese population perished in the bubonic plague
1383	Castile invaded Portugal
1385	Portugal defeated Castile at Aljubarrota – João of Avis
1386	Treaty of Windsor, Portugal and England – mutual defense
1415-1640	Portugal's Age of Exploration
1415	Portugal conquered Ceuta (key port in Morocco)
1440s	Portuguese innovators developed caravel ship design
1479	formation of united kingdom of Spain – merger of Castile and Aragon

- 1479 Treaty of Alcaçovas – Spain recognized Portugal’s rights to the Azores, Madeira, Cape Verde, and West Africa – Portugal ceded the Canary Islands to Spain
- 1481 Portugal built fortified trading post at Elmina (west Africa) – exported gold
- 1488 Portuguese explorer Bartolomeu Dias sailed around the southern tip of South Africa
- 1498 Portuguese explorer Vasco da Gama sailed around Cape of Good Hope en route to India
- 1492 Spain (Castile-Aragon) conquered Granada – last Islamic state in Iberia
- 1492 Christopher Columbus discovered New World – for Spain
- 16th century Portugal created a trade monopoly in the Indian Ocean
- 1500 Pedro Cabral discovered Brazil for Portugal– en route to India
- 1500 Portuguese explorer Diogo Dias discovered Madagascar
- 1506 Portugal allied with Kingdom of Kongo, central Africa
- 1510-1557 Portugal built fortified ports at Goa, Malacca, Hormuz, Colombo, and Macao

1530	Portugal began colonizing Brazil
1556-1598	Habsburg King Philip II ruled Spain, Spanish America, and the Netherlands
1565	Portuguese Governor-general Mem de Sá established Rio de Janeiro
1578	Battle of El-Ksar-el-Kebir – Morocco defeated Portugal – King Sebastian killed
1580-1640	Portugal ruled by kings of Spain
1588	England defeated Spanish (and Portuguese) Armada
1630-1654	The Netherlands occupied sugar-rich Pernambuco Province in northeast Brazil
1640	Portugal declared its independence – King João IV
1640-1668	Portugal fought and defeated Spain – English assistance – re-gained independence
1662	marriage between Charles II of England and Catherine of Bragança – cemented alliance
1667-1706	King Pedro II ruled Portugal – mercantilism
1703	Treaty of Methuen, Portugal and England – trade rights
1706-1750	King João V ruled Portugal – absolutist imperialism

1750-1777	King José I (and Marquis de Pombal) ruled Portugal – reformed public administration – rebuilt Lisbon after 1755 earthquake
1789-1799	French Revolution – evolved from upper-class demand for reforms into full rebellion
1793-1815	Napoleonic Wars – Britain and allies defeated France
1807-1820	Portugal was a virtual British protectorate
1807	Napoleon invaded Portugal – British Navy moved the Portuguese court to Brazil
1808-1814	Peninsular War – France, led by Napoleon Bonaparte, conquered and ruled Spain
1815	Congress of Vienna – monarchist balance-of-power in Europe – lasted for a century
1820-1851	constitutional monarchy in Portugal – liberals versus absolutists
1822	Brazil declared its independence from Portugal – Emperor Pedro I first ruler
1846	Maria da Fonge Rebellion in northern Portugal – suppressed by liberals
1851-1910	parliamentary regime – conservative Regenerators versus liberal Progressives

1884-1885	Berlin Conference – UK, France, Portugal, Germany, and Belgium partitioned Africa
1908	Lisbon Regicide – Assassination of King Carlos I and his heir apparent, Luis Filipe
1910	Republican Revolution – deposed King Manuel II
1910-1926	Portuguese Republic – few reforms – political instability
1914-1918	World War I – Britain, France, Russia, Italy, Portugal, US defeated Germany, Austria-Hungary, Ottoman Empire
1926-1974	repressive dictatorship – totalitarian nationalism
1926-1933	military dictatorship – economic crisis
1933-1968	António Salazar’s dictatorship – totalitarian stability
1939-1945	World War II – Allies (Britain, France, US, USSR) defeated Axis (Germany, Italy, Japan, Finland) – Portugal and Spain neutral
1968-1974	Marcelo Caetano’s dictatorship – wars in African colonies
1974	Revolution of the Carnations – popular, bloodless
1974-1986	coalition governments – fragile transition to democracy – independence for colonies

1986	Portugal joined European Union – completed transition period in 1993
1986-present	majority governments – Socialist or Social Democratic
2011	Portugal received a loan of 78 billion Euros – from the European Union and the International Monetary Fund
2013-2019	per capita income increased at annual rate of 2.5 percent
2015-present	Antonio Costa, Socialist Party – Prime Minister of Portugal
2019	Portugal ranked 38 th of 189 countries in the UNDP’s Human Development Index

Bibliography for Portugal

James M. Anderson, *The History of Portugal*, Westport, Connecticut: Greenwood Press, 2000.

Werner Baer, *The Brazilian Economy, Growth and Development*, Westport, Connecticut: Praeger, 1995.

Nevill Barbour, *Morocco*, London: Thames and Hudson Ltd, 1965.

David A. Bell, *Napoleon: A Concise Biography*. Oxford, United Kingdom: Oxford University Press, 2015.

Gerald J. Bender, *Angola under the Portuguese, The Myth and the Reality*, Berkeley, California: University of California Press, 1978.

Norman Robert Bennett, *Arab Versus European, Diplomacy and War in Nineteenth-Century East Central Africa*, New York: Africana Publishing Company, 1986.

David Birmingham, *A Concise History of Portugal*, Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press, 2003

David Birmingham, *Portugal and Africa*, London: Macmillan Press, 1999.

Paul Bohannon and Philip Curtin, *Africa and Africans*, Prospect Heights, Illinois: Waveland Press, 1995.

Edward W. Bovill, *The Golden Trade of the Moors*, Princeton, NJ: Markus Weiner Publishers, 1995.

C. R. Boxer, *The Portuguese Seaborne Empire, 1415-1825*, London: Hutchinson & Co Ltd, 1969.

E. Bradford Burns, *A History of Brazil*, New York: Columbia University Press, 1993.

Rondo Cameron, *A Concise Economic History of the World*, New York: Oxford University Press, 1989.

Brian A. Catlos, *Kingdoms of Faith, A New History of Islamic Spain*, New York: Basic Books, 2018.

Carlo M. Cipolla, *Before the Industrial Revolution: European Society and Economy 1000-1700*, New York: W.W. Norton & Company, 1993.

Tim Cornell and John Matthews, *Atlas of the Roman World*, New York: Facts on File, Inc., 1995.

John A. Crow, *Spain, The Root and the Flower*, Berkeley, United States: University of California Press, 1985.

Barry Cunliffe, *The Ancient Celts*, Oxford, United Kingdom: Oxford University Press, 1997.

Philip Curtin, Steven Feierman, Leonard Thompson and Jan Vansina, *African History, From Earliest Times to Independence*, London: Longman, 1995

J. H. Elliott, *Imperial Spain 1469-1716*, New York: Penguin Books, 1990.

Boris Fausto, *A Concise History of Brazil*, Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press, 2014.

Wallace K. Ferguson, *Europe in Transition, 1300-1520*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1976.

Richard Fletcher, *Moorish Spain*, Berkeley, California: University of California Press, 2006.

Bill Freund, *The Making of Contemporary Africa: The Development of African Society since 1800*, Boulder, Colorado: Lynne Rienner Publishers, 1998.

Peter Garnsey, *Famine and Food Supply in the Graeco-roman World*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1988.

Peter Garnsey, *Food and Society in Classical Antiquity*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1999.

Peter Garnsey and Richard Saller, *The Roman Empire, Economy, Society and Culture*, Berkeley: University of California Press, 2015.

John Haywood, *Atlas of the Celtic World*, London: Thames & Hudson, 2001.

Richard Hitchcock, *Muslim Spain Reconsidered, From 711 to 1502*, Edinburgh, United Kingdom: Edinburgh University Press, 2014.

Albert Hourani, *A History of the Arab Peoples*, Cambridge, Massachusetts: Belknap Press of Harvard University Press, 2010.

Anne Hugon, *The Exploration of Africa: From Cairo to the Cape*, New York: Harry N. Abrams, Inc., 1993.

Paul Johnson, *Napoleon, A Penguin Life*, New York: Penguin Books, 2002.

Andrew Jotishky and Caroline Hull, *The Penguin Historical Atlas of the Medieval World*, London: Penguin Books, 2005.

Stanley Lane-Poole, *The Story of the Moors in Spain*, Baltimore: Black Classic Press, 1990.

Robert M. Levine, *The History of Brazil*, New York: Palgrave Macmillan, 2003.

Norrie MacQueen, *The Decolonization of Portuguese Africa, Metropolitan Revolution and the Dissolution of Empire*, London: Addison Wesley Longman, 1997.

Colin McEvedy, *The Penguin Atlas of African History*, London: Penguin Books, 1995.

Teresa A. Meade, *A Brief History of Brazil*, New York: Facts on File, Inc., 2003.

Maria Rosa Menocal, *The Ornament of the World: How Muslims, Jews, and Christians Created a Culture of Tolerance in Medieval Spain*, New York: Back Bay Books, 2002.

John Middleton, *African Merchants of the Indian Ocean, Swahili of the East African Coast*, Long Grove, Illinois: Waveland Press, Inc., 2004.

John Middleton, *The World of the Swahili, An African Mercantile Civilization*, New Haven: Yale University Press, 1992.

Susan Gilson Miller, *A History of Modern Morocco*, Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press, 2013.

Jocelyn Murray (ed.), *Cultural Atlas of Africa*, New York: Checkmark Books, 1998.

Phillip C. Naylor, *North Africa, A History from Antiquity to the Present*, Austin, Texas, USA: University of Texas Press, 2015.

John Julius Norwich, *The Middle State, A History of the Mediterranean*, London: Chatto & Windus, 2006.

Roland Oliver, *The Cambridge History of Africa, Volume 3: from c. 1050 to c. 1600*, Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press, 1977.

Roland Oliver and Anthony Atmore, *Africa Since 1800*, Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press, 2005.

Roland Oliver and Brian M. Fagan, *Africa in the Iron Age, c. 500 B.C. to A.D. 1400*, Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1975.

Roland Oliver and J. D. Fage, *A Short History of Africa*, London: Penguin Books, 1995.

A. H. de Oliveira Marques, *History of Portugal, Volume I, From Lusitania to Empire*, New York: Columbia University Press, 1972.

A. H. de Oliveira Marques, *History of Portugal, Volume II, From Empire to Corporate State*, New York: Columbia University Press, 1976.

William D. Phillips, Jr. and Carla Rahn Phillips, *A Concise History of Spain*, Cambridge, United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press, 2010.

Andrew Roberts, *Napoleon, A Life*, New York: Penguin Books, 2014.

Ian C. Robertson, *A Traveller's History of Portugal*, London: Cassell & Co, 2002.

Barnaby Rogerson, *North Africa, A History from the Mediterranean Shore to the Sahara*, London: Duckworth Overlook, 2012.

Malise Ruthven, *Historical Atlas of Islam*, Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 2004.

José Hermano Saraiva, *Portugal, A Companion History*, Manchester, England: Carcanet Press Limited, 1997.

José Saramago, *Journey to Portugal, In Pursuit of Portugal's History and Culture*, Boston, Massachusetts: Harvest Books, 2002.

Chris Scarre, *The Penguin Historical Atlas of Ancient Rome*, London: Penguin Books Ltd, 1995.

David Soren, Aicha Ben Abed Ben Khader, and Hedi Slim, *Carthage*, New York: Simon and Schuster, 1990.

Leonard Thompson, *A History of South Africa*, New Haven and London: Yale University Press, 1995.

Giles Tremlett, *Ghosts of Spain, Travels Through Spain and Its Silent Past*, New York: Bloomsbury, 2008.

Mary Vincent and R. A. Stradling, *Cultural Atlas of Spain and Portugal*, Abingdon, England: Andromeda Oxford Limited, 1994.

Clifford A. Wright, *A Mediterranean Feast: The Story of the Birth of the Celebrated Cuisines of the Mediterranean, from the Merchants of Venice to the Barbary Corsairs*, New York: William Morrow and Company, Inc., 1999.

Gary K. Young, *Rome's Eastern Trade, International Commerce and Imperial Policy, 31 BC – AD 305*, London: Routledge, 2001.

Adam Zamoyski, *Napoleon, A Life*, New York: Basic Books, 2018.

Sites Visited in Portugal

Portugal and Galicia Food and Wine

Stanford Travel/Study Program

May 11-22, 2016

Land-based

Lisbon

Lisbon, a port city on the north shore of the Tagus (*Tejo*) River (near its entry into the Atlantic Ocean), first entered the historical record as Olisipo, the most northerly Atlantic port settled by the Carthaginians in the 8th century BCE. Following its conquest by Julius Caesar in 60 BCE, Olisipo became a Roman port city for more than four centuries. The port city retained its importance during the Visigothic, Islamic, and early Portuguese reigns. The first king of the Kingdom of Portugal, Afonso Henriques, re-conquered the city from the Almohads in 1147, and it has been controlled by Portuguese (or Spanish) rulers since then. Lisbon has been the capital and leading city in Portugal since the 14th century. Lisbon was the richest entrepôt in the world during the 16th century, benefiting from trade in Asian spices, African gold, and Brazilian sugar.

I had spent many hours strolling the streets and visiting the restaurants of Lisbon during the 1980s and 1990s, and I was curious to see whether the city had changed much since that time. Lisbon has a comfortable city plan, laid out and executed carefully by the Marquis of Pombal after the city was destroyed in the 1755 earthquake. Although I had last visited Lisbon in 2008, I was amazed at how little the striking capital city had changed. Economic progress (rapid until 2008 and slow since then) is evident in several new hotels and restaurants. But the heart of the city is unspoiled by rapid change. As before, the Alfama district and its São Jorge Castle reflect the city's Islamic background, the Belém area celebrates Portugal's glorious Age of Discovery and its Manuellite

architecture, and the Chiado region features the upscale shops and modern reconstructed buildings.

We divided our two days in Lisbon between the heart of the city and Belem. We stayed in the Altis Belem Hotel and dined in the Feitoria Restaurant, which fully deserves its Michelin star. The staff at the Feitoria invited us to tour their immaculate kitchen after dinner, where nine chefs create imaginative cuisine. In old Lisbon, our group took a guided bus and walking tour through Avenida de Libertade, the Rossio District, and the Alfama. We enjoyed visiting a former palace in Rossio, which later became an infamous casino and now houses the Casa do Alentejo Restaurant. We entered the Sao Domingos Church, which was destroyed by fire in 1959, and is located near the site of a tragic 16th-century massacre of Portuguese Jews. In Belem, many of us reflected on Portugal's most glorious century (1480-1580) by visiting the Jeronimos Monastery, the Maritime Museum, and the Monument to the Discoveries.

Évora

Évora is the provincial capital and largest city in the Alentejo, the expansive agricultural region in Portugal's center-south. Évora has been an important agricultural collection center for the Alentejo's wheat, wine, and cork since the Roman era. Its landmark monument in the city center is a Roman temple (once called the Temple of Diana, but now recognized as a 1st-century temple dedicated to Caesar Augustus). Known to the Romans and Visigoths as Ébora, the small city provides ample monumental evidence of all of Portugal's major historical eras. Its varied city walls are part Roman, Visigothic, Islamic, and Portuguese in reflection of the city's key location on a main route between Lisbon and the border with Spain. Kingdoms that controlled Évora could gain access to a rich agricultural hinterland and an important east-west trade route.

Contemporary Évora has a population of 65,000 and is a thriving agricultural supply center, regional capital, tourist center, and university town. Évora University was opened in 1575 by the Jesuit order, closed in 1775 by the Marquis of Pombal (who banned the Jesuits), and re-opened in 1975 after Portugal's Revolution of the Carnations. Its beautiful old buildings now cater to about 6,000 students. Évora shows evidence of considerable rehabilitation during the past 25 years. The entire city has been designated as a UNESCO World Heritage Site, resulting in required maintenance. Its Pousada dos Loios (a monastery dedicated to St. John the Evangelist that has been converted to a small hotel) has been modernized and become very comfortable. The charming city continues to blend well its diverse roles of governance, tourism, teaching, and farming.

Évora is a wonderfully accessible city for tourism. Our group stayed at the M'ar de Ar Aqueduto Hotel in the city center. We ventured to the Roman Temple and the impressive São Francisco Church, just around the corner. That massive Gothic cathedral (with Romanic influences) has a 16th-century organ and was finally completed in 1692. We strolled through the downtown, searching for Alentajana crafts (ceramics, embroidered textiles, and numerous items creatively made of cork), and visited the Chapel of Bones. A few made their way to the Restaurante Fialho, one of the finest in Portugal, to sample Cataplana Alentajana (pork and clams cooked in a copper pan). We drove to Estremoz to tour the Vila Santa winery, created by João Portugal Ramos, and continued on to Reguengos de Monsarraz to taste olive oils and wines at the noted Esporão winery.

Buçaco

The region south of Buçaco in central Portugal is important historically. In 1160, the Knights Templar, a religious-military order that had been formed earlier to fight in the First Crusade, settled in Tomar (in central Portugal). The first Portuguese king, Afonso Henriques (ruled 1143-1185), allocated estates to military orders in his effort to re-conquer

central and southern Portugal from Islamic rulers. In the 13th century, the Pope dissolved the Knights Templar and the group re-constituted as the Knights of Christ. A century later, they built the Convent of Christ in Tomar to serve as their headquarters. The Knights of Christ were the main suppliers of funds for the Portuguese caravel ships that pioneered the Asian spice trade route around the Cape of Good Hope and carried out the explorations of Africa and Brazil. Prince Henry the Navigator was a leading member.

Buçaco is located in north-central Portugal. For many centuries, the Catholic Church protected the forest of Buçaco from exploitation, and today the area is a national park. In September 1810, the Duke of Wellington led England and Portugal to a victory over France and Spain in the Battle of Buçaco, which helped prevent Napoleon's armies from taking Portugal. Wellington spent the night after his famous victory resting in the convent in Buçaco. The penultimate king of Portugal, Carlos I, built a lavish palace in Buçaco, which was begun in 1892 and completed in 1907, only a year before he was assassinated by an anti-monarchist radical who wanted Portugal to become a republic with a parliamentary democracy. The Buçaco Palace today is one of Portugal's iconic monuments to royal grandeur and societal inequality in the 19th century.

En route from Évora to Buçaco, we spent a half-day at the Casa Cadaval in Muge (in the Tejo region, formerly called Ribatejo). Casa Cadaval, an impressive Portuguese estate of 12,500 acres, has been in the same family since 1648 and overseen by women for five generations. We visited the winery, observed a display of magnificent Lusitano horses, and rode behind a tractor into the cork forest. In Buçaco, the former royal palace has been converted into the Palace Hotel Buçaco. Staying there conveys the feeling of what it might have been like to be the guests of royalty a century ago. Hikes in the nearby forest lead past elegant terraced steps, built around a mountain stream, and a re-creation of the stations of Christ during his crucifixion. We also ate a memorable

dinner of suckling pig (*leitão*) and sampled the hotel's classic wines made from Dao and Bairrada grapes.

Pinhao, Douro Region

Further north lies the Douro River valley, the home of the internationally-renowned port-wine vineyards. British wine merchants began fortifying the Douro red and white wines in the late 17th century. Brandy is added to bring the alcohol content of port wines to between 20 and 22 percent (from the natural levels of 13-14 percent in Douro wines). White ports generally are consumed as aperitifs, whereas tawny and ruby ports are after-dinner drinks, often drunk to accompany strong cheeses and chocolate. The port-wine vineyards are all located in the upper Douro Valley, the world's first demarcated wine region (1756). The port wines are shipped down-river to mature in wine cellars on the coast in Vila Nova da Gaia (across the Douro River from Porto). Pinhao is a principal Douro River town and service center for the port-wine vineyards.

Port wine is made by introducing brandy (77 percent alcohol) to fermenting Douro grapes after three days of fermentation. The brandy stops the fermentation, preserves the sweetness of the wine, and raises the alcohol level (usually to 20-22 percent). The new port wine is aged in the Douro for nine months and then shipped to Vila Nova da Gaia for blending and further aging. Ruby ports are aged in the bottle. In two or three years each decade, the Port Wine Institute (a government regulatory agency) declares a vintage year for ruby ports, creating a vintage port. Tawny ports are aged in small wooden barrels (usually holding 550 liters). The tawnies are blended, using wines from different years, to produce tawnies labeled 10-years, 20-years, 30-years, or 40-years. Exceptional tawnies (called *colheitas*) are bottled without blending and contain port wine from a single year.

Our group had an informative introduction to the Douro Region. In Pinhao, we made our temporary home at the Vintage House, a

comfortable hotel overlooking the river and hills. We had tours and tastings at several of the Douro's leading producers – Quinta do Panascal (Fonseca), Quinta do Noval, and Quinta do Bonfim (Dow). We tasted a variety of port and still wines and were impressed with their smoothness and power. Many Douro producers are diversifying from port wines to high-quality still wines (following a change in regulations after Portugal joined the European Community in 1986). One-third of Douro grapes are now used in still wines. The still-wine revolution has been led by the Douro Boys, a group of five innovative Portuguese wineries. Four of the Douro Boys joined us for a memorable dinner at DOC, the leading restaurant in the Douro.

Pontevedra and Santiago de Compostela, Spain

Galicia is a province in northwestern Spain, which currently houses 2.8 million people. The Galician language is as close to Portuguese as it is to Castilian Spanish, because the people of Galicia and of northern Portugal share a common heritage. Both regions continue to demonstrate strong Celtic features, showing the influence of Celtic settlement of northern Iberia in the 7th and 6th centuries BCE. The climate of both regions is also similar, with wet, cool coasts and drier, warmer interiors. Galicia and northern Portugal also share an upcoming white grape varietal – albarino in Spanish and alvarinho in Portuguese. Galicia is renowned historically for its large numbers of emigrants, including the parents of Fidel and Raul Castro, and for being the home region of Francisco Franco, the dictator of Spain between 1939 and 1975.

Pontevedra is the provincial capital of Galicia, and Santiago de Compostela is its cultural and historic center. Most Galicians (*Gallegos*) believe that Saint James, the Apostle, traveled in Galicia in the 1st century CE and that his relics were transferred to Santiago de Compostela in the 9th century and buried in the cathedral there. Since that time, Santiago has been a principal destination for devout Catholic pilgrims. There are many traditional pilgrimage routes to Santiago. The

main one covers nearly 500 miles from southern France to Santiago's cathedral square. Successful walking pilgrims listen to a mass in the cathedral, obtain certificates for completing their pilgrimages, and are believed to receive indulgences to reduce time spent in purgatory. Santiago has only 26,000 residents but contains numerous significant religious sites.

Our Stanford food-and-wine enthusiasts experienced a wide variety of Galician cuisine and wines in just two days. We began in Monterrei, the smallest wine region in Galicia and visited the Terra da Gargolo, a small modern winery owned by Roberto Verino, the fashion designer. Following lunch in the historic Castelo of Monterrei, we bussed onward to Pontevedra, where we stayed in a lovely parador hotel. There, we spent a joyous evening at Bagos, the region's best wine bar, where two colorful local vintners explained their wines and family histories and joined us for Spanish tapas. On the next day, we visited the Pazo de Senorans winery in Rias Baixas, Galicia's iconic wine region for white wines from albarino grapes. We continued on to Santiago for a sumptuous tapas lunch and a visit to the renowned cathedral.

Porto

Northerners are fond of saying that Portugal began in Porto, where the Douro River meets the Atlantic Ocean. An early name for the city (and for its surrounding region) was Portucale. The Kingdom of Léon recaptured the port town from its Muslim rulers in 868 and made Portugal a separate province a century later. After Portugal obtained its independence from Léon in 1143, Porto became the new kingdom's major port and center of trade and industry (Braga had the bishopric see and Guimarães was the first capital). Although Porto has never been the capital of Portugal, its residents ardently believe that Porto has always been the business center of the country. Prince Henry the Navigator, who led Portugal's Age of Discovery, was born in Porto. Today, the city and its suburbs contain about 2,500,000 residents and are a major center for Portuguese industry.

The heart of early Portugal was the region between the Douro and Minho Rivers (formerly known as the Minho and since 2009 called the Vinho Verde region). Between the 1st century BCE and the 5th century CE (when Rome ruled all of the Iberian Peninsula), the Minho region was part of Roman Lusitania. When Portugal first became a Spanish province in the 10th century, it consisted only of the Minho and the Trás-os-Montes region to its east. Gradually, the country expanded southward as its kings re-conquered regions that the Muslims had occupied from the early 8th century. Ponte de Lima, a small town on the Lima River in the northern part of the Minho, was the first town in Portugal. Much of the Vinho Verde region is demarcated as the *vinho verde* wine region. Most of the *vinho verde* wines contain only 8-9 percent alcohol because of the low sugar content of their grape varieties.

Our Stanford group bussed southward from Pontevedra in Galicia to Porto. En route, we stopped in northern Portugal in Melgaço, a town near the Minho River on the Spanish border. There, we visited the small but elegant Soalheiro winery, which in 1982 produced Portugal's first white wine with alvarinho grapes. We spent two nights in the magnificent, new Yeatman Hotel in Vila Nova da Gaia, across the Douro River from Porto. In Gaia, we enjoyed tours and tastings at the port lodges of the two leading producers and exporters of port wine – Taylor Fladgate's and Graham's. We indulged in two lavish dinners – one in the Factory House (the exclusive club for English port producers), and the other in the Michelin one-star restaurant in Yeatman's. Some of us crossed the Douro River to visit the baroque São Francisco Church and the Palácio da Bolsa (former stock exchange).

* * * * *

Insider's Portugal Seminar
Stanford Travel/Study Program
June 1-June 16, 2008
Land-based

Lisbon

We divided our four days in Lisbon equally between time spent in the city and field trips to nearby sites. In the city, we spent delightful evenings at the Club Gremio Literario and the Club de Fado, listening to Portugal's doleful music, we shared Portugal's glorious century (1480-1580) at the Maritime Museum and the Monument to the Discoveries, and we marveled at the eclectic art collection of Calouste Gulbenkian at the museum he founded. On one day trip outside the city, we journeyed westward to Sintra to visit the Royal Palace and see its tiles (*azulejos*), enjoyed a seafood lunch near the Guincho Beach, and ate ice cream at the renowned Santini's in Cascais. On another day outing, we went north to Alcobaça to tour the Monastery of Santa Maria and to Obidos to walk the medieval wall and enjoy the ambience of that charming small town.

Évora

Our group stayed at the Pousada do Loios in the city center and ventured out in all directions. The Roman Temple is next door to the Pousada, and the impressive São Francisco Church is just around the corner. We walked to the nearby University of Évora campus and admired the classrooms, each with decorations dedicated to different disciplines. We strolled through the downtown, enjoying a book fair in the square and searching for Alentajana crafts (ceramics and embroidered textiles). We drove to Estremoz to observe cork harvesting and eat a delightful country lunch at a modest Alentejo estate. Some of us made our way to the Restaurante Fialho, one of the finest in Portugal, to sample Cataplana Alentajana (pork and clams cooked in a copper pan) and the robust red wines from the Alentejo.

Tomar and Coimbra

En route from Évora to Coimbra, we spent a half day in Tomar. The impressive Convent of Christ is still in good condition, and it provides evidence of the wealth that the Knights of Christ accumulated through agriculture, commerce, and finance. Coimbra, Portugal's fourth largest city, is located in north-central Portugal. In the 13th-14th centuries, Coimbra was the second capital of the Kingdom of Portugal (after Guimarães and before Lisbon). The University of Coimbra, founded in 1290, is the oldest university in Europe. Portugal's 20th-century dictators, Antonio Salazar and Marcelo Caetano, had been professors in Coimbra. In Coimbra, we visited the library of the University, an ornate room containing priceless antique books. We also ate a memorable lunch of suckling pig (*leitão*) and drank sparkling wine at Coimbra's O'Porquinho Restaurant.

Santar, Dão Region

The Dão Region of west-central Portugal (between the Montego and Douro River valleys) consists of rolling hills that are protected by mountain ranges from cold coastal winds. The demarcated Dão area produces some of Portugal's finest quality red and white wines. The slopes, soils, and micro-climates of the Dão Region create wine grapes that are sufficiently stressed to yield very fruity and high-quality wines. Santar, a small village south of the major Dão area city of Viséu, is known for its wonderful Dão wines. The family of the Countess of Santar, Teresa Lancastre Mello, has been producing elegant Dão wines for four centuries. Those quality wines are now exported throughout the world. In the Dão Region, we visited the vineyards and winery of the Casa da Santar estate, and the Countess and her daughter, Fatima, hosted a gala luncheon for us in their elegant, historical home (of nine bedrooms and nine baths). Fatima gave us a cooking lesson before lunch to introduce the delectable Portuguese cuisine to unfamiliar American palates.

Porto and Ponte de Lima

We spent three nights in downtown Porto (where young residents sat in the squares to watch the European Cup football matches). Porto is full of historical monuments and modern buildings. We toured the São Francisco Church (with over-the-top baroque architecture), the Palacio da Bolsa (former chamber of commerce and stock exchange), the Casa de Música (a very modern, aluminum concert hall), and the Serralves Foundation (an estate converted to a museum of modern art). We crossed the Douro River to visit the Sandeman port-wine cellar and sample its fare. We also drove north to Ponte de Lima and enjoyed its International Garden Festival and medieval atmosphere. Our last incredible lunch in the north was at the Casa de Sezim, the home of a former Portuguese ambassador whose family produces superb *vinho verde* wines for export.

* * * * *

**Around the World Expedition, By Private Jet
TCS Expeditions
December 28, 2004-January 19, 2005
Airplane-based**

Madeira, Portugal

The island of Madeira, located 544 miles west of Casablanca, Morocco, was uninhabited when Portugal took control of it in 1419. By 1500, the Portuguese had experimented with growing wheat and then sugar cane on Madeira. Prince Henry the Navigator and his team at Sagres had improved navigation techniques, developed the caravel ship, and worked out a return route to Portugal via the Azores Islands in the central Atlantic. After Vasco da Gama rounded the Cape of Good Hope in 1498, Portugal established trading bases at key locations in Africa, India, and the East Indies and gained control of the Indian Ocean spice trade. Madeira played a key role as the first trading base in Portugal's expansion around Africa. Portugal (and Madeira) enjoyed economic

success for about 80 years, and Lisbon became one of the richest cities in Europe.

But in 1580, Spain absorbed Portugal and ruled it for 60 years. Meanwhile, England and the Netherlands overcame the early lead of Portugal in Indian Ocean trade. The Dutch eclipsed the Portuguese in the East Indies, and the British overran the Portuguese in India. Portugal's moment in history was over. By 1750, England was providing support to Portugal because both countries opposed Spanish expansion. Today, Portugal is a rapidly growing member of the European Union (since 1986), and Madeira is a very prosperous part of Portugal, exporting wine and textiles and hosting tourists.

* * * * *

**A Cruise on the Mediterranean Sea
Holland-America Line
September 29-October 19, 2000
Ship-based, Aboard the MS Noordam**

Lisbon, Sintra, and Cascais, Portugal

During the night, we sailed around the coast of Portugal and up the scenic Tagus River the next morning. Our marvelous three-day visit to Lisbon and Cascais was a nostalgic homecoming for me, since I had spent a couple of months a year in Portugal during every year between 1980 and 1995. Sandra and I escorted a full-day tour of Lisbon, Sintra, and Cascais on October 18. It was great fun to be reacquainted with familiar sites and to learn many new things about Portuguese history. For example, after working many years with the Ministry of Agriculture on the Praca do Commercio in Lisbon, I had never realized that that square was the major exchange area for all of Portugal's trade with its colonies, especially Brazil. In Cascais, we met Francisco Avillez, our close friend and my former counterpart, in Santini's gelati parlor. Francisco, his wife, Isabel, and his family then hosted us for the next

two days at their lovely home in Cascais. During that time, Sandra and I visited old haunts, like Guincho Beach, and we had a chance to renew friendships with several former Portuguese colleagues and their spouses at a memorable dinner party in the Avillez home. That brief stay-over in Portugal was a wonderful way to end our great exploration of the Mediterranean.

* * * * *