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Coordinator

THE REGION of

LEIRIA

IDENTITY and DEVELOPMENT

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Alda Mourão Filipe

Coordenadora

THE REGION of

LEIRIA

IDENTITY and DEVELOPMENT

A historical and geographical
journey



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IDENTITY and DEVELOPMENT

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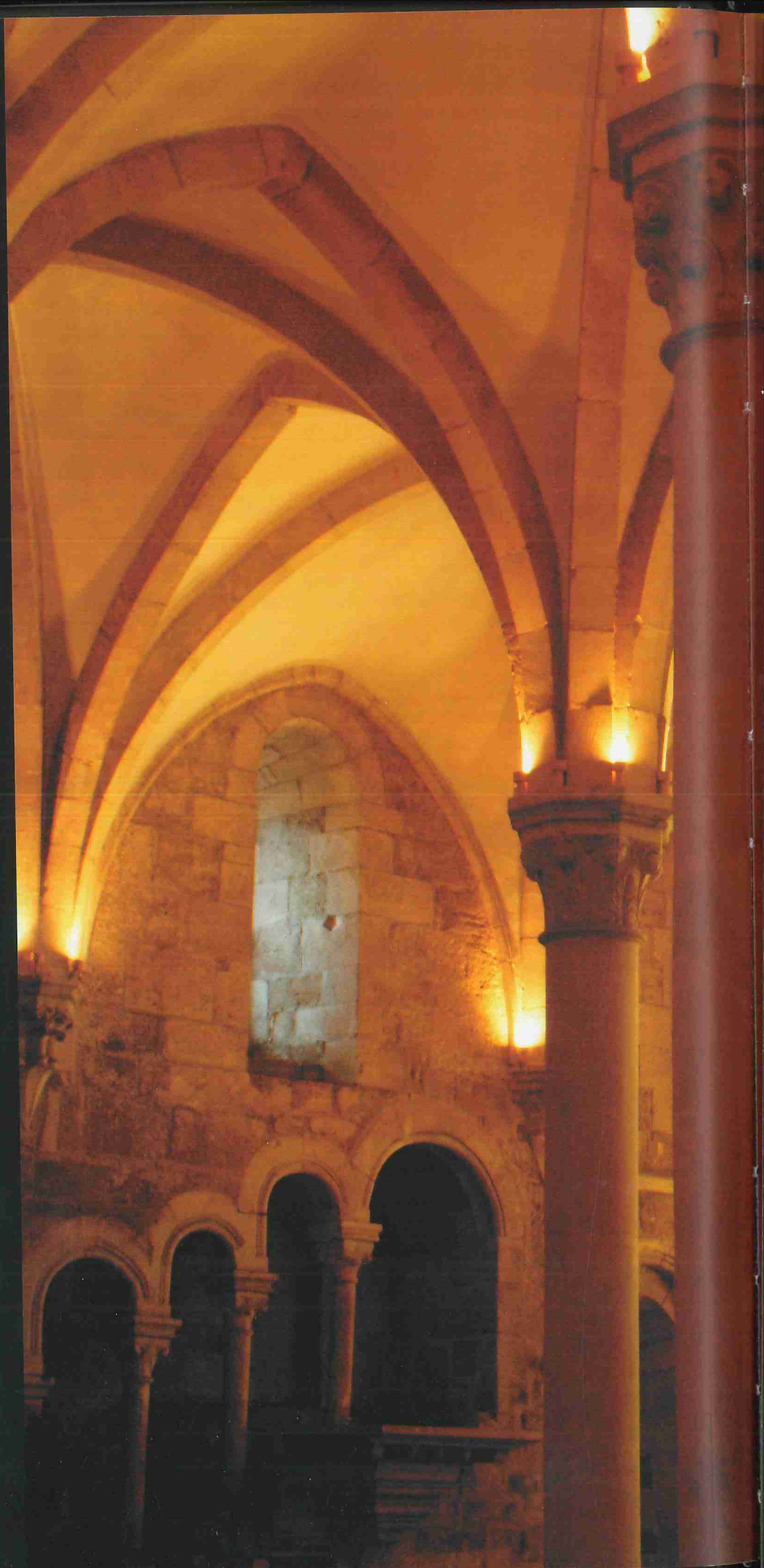
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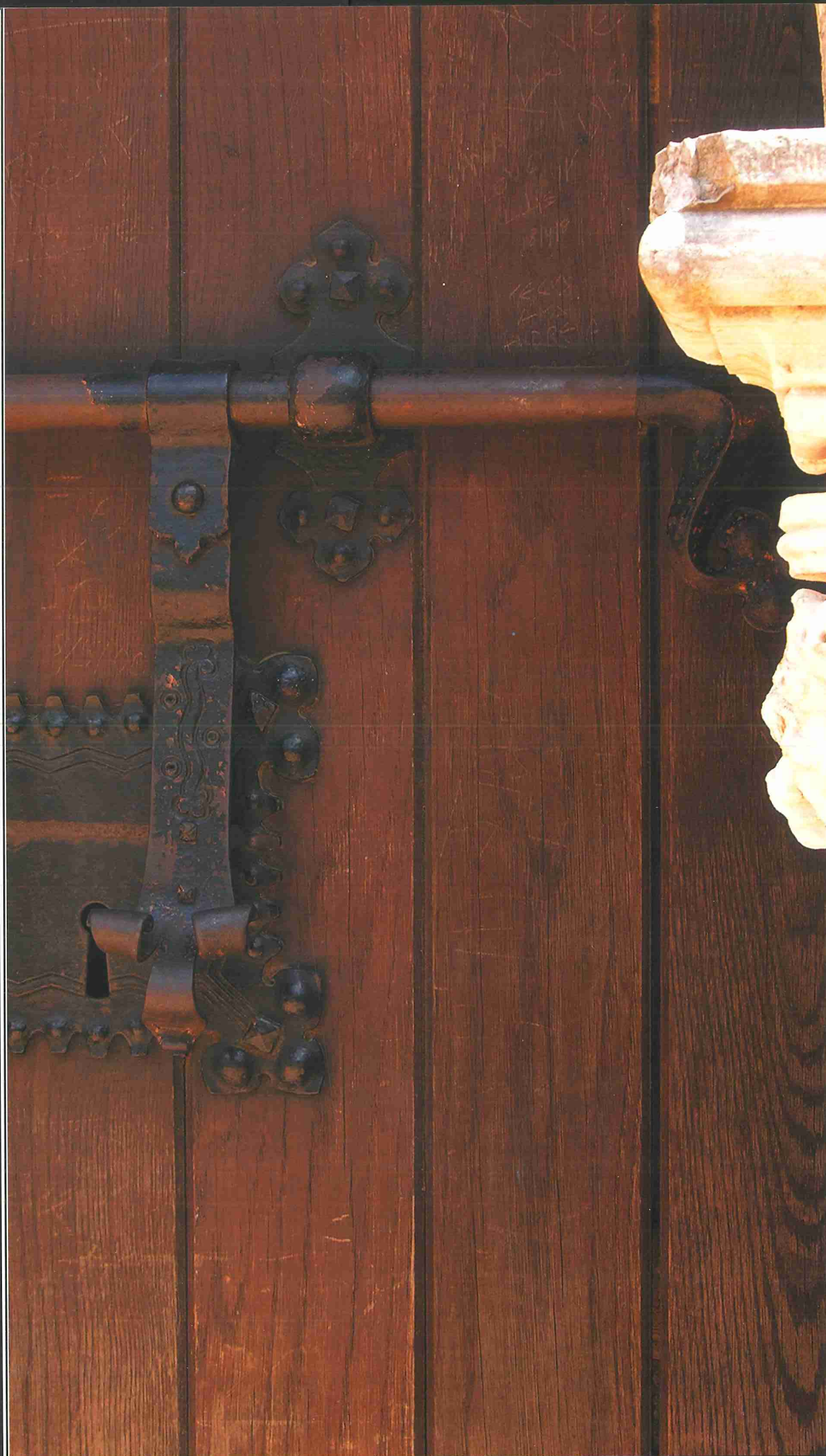




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FOREWORD BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE OF LEIRIA

The book entitled, *Identity and Development in the Leiria Region: a historical and geographical journey* is published as a tribute by the Polytechnic Institute of Leiria to the region in which it was founded.

Published as part of the celebrations of the 25th anniversary of the Polytechnic Institute, it is a testament to our endeavours to help development in the country and in the region to which we belong. We have shared its successes, knowing that they are also the fruits of the dynamism and commitment of civil society, businesses and the many state and private entities who have had faith in our project and have made the Polytechnic Institute into a successful institution in a region that we have also helped to build.

The aim of this book is to help record the history of some of the people, places and events which have shaped the region. It is a way of finding out about our past so that we can understand where we are bound.

We wish to thank the Leiria and Western Region with this modest gift.

To the authors of this book, who a few months ago accepted the challenge of charting the history of this land and its people, I would also like to offer a very special word of thanks, both personally and on behalf of the institution to which we all belong – the Polytechnic Institute of Leiria.

Leiria, 15th September 2005

Luciano Rodrigues de Almeida

INTRODUCTION

We start our journey through the history and geography of the area we intend to explore in these pages at an intersection on a vitally important historical coastal axis (Lisbon-Porto). This intersection also includes an inland area defined both by its distance from the coast and by the poor communications system existing there until very recently. It is a very diverse area, influenced by a variety of circumstances which, over the centuries, have defined the contrast needed for the potential diversity of behaviours, linked essentially to economic and social life, and cultural and intellectual expression.

Our exploration is fundamentally historical and geographical in scope. Frequently, however, we may appear to overstep the boundaries of these sciences and stray into other areas. This is surely because of the different forms of analysis to which regional studies are subjected when viewed from the angle of a social scientist. With regard to historical change, the analytical models range from the more restricted and classical approaches to multidisciplinary approaches involving dialogue between geographers, economists, sociologists and anthropologists. Without prejudice or reservation, it may be said that the study of history has benefited greatly from these encounters. In creating this history, which has a strong foundation in geography, we have experienced an openness to different interpretations of the same reality and an enrichment of the problematics which this implies.

The trajectory we have outlined for our “journey” through the region defined by the present day district of Leiria, which we also consider in association with the neighbouring municipality of Ourém, begins in the first chapter with a presentation of the area and the local population. We chart the evolution of the cycles of change which have affected both areas over the centuries. Special emphasis has been placed on the different “maps” of the region, in terms of the specific contexts used in establishing its various contrasting or superimposed divisions.



The chapter which follows, written from a historical perspective, begins by describing what had been a region almost devoid of people until a strategic hill was chosen as the site for one of the strongholds in the founding of the Portuguese nation: Leiria castle. A relationship was then established between the people and the land which led to it becoming a prosperous region that today easily plays a significant role in the economic life of the nation. The intervening period encompasses a vast period of change which cannot be ignored, and which includes the creation of an entrepreneurial “climate” which became a training ground for those whose entrepreneurial and innovative visions led them to seek out new horizons and successfully achieve their ambitions. They were then, and they are today, the people who have built up the wealth of the region and their tale is told in chapter three.

Although agriculture has been the major activity throughout almost the entire history of the region, it may be felt that this has been treated more modestly in this study. In fact, our options led us to concentrate more on the industrial sector, justified by the entrepreneurial innovation we identified there.

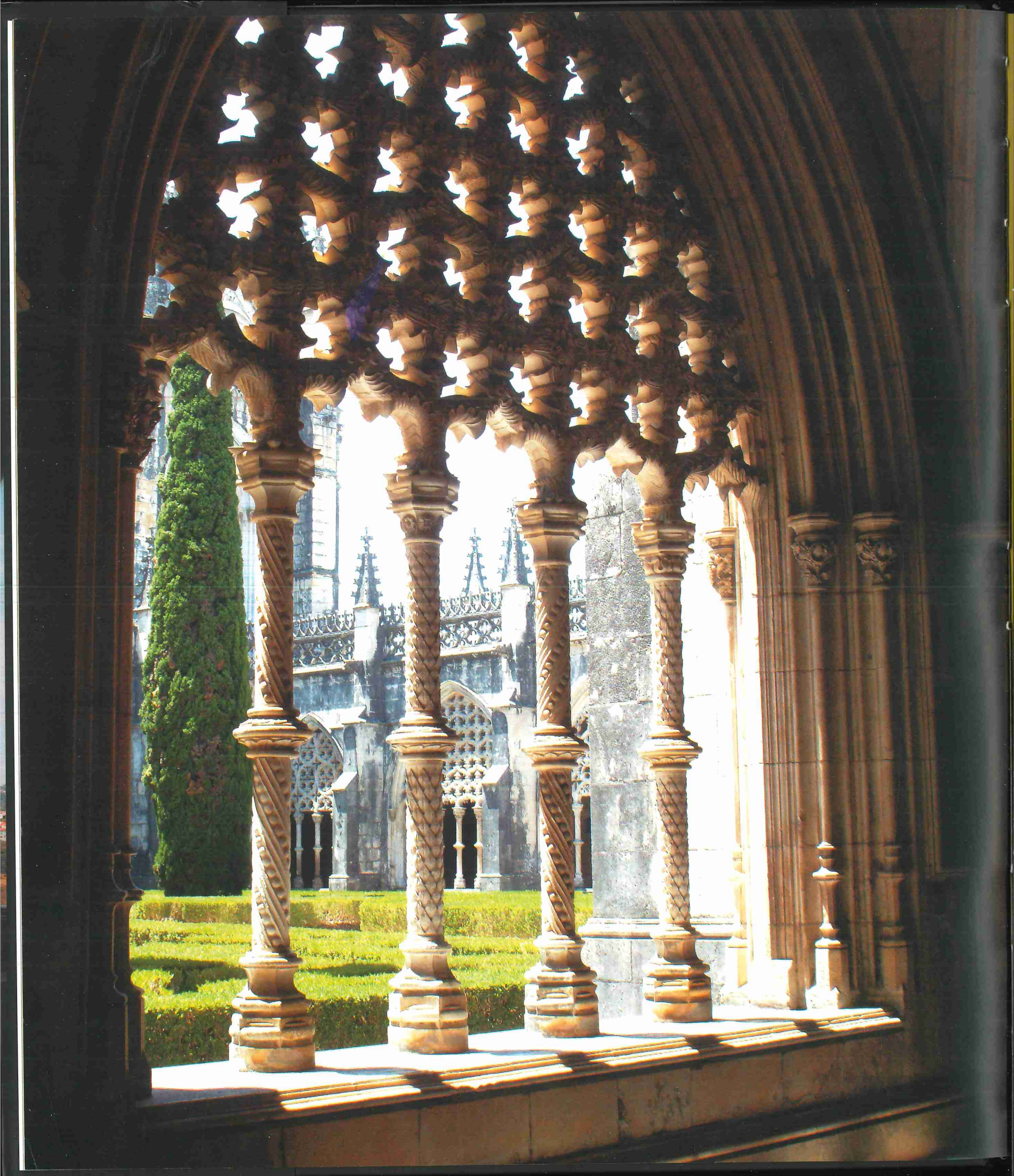
The fourth chapter records the development of education in the area, from medieval times to the present day. In this process of providing literacy and educational qualifications for the local people, we consider 25th April 1974 a focal point in recent history. In this context we consider the dynamics of regional development established through Higher Education, with particular reference to the creation of the Polytechnic Institute of Leiria.

It only remains for us to thank the person who first suggested and subsequently supported this work from start to finish: the President of the Polytechnic Institute of Leiria. As longstanding members of the academic staff of this institution, we wish to acknowledge the important contribution made by Dr. Luciano de Almeida. He is also an innovative and entrepreneurial spirit who has fought hard for quality in Higher Education in the very region we invite you to explore, somewhat differently, through this route we have chosen!





FIG. 1 - THE LEIRIA REGION IN THE NATIONAL CONTEXT



FROM LAND TO PEOPLE

An overview of the region

Another way of looking at the reality generically known as the Leiria region is to consider the maps that have been made of this portion of land, including the area representing the district itself and the municipality of Ourém, with which it is unquestionably linked.

By reflecting thus on regional identity, or rather, on the intersecting and superimposed identities outlining what may, without excessively rigid legal or even geographical concerns, be defined as the region that saw Leiria as its natural head, a new approach to the subject is almost inevitably bound to emerge. It is an approach which emphasises the importance of maps in constructing a grid for interpreting the surrounding territory, as a means to helping us to see, describe and explain "our" region.

We begin by setting the *region* we have defined in the context of the territory of mainland Portugal. Fig. 1 provides this context, illustrating some of the essential features that must be considered:

- its location on the Atlantic coast (almost half the municipalities in the region have access to the sea);
- the fact that it is located on an axis which links the country's two major metropolitan areas (Lisbon and Porto);
- its proximity to other cities of middling importance (Coimbra and Santarém);
- its intra-regional diversity, in terms of the coastal/inland dichotomy (giving the 5 municipalities in the northeast of the region a certain inland character in what is a coastal region).

From the outset these characteristics define a certain line of approach, since they represent other specific features relating to geographical location, which may help to explain a great deal of what is to follow.

The region consists of 17 municipalities and 166 parishes covering a total surface area of 3916 km². As Table 1 and the maps in Figs. 2 and 3 show, there is great diversity in the size of both the municipalities and the parishes. The total area of the region amounts to approximately 4.3% of the national territory.

To understand the regional territory as it is today, it is important to analyse the various existing transport systems, and thus the importance of each in structuring land in the region. Fig. 4, taken from the most recent edition of the duly adapted Map of Mainland Portugal (*Carta de Portugal Continental*) published by the IGP (Portuguese Geographical Institute), shows the region's main road routes: the A1 and A8 motorways.

MUNICIPALITIES	AREA (km ²)	PARISHES
Alcobaça	406.5	18
Alvaiázere	160.4	7
Ansião	176.2	8
Batalha	102.8	4
Bombarral	91.3	5
Caldas da Rainha	254.6	16
Castanheira de Pêra	66.8	2
Figueiró dos Vinhos	173.6	5
Leiria	568.1	29
Marinha Grande	185.4	3
Nazaré	81.5	3
Óbidos	141.1	9
Pedrógão Grande	128.7	3
Peniche	77.0	6
Pombal	625.7	17
Porto de Mós	260.1	13
Ourém	416.2	18
Total	3.916.0	166

Table 1 - Area and Municipal numbers per region (2003)
Source - INE (www.ine.pt)

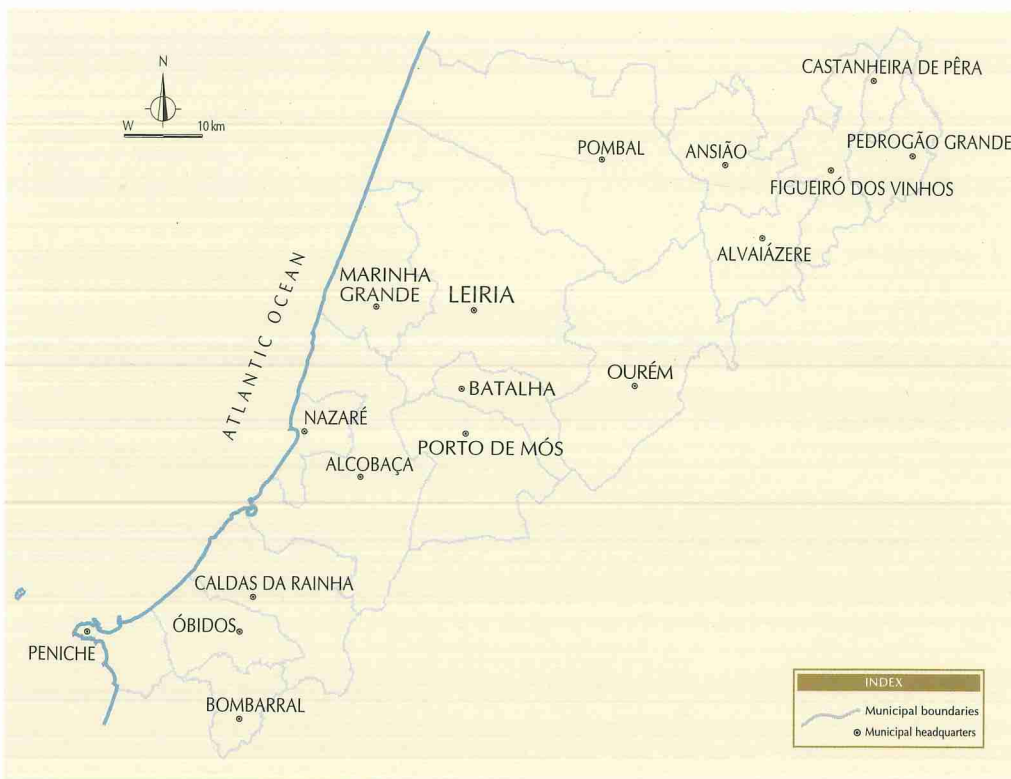


Fig. 2 - LEIRIA REGION: ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE (municipalities)

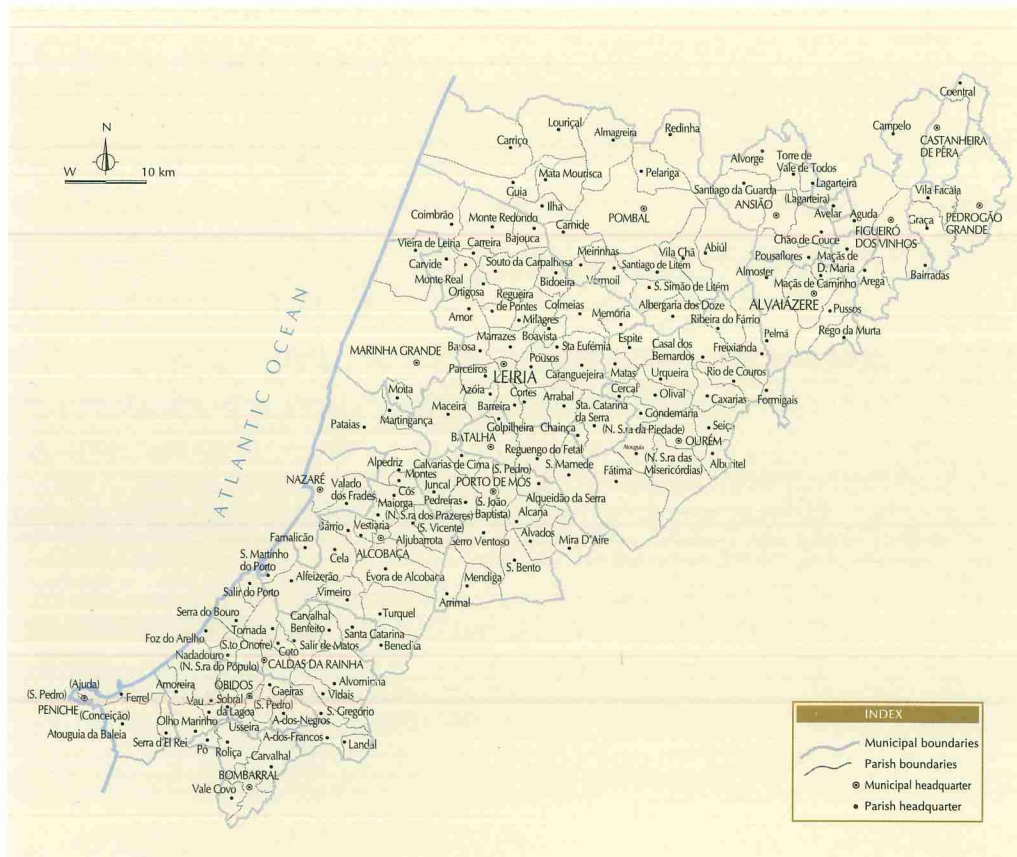


Fig. 3 - LEIRIA REGION: ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE (municipalities and parishes)

The former passes through the municipalities of Pombal, Leiria, Batalha and Ourém and the second through the municipalities of Leiria, Marinha Grande, Alcobaca, Nazaré, Caldas da Rainha, Óbidos and Bombarral. These routes clearly show that the municipalities in the northern inland area of the district of Leiria are the least well-served in terms of access to quality road networks. Moreover, the fact that there is no link between these two axes in the area around the city of Leiria makes any connection between them impossible or at least very difficult.

It should also be noted that the municipality of Peniche is served by a partially constructed link to the A8 via the IP6, which does not yet appear on the aforementioned map. The same main road, as a motorway (A15), also links the south of the region, from Óbidos to Rio Maior and Santarém.

The region is less well-served in terms of rail transport since the Northern Line, the most important and modern rail link in the country, only passes through the city of Pombal. In fact, although it also serves the municipality of Ourém, it has not proved a popular access route, particularly with pilgrims and tourists en route for Fátima. The Western Line (Linha do Oeste) has also failed to establish itself as a viable alternative to the road system leading to Lisbon and there has been a marked decline in the use of this means of transport, in terms of both goods and passenger services. This unfortunate situation is certainly a constraint on regional development, particularly since rail transport is considered safer, more convenient and better for the environment.

Still within the terms of this overall framework, it is worth recalling the system of provinces formerly used to divide up

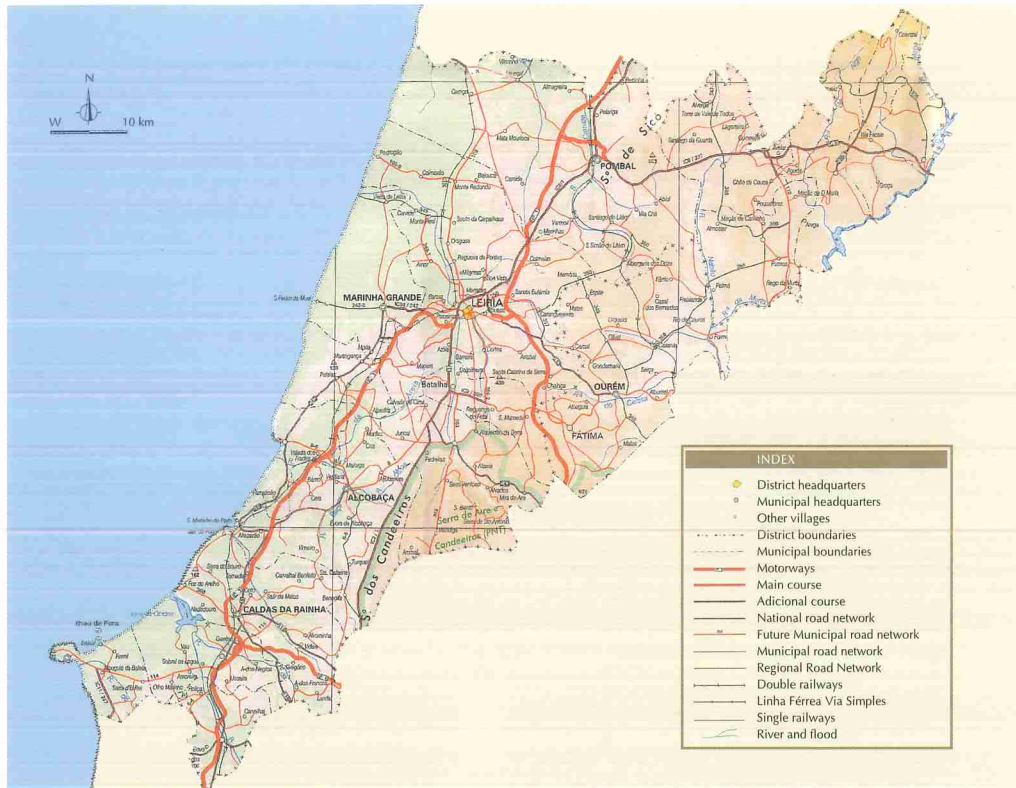
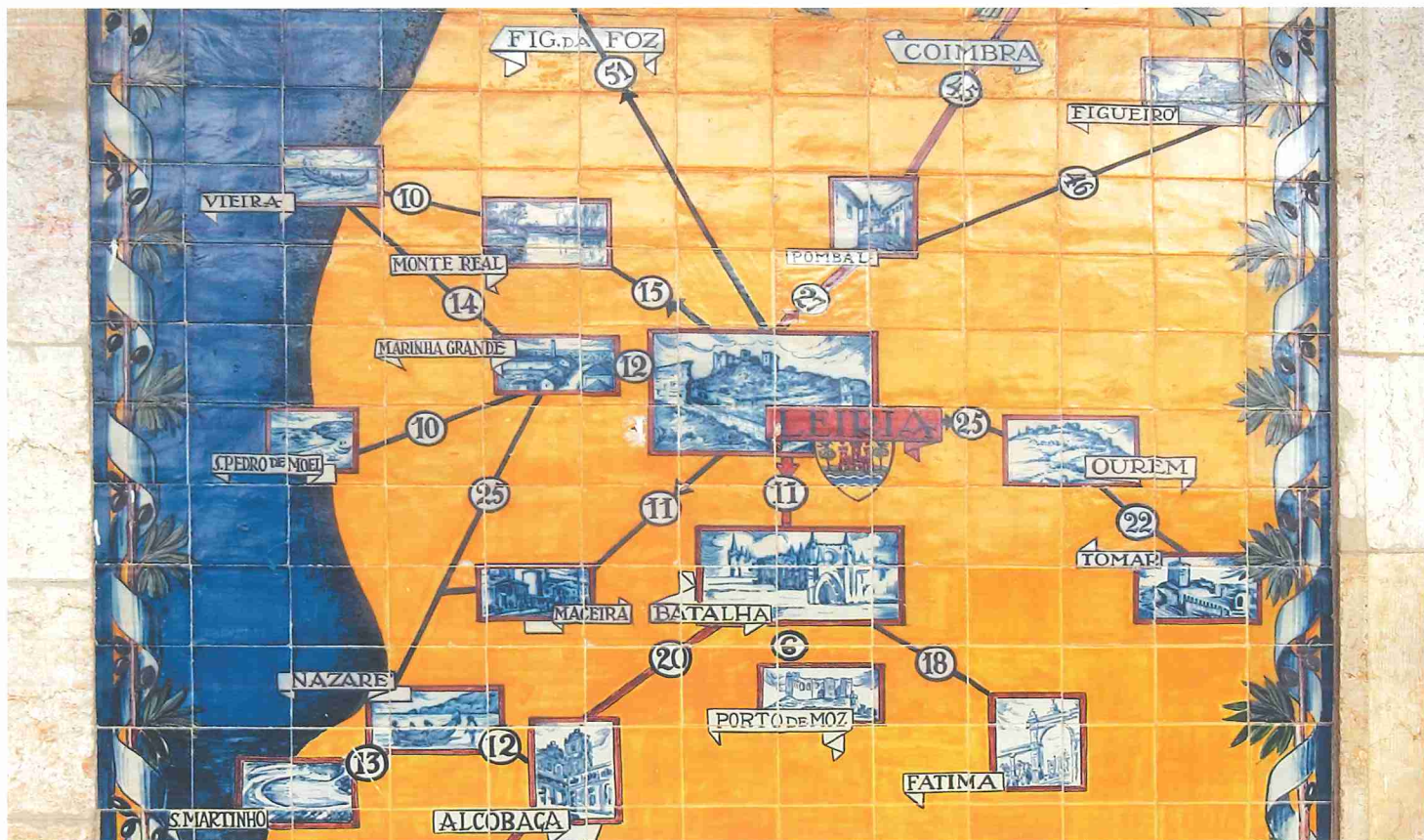
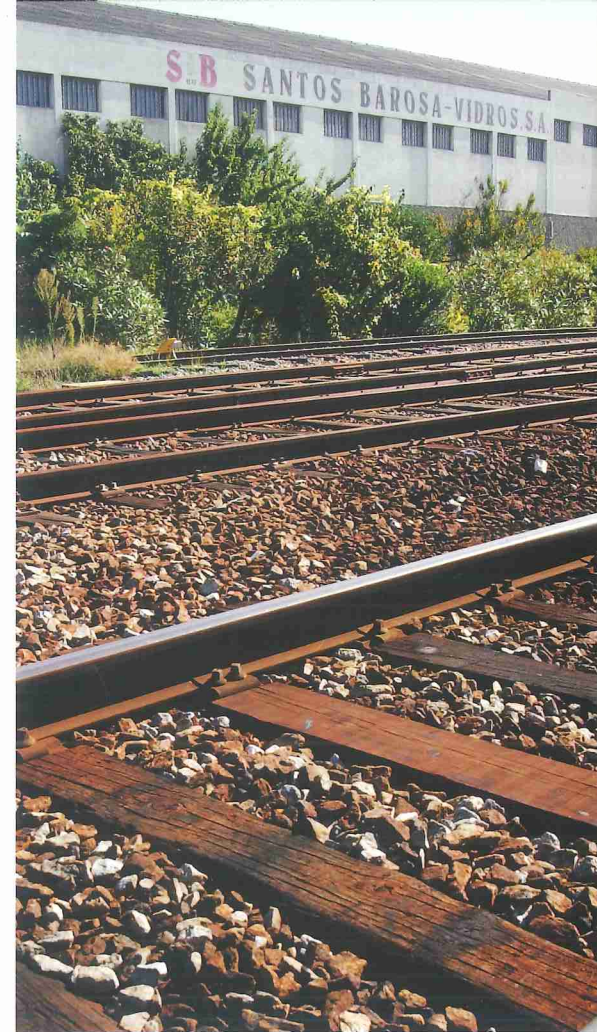
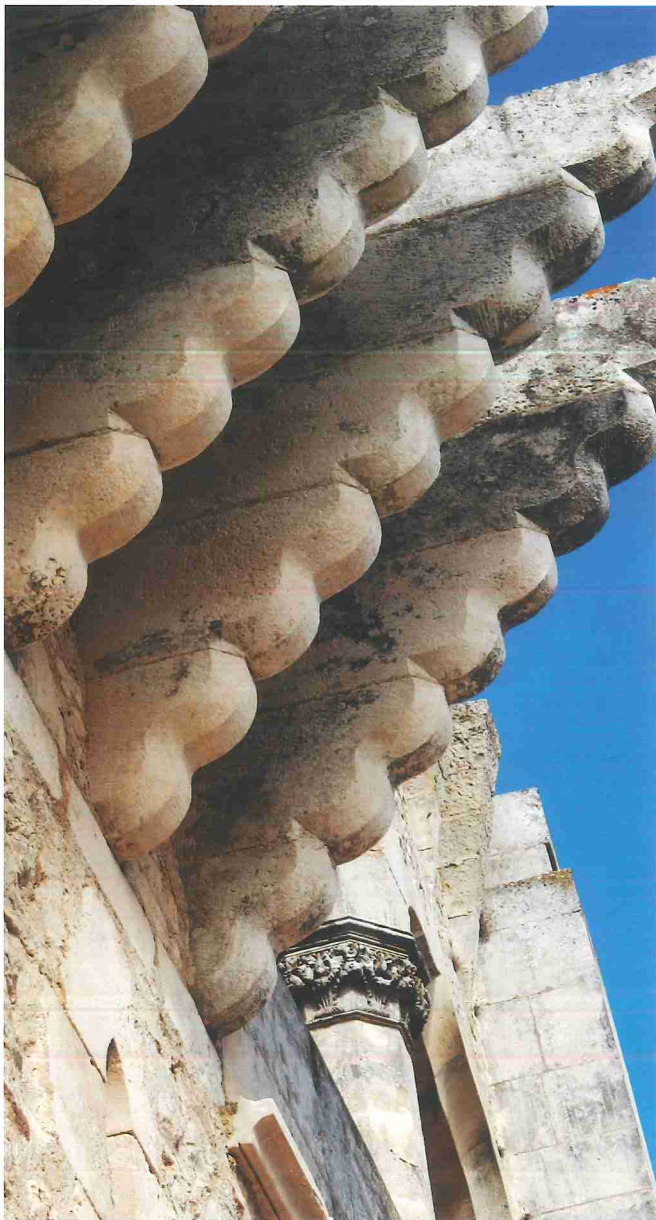


Fig. 4 - LEIRIA REGION: MAIN ACCESS ROUTES



mainland Portugal. In fact, under this old system (Fig. 5), which some people still insist on using today (and which even appears in certain maps used in primary schools), the territory was divided into the provinces of Estremadura (south, from Marinha Grande – Alcobaça – Porto de Mós) and Beira Litoral (north, from Leiria – Batalha – Ourém), a system which, as can be seen, is quite artificial since it separated municipalities which have close links, such as Leiria and Marinha Grande or Batalha and Porto de Mós.



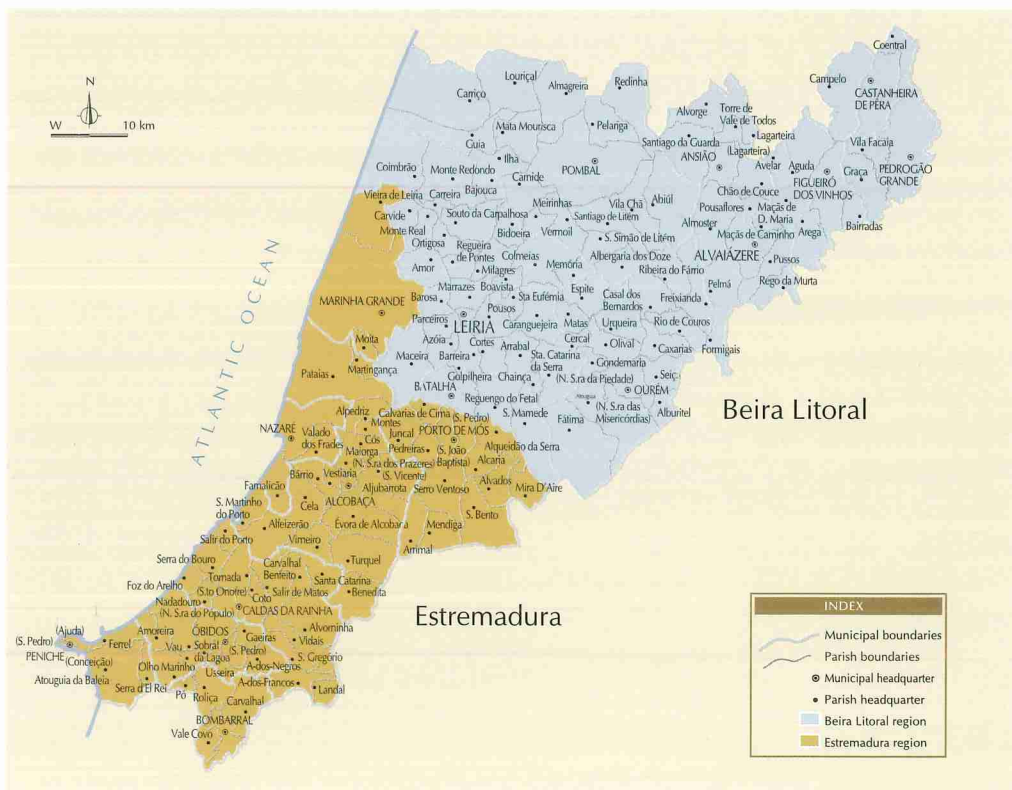
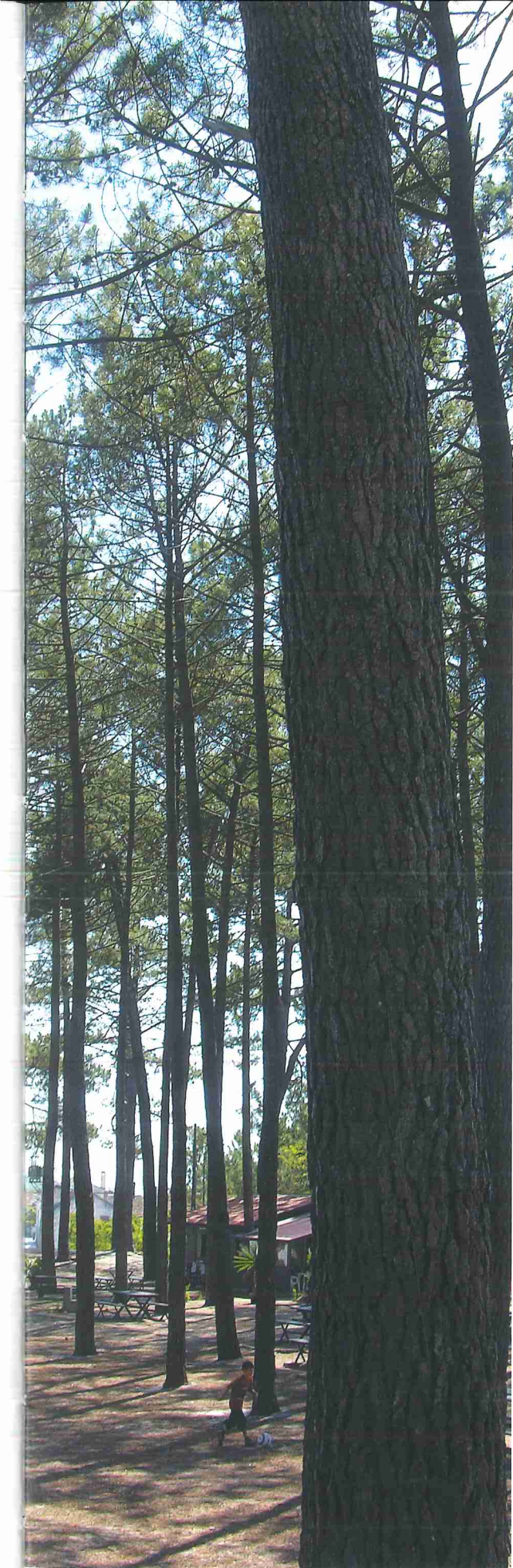


Fig. 5 - LEIRIA REGION: FORMER PROVINCES



FROM LAND TO PEOPLE

The language of maps

Maps favour the construction of identities and are a form of representation that allows people and groups to identify with that part of the earth's surface which they inhabit, or helps its recognition by people seeing it from the outside. To appreciate this, it is sufficient to recall the *hexagon* of France, the *boot* of Italy or the *rectangle* we associate with mainland Portugal: outlines of territories that are based on the perpetual study of maps and the memories we retain of them.

We can see in these geographical representations, the areas we live in and where we work and spend our leisure time or, in other words, where we spend our everyday lives and construct our *living space*. In fact, when we talk about territories we are implicitly alluding to memories and the links between perception and representation, between what we see and what we imagine and between reality and its image. The ideas we create about a region are nurtured by the images and sensations created in each of us through our positive or negative experiences of places and the trajectories of our daily, weekly, monthly or yearly patterns of life.

The extent to which a territory is readable depends on the efforts invested in terms of information, although we should realise that maps always represent a deliberate choice of particular data and constitute a limited or even fragmented representation of a territory. Nevertheless, maps are presented as communication tools which make it easier for us to explore or revisit certain realities.

Very diverse criteria have therefore been used to produce the different maps of the region, reflecting the various divisions that have moulded the area over the years and the borders which have defined and shaped it in administrative terms. The grouping of the present day district of Leiria with the municipality of Ourém is useful for our purpose, since this represents an extended area of influence for Leiria that has been established, to a certain extent, for more than a hundred and fifty years in the case of the district, and much longer in the case of its general relationship with Ourém.

This is clearer if we consider only the perimeter corresponding to the Diocese of Leiria-Fátima, and it is a pattern that recurs in other defined areas such as the Leiria/Fátima Tourism Region (RTL/F) or the Upper Estremadura Municipal Association (AMAE), the latter now in the process of being disbanded, following the creation of new urban communities.

The situation of the various entities which have represented inter-municipal cooperation between the 17 local authorities in the region up to now is extremely interesting, especially as it is the result of the free association of the various municipalities rather than of any political or administrative imposition.



Five municipal associations are operating in the region (Fig. 6) and their aim is to achieve various objectives and to voluntarily exercise certain common powers: the Upper Estremadura Municipal Association (AMAE), the Serra de Sicó Municipal Association (ADSICÓ), the Pedrogão Grande, Figueiró dos Vinhos and Castanheira de Pêra Municipal Association (PEFICA), the Western Municipal Association (AMO) and the Middle Tejo Municipal Association (AMMT).

Although their existence is currently under threat, due to the creation and establishment of various supra-municipal structures such as Metropolitan Areas and Urban Communities, it is still interesting to note the configurations and, in some cases, the juxtapositions that can be observed in this area.

In fact only two of these associations were formed exclusively from municipalities within the region – AMAE and PEFICA. ADSICÓ, AMO and AMMT also included municipalities from outside this area. Some of the municipalities belonged to more than one inter-municipal association, such as Pombal (a member of AMAE and ADSICÓ) and Ourém (a member of AMAE and AMMT).

The tourism regions, that promote the tourism industry, are another example of administrative divisions resulting from voluntary association, although these are subject to a certain measure of government control.

In a regional context, the Leiria/Fátima Tourism Region is the major tourism body, involving eight of the municipalities in question. The rest are divided between the Central Tourism Region, which is based in Coimbra (municipalities north of the district of Leiria) and the Western Tourism Region (municipalities in the south), based in Óbidos – Fig. 7.

As previously mentioned, the ecclesiastical division is also quite relevant, for historical reasons, and, in the case of the Diocese of Leiria-Fátima, would seem to correspond to the leading role played by the city of Leiria in the surrounding region. In addition, the fame of the Fátima Shrine – a major regional and national religious centre – has become one of the hallmarks of the region and is crucial to its recognition abroad.

The outline of the Diocese of Leiria-Fátima (see Fig. 8) is odd in comparison with the other models of regional territorial division, given that it contains not only entire municipalities (Batalha, Leiria, Marinha Grande, Ourém and Porto de Mós), but also parishes belonging to municipalities that are only partially included within it. This is the case with the parishes of Albergaria dos Doze, Carnide, Meirinhas, São Simão de Litém and Vermoil, all in the municipality de Pombal, the parishes of Aljubarrota (N.º Sr.ª dos Prazeres and São Vicente), Alpedriz, Martingança, Montes and Pataias in the municipality de Alcoçaba and those of Minde and Serra de S. António in the municipality de Alcanena (in the district of Santarém). It should also be noted that not all the civil parishes are based on religious parishes (for example, Martingança, Montes, Moita and Carreira).

The division established for statistical purposes should also be noted, although this has nothing to do with historical issues or voluntary formation. Known as the Nomenclature of Territorial Units for Statistics (NUTS), (under Decree-Law no. 244/2002 of 05/11) its second level (NUTS II) currently includes all the region under consideration, since the municipalities of Alcoçaba, Bombarral, Caldas da Rainha, Nazaré, Óbidos and Peniche, which previously belonged to the Lisbon and Tejo Valley region, are now part of the Central NUTS II and so come under the jurisdiction of the Commission for Regional Coordination and Development for the Central Region (CCDR-C).

With regard to NUTS III, the region of Leiria is subdivided into the *Pinhal Interior Norte* (Alvaiázere, Ansião, Castanheira de Pêra, Figueiró dos Vinhos and Pedrógão Grande), *Pinhal Litoral* (Batalha, Leiria, Marinha Grande, Pombal and Porto de Mós), *Médio Tejo* (Ourém) and *Oeste* (Alcoçaba, Bombarral, Caldas da Rainha, Nazaré, Óbidos and Peniche) – see Fig. 9. In this scenario, it can be seen that only one of the areas in question (the Pinhal Litoral NUTS III) consists solely of municipalities in the region covered by this study.

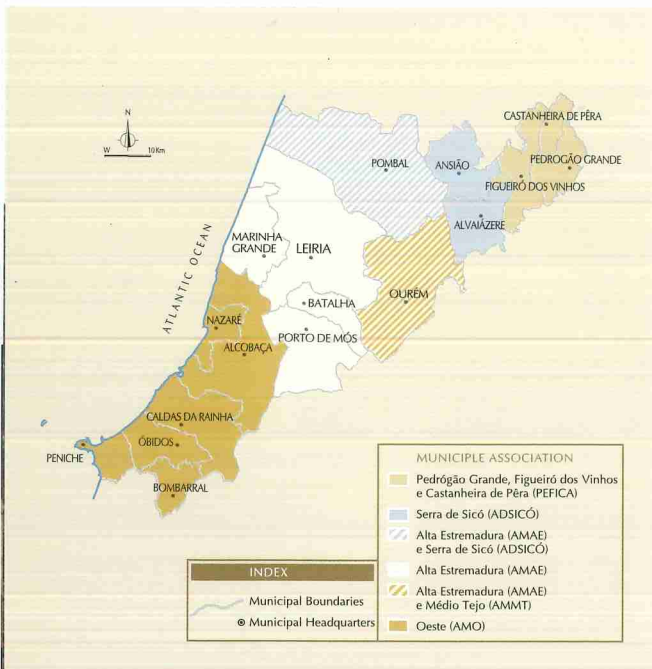


Fig. 6 - LEIRIA REGION: ASSOCIATION OF MUNICIPALITIES



Fig. 7 - LEIRIA REGION: TOURISM DIVISION

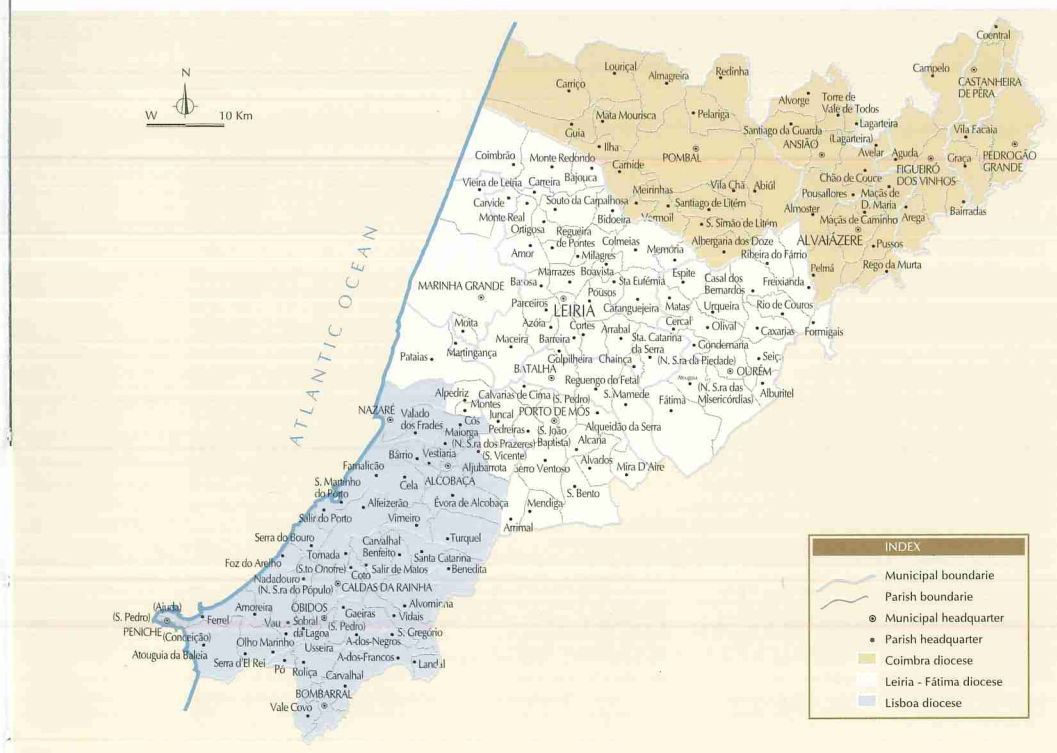


Fig. 8 - LEIRIA REGION: DIOCESES

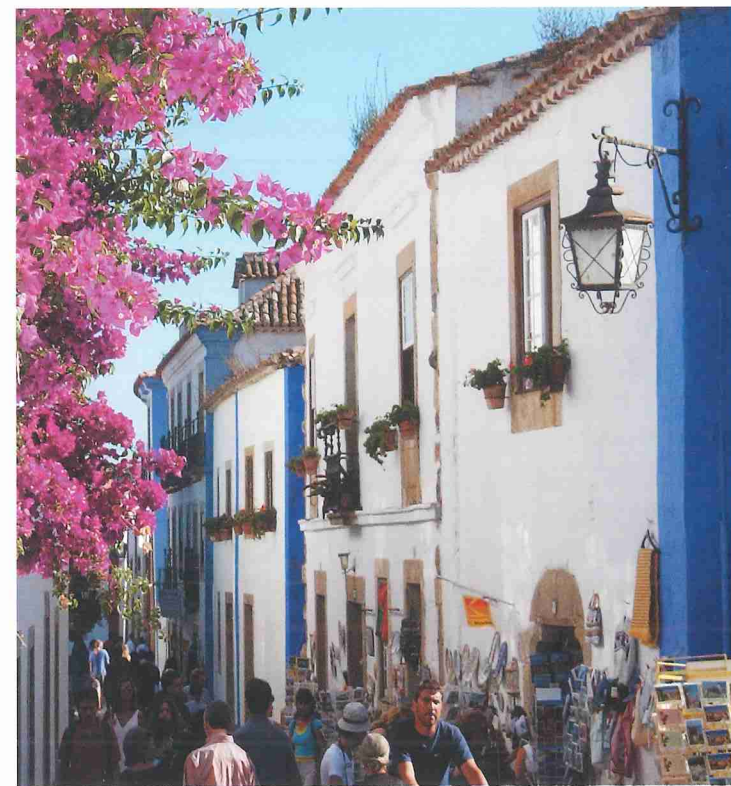




Fig. 9 - LEIRIA REGION: STATISTICAL DIVISION

Having reviewed some of the most important maps, we shall now consider some maps representing sectoral divisions. With regard to the education sector, the territory is divided into two regional boards – the Central Region Board of Education (DREC) and the Lisbon Region Board of Education (DREL).

As Fig. 10 shows, the municipalities in question are spread over three education authorities – the CEAs of Leiria, Lezíria and Médio Tejo and the Oeste. The first of these includes the municipalities of Pinhal Litoral and Pinhal Interior Norte.

As far the state health care sector is concerned, it should be noted that the prevailing division model is by district,

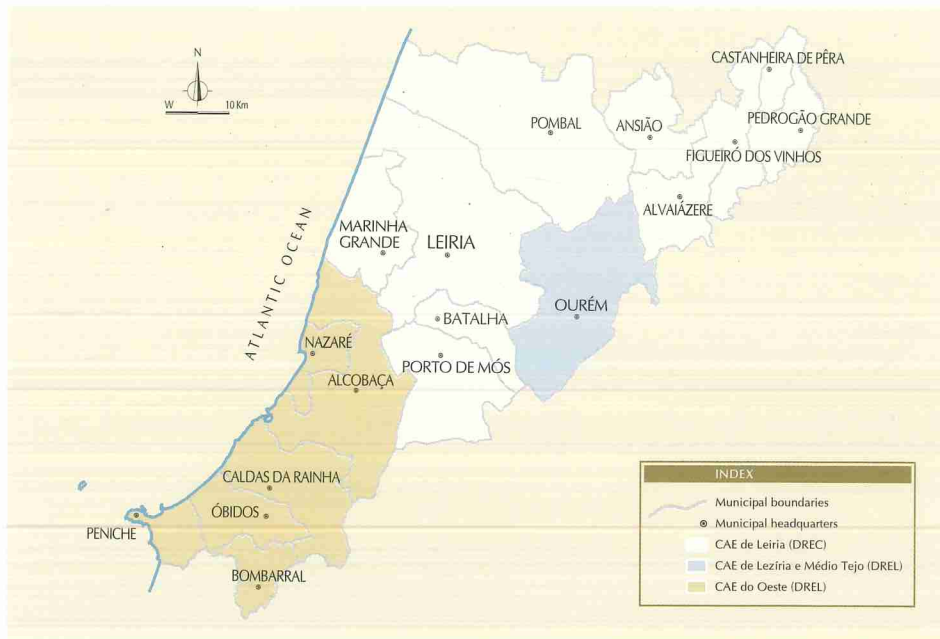
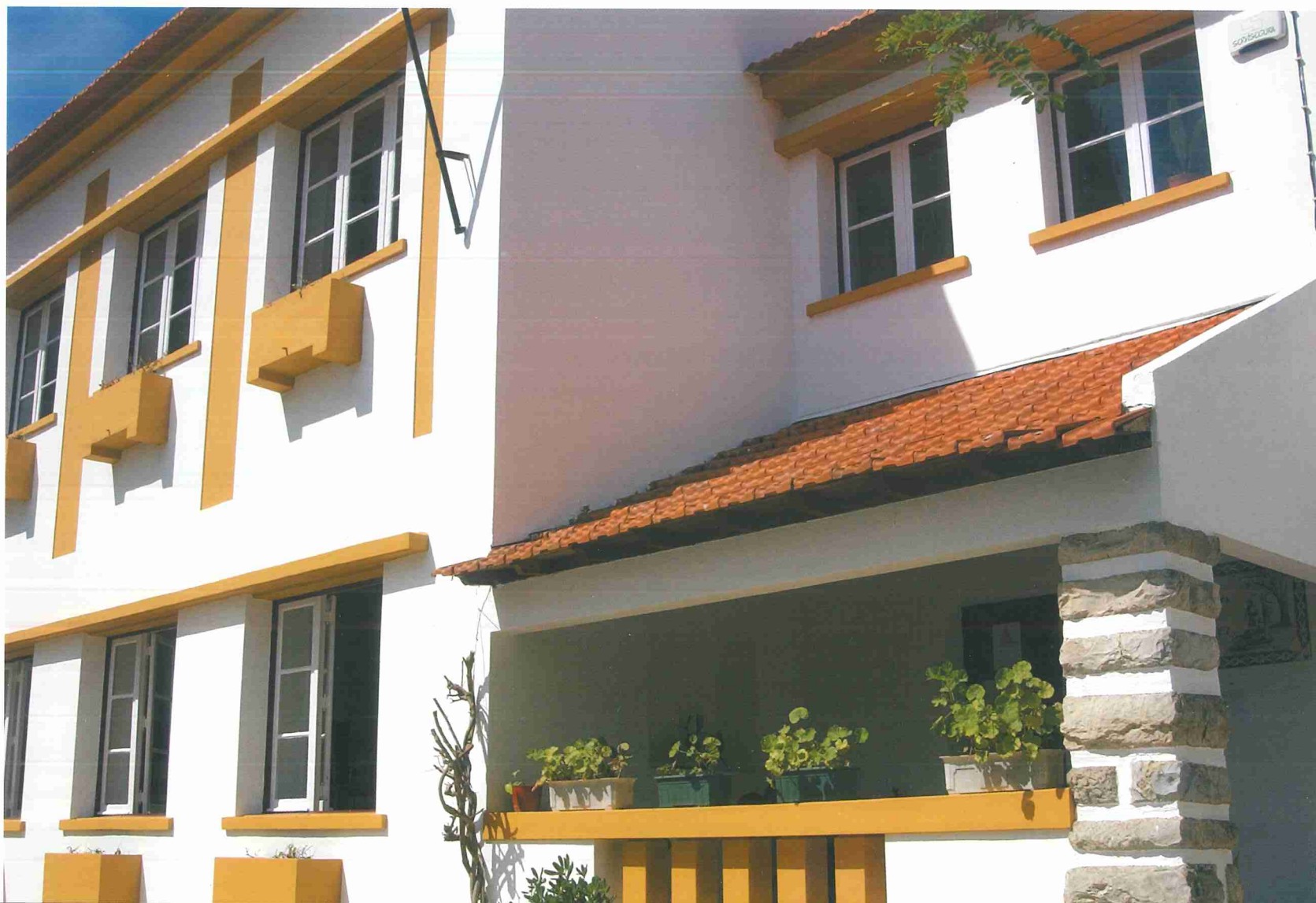


Fig. 10 - LEIRIA REGION: EDUCATIONAL DIVISION

from a strictly administrative point of view, meaning that all 16 municipalities in the district of Leiria are included in the Leiria Sub-Regional Health Authority which belongs to the Central Regional Health Authority (RHA), with its headquarters in Coimbra. The municipality of Ourém, however, belongs to the Santarém Sub-Regional Health Authority under the Lisbon and Tejo Valley RHA.



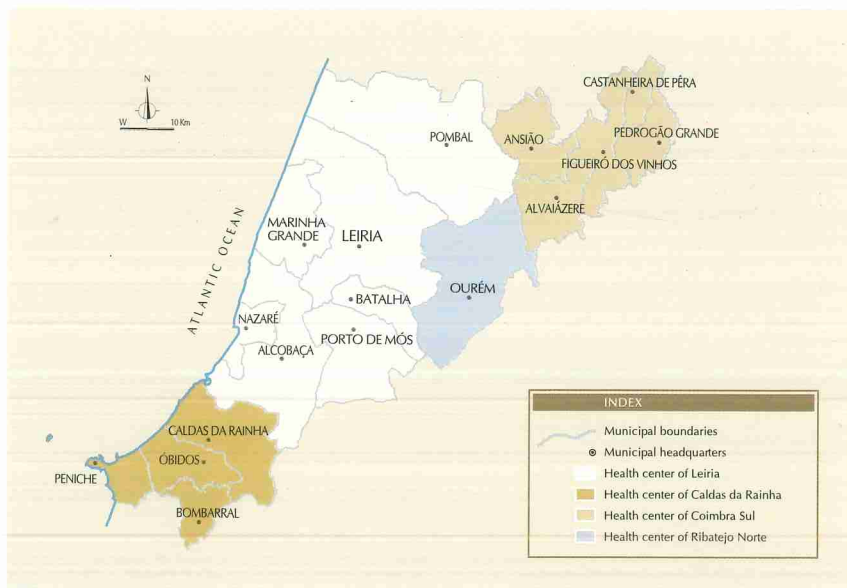


Fig. 11 - LEIRIA REGION: HEALTH DIVISION

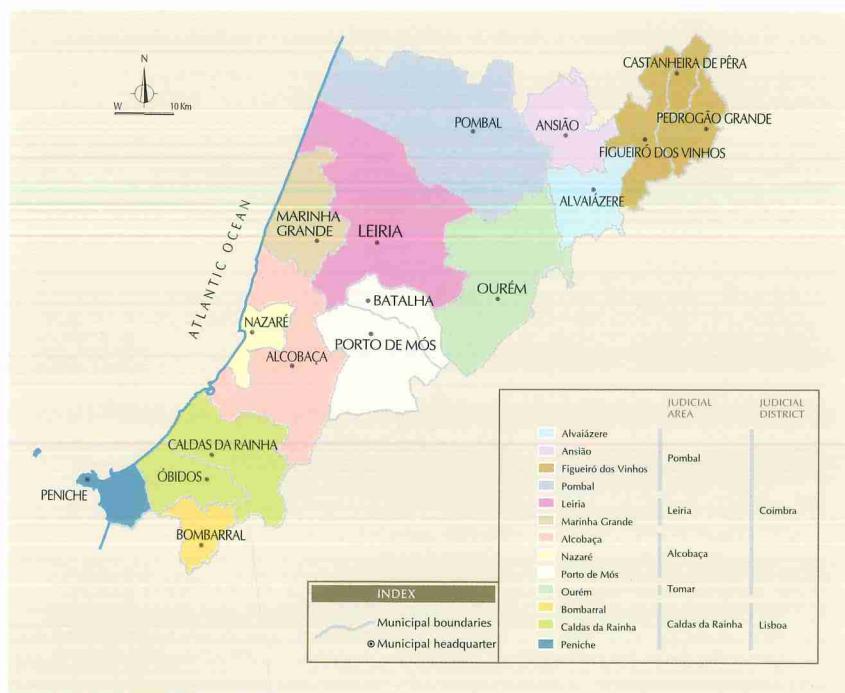
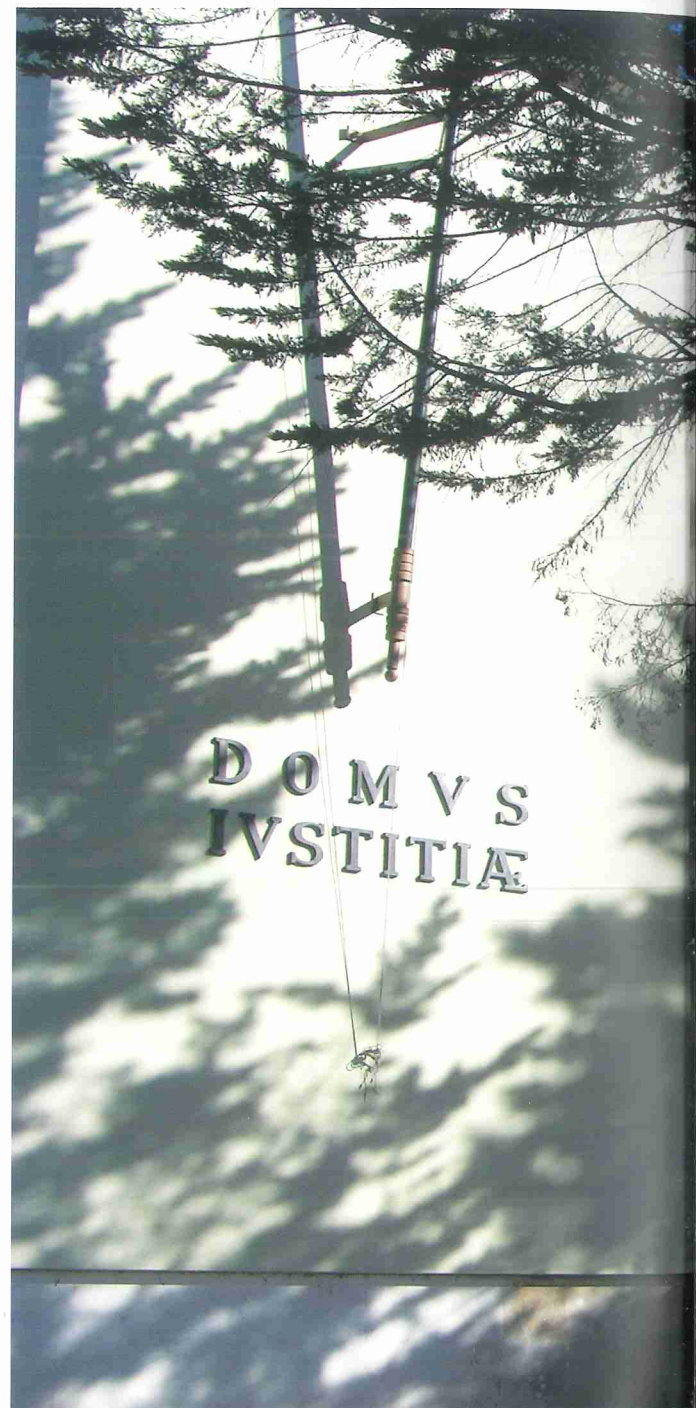


Fig. 12 - LEIRIA REGION: JUDICIAL DIVISION



From a more functional perspective, that of the so-called health units, the situation is different – see Fig. 11. The health centres in the Leiria Sub-Regional Health Authority belong to three different Health Units. The Leiria Health Unit consists of the Pombal, Marinha Grande, Gorjão Henriques (Leiria 1), Arnaldo Sampaio (Leiria 2), Batalha, Nazaré, Alcobaça and Porto de Mós health centres and the Leiria, Pombal and Alcobaça hospitals.

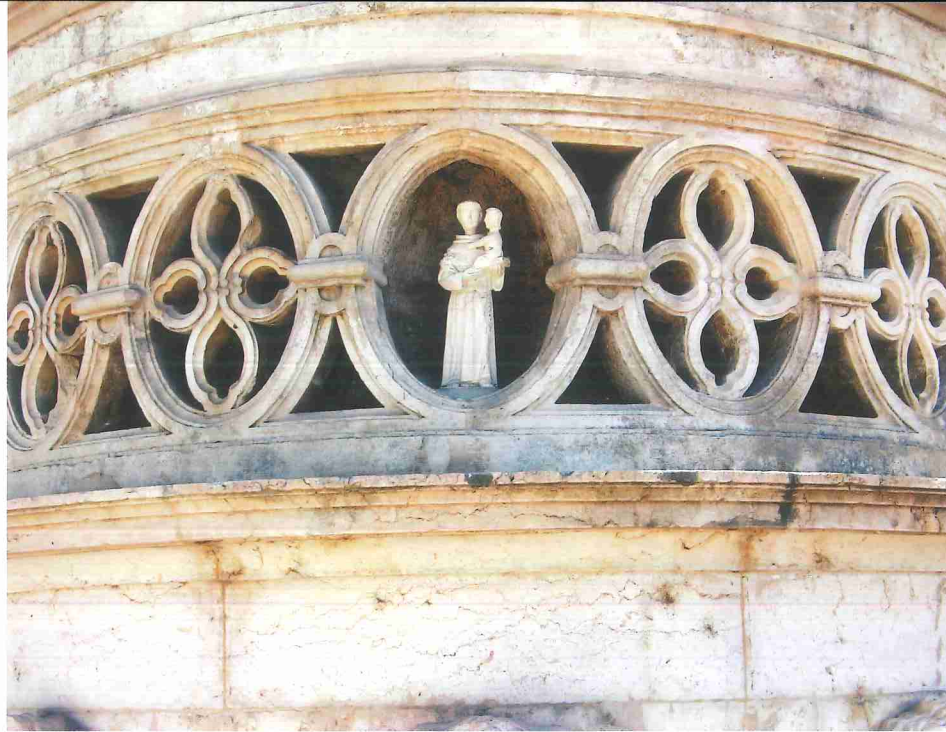
In the south of the district, the Caldas da Rainha Health Unit includes the Bombarral, Caldas da Rainha, Óbidos and Peniche health centres, Peniche Hospital and the Caldas da Rainha Hospital Centre. In the northern part of the district, the Alvaiázere, Ansião, Castanheira de Pêra, Figueiró dos Vinhos and Pedrógão Grande health centres belong to the Coimbra South Health Unit. Finally, in this division of patient flow and cooperation between state health care establishments, Ourém belongs to the Ribatejo North Health Unit.



With regard to the administration of justice, the regional territory is unequally divided between the judicial districts of Coimbra and Lisbon, with the larger part of the area lying within in the former – Fig. 12. The basic units in the territorial organisation of the Portuguese judiciary, known as the common courts, are the district courts and there are thirteen of these in the region.

This division into district courts does not always coincide with municipal boundaries and so there are several cases in the region where courts cover areas corresponding to several municipalities. This is the case with the district courts of Figueiró dos Vinhos (which, in addition to this municipality, also includes the Castanheira de Pêra and Pedrógão Grande areas), Porto de Mós (covering the municipality of the same name and also that of Batalha) and Caldas da Rainha. The latter includes the municipalities of Caldas and Óbidos, whereas Bombarral, which belonged to it until a few years ago, now has a new district court, the most recently-created in the region.





The same situation occurred earlier in relation to the Nazaré district court, because its municipality had formerly come under the jurisdiction of the Alcobaça district court.

Between the division into district courts and judicial districts, there is also division by judicial circuits, which group the first into an intermediary level of organisation. The district courts in the region form the following judicial circuits: Pombal (Alvaiázere, Ansião, Figueiró dos Vinhos and Pombal), Leiria (Leiria and Marinha Grande), Alcobaça (Alcobaça, Nazaré and Porto de Mós), Tomar (Ourém) and Caldas da Rainha (Bombarral, Caldas da Rainha and Peniche).



In relation to the operational links between security forces, it should be recalled, that the Police Force (PSP) is concerned with urban agglomerations and the National Guard (GNR) with rural areas, as illustrated in Fig. 13.

It should be noted that in civil parishes such as Pombal, Marinha Grande, Ourém (N.^a Sr.^a da Piedade) and Fátima, in which only part of the territory is classified as an urban zone, the PSP is responsible for law and order in these areas and the GNR for the rest. This is also the case in the parishes on the outskirts of the city of Leiria which partly belong to the respective urban area. These situations mean that both forces can be found in certain parishes in the region, as shown on the aforementioned map.

It should also be noted that the PSP has a district command, based in Leiria, and squadrons in the following urban centres: Alcobaca, Caldas da Rainha, Marinha Grande, Nazaré, Peniche, Pombal, São Martinho do Porto and São Pedro de Moel. The Ourém and Fátima squadrons come under the Santarém District Command.

With regard to the GNR, the area embracing the district of Leiria includes the Leiria Territorial Group and is part of Territorial Brigade no. 2, based in Lisbon, which has detachments in Caldas da Rainha, Leiria and Pombal. The first of these covers the territorial posts of Alcobaca, Benedita, Bombarral, Caldas da Rainha, Óbidos, Pataias,

Peniche and Valado de Frades. The second includes the territorial posts of Batalha, Leiria, Mira D'Aire, Monte Real, Monte Redondo, Porto de Mós and Vieira de Leiria. The Pombal Territorial Detachment has posts in Alvaiázere, Ansião, Castanheira de Pêra, Figueiró dos Vinhos and Guia. The municipality of Ourém also has a territorial post which operates in its respective rural area, under the Tomar Territorial Detachment, which forms part of the same Territorial Brigade as Leiria.

The last of the maps in this section relates to Portugal's latest administrative reorganisation, which began in 2003, following the publication of Laws no. 10/2003 and no. 11/2003 of 13/05, and has been implemented since 2004. This process has resulted in three different groups of municipal associations, organized on a voluntary basis and as a result of decisions made by their representative bodies, defined by the number of municipalities involved and the populations they cover, viz. the Greater Metropolitan Areas (GAMs), Urban Communities (ComUrbs) and Inter-Municipal Communities (ComInters).

In our region (see Fig. 14), this reform has led to the 17 municipalities being divided into three of these bodies. Leiria is the centre of a ComUrb which includes the municipalities of Alvaiázere, Ansião, Batalha, Marinha Grande, Ourém, Pombal and Porto de Mós, and is known as the AMLEI – the Metropolitan Area of Leiria. This designation would appear to reflect its aim of turning the Urban Community into a GAM, although this has not yet been achieved because it does not fulfil the necessary legal requirements (already mentioned)¹.

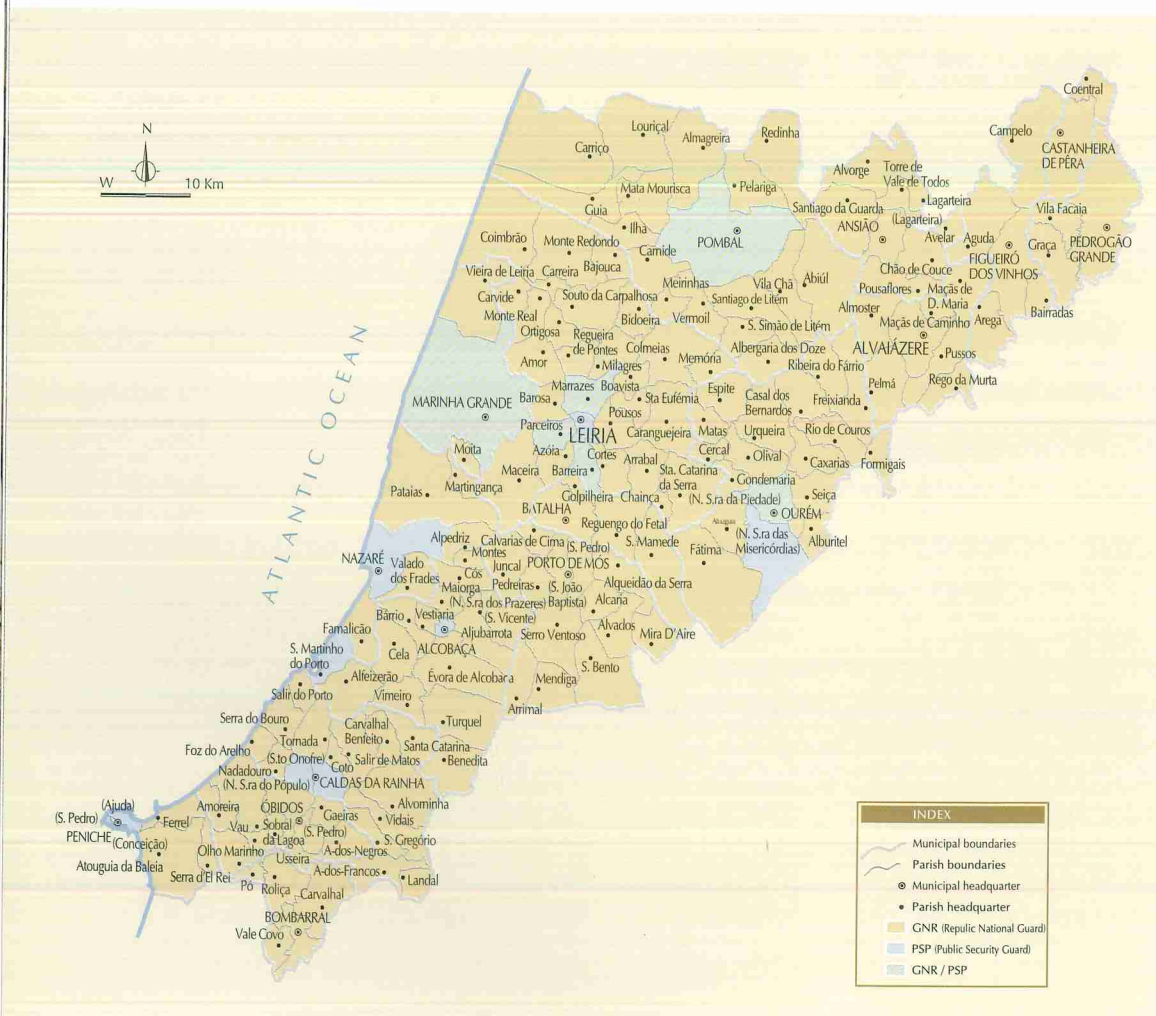


Fig. 13 - LEIRIA REGION: POLICE AREAS



The municipalities in the south of Leiria district, together with other neighbouring municipalities with whom they had founded the Western Municipal Association, opted to join the Western ComUrb. Only the municipality of Nazaré, prevented from joining the AMLEI² against the apparent wishes of its leaders, as it was not close enough to the other municipalities which belonged to it, had not at the time of writing, decided on its position and is therefore shown in white on the map.

In what seems to be still a very early stage, the three municipalities in the north-east of Leiria district (Castanheira de Pêra, Figueiró dos Vinhos and Pedrógão Grande) have stated their intention of creating an Inter-municipal Community together with the other adjacent municipalities, which is likely to be called the *ComInter do Pinhal*.

Although allowed by law, the future of this new administrative model is still uncertain, since its jurisdiction and powers still need further definition, particularly with regard to the allocation of financial resources, so it is not possible at the moment to anticipate the actual influence of this model on the (re)configuration of the region that concerns us.

“Our” region is therefore a regional area that is defined by and consolidated in a plurality of maps. This is the result of various different interpretations of the territory, on the basis of sometimes

unfounded options, which is why it is difficult to interpret. Nevertheless, some of the maps from which the various contours of this area of the central Portuguese coast have been shaped are regarded here as visual representations of the fragmentation that has been a feature this part of mainland Portugal.



Fig. 14 - LEIRIA REGION: NEW ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE (2004)

¹ In fact there are only 8 municipalities in the AMLEI (the minimum requirement is 9), representing a population of 319,363 in 2001 (whereas the law stipulates a minimum of 350,000).

² Even if membership does prove possible, AMLEI would be unable to benefit from GAM status since it represents a population of 334,423 and so does not meet the population requirement.



FROM LAND TO PEOPLE

The dynamics of regional demography

The region we are examining is nowadays considered a demographically attractive area receiving both national and foreign migratory flows.

Its location on the Portuguese coast – the strip of land which is currently the most dynamic in terms of population, its position half-way between the country's two major metropolitan areas (Lisbon and Porto) and its relative economic strength as represented by an entrepreneurial fabric of SMEs, are other factors which have helped it achieve this status.

Nevertheless, the regional territory does contain some asymmetries and the variations in population indicators in each of the 17 municipalities in the area are very uneven.

Let us first analyse the evolution of the regional population during the period 1864 to 2001, for which data obtained from regular census counts is available³. During this period the population ranged from 194,858 to 505,642, meaning that the current figure is roughly two and a half times more than that recorded 137 years earlier (see APPENDIX - Table I). It should also be noted that in 1527, according to the results of a *Numeramento* (population count) undertaken at the time, the total number of residents in the region was estimated at about 33,608⁴.

Fig. 15 is based on the results of fourteen census counts carried out in the above-mentioned period, illustrating the regional demographic profile from the 19th to 21st centuries.

During the period in question, the regional population curve, with a few significant nuances, mirrored the national trend for the same period (cf. APPENDIX - Table II). Therefore, between 1864 and 1911, a substantial natural growth rate was recorded, as



Fig. 15 - POPULATION EVOLUTION IN LEIRIA REGION FROM 1864 TO 2001

Source - Elaborated, according to the INE available information (1964; 1970³, 1981, 1991 e 2002³).

in the country as a whole. Between 1911 and 1920, the stagnation recorded in the Portuguese population as a whole (caused by high death rates due to the Spanish flu epidemic and military involvement in the First World War, in addition to waves of emigration, particularly to Brazil) was not experienced to the same extent here.

In the following period (1920-1950), the region also witnessed a significant sharp rise in population due to a fall in the death rate (caused, among other reasons, by better living conditions, medical care and hygiene) and a decline in emigration (due to the international economic crisis in the 1930s and the Second World War).

Between 1950 and 1970, however, the number of emigrants rose so sharply that in the 1950s growth was very slow and in the 1960s there was negative growth for the first time. In both the region and the country as a whole, again due to intense waves of migration, this time to wealthier European countries such as France and Germany.

³ We refer to the present day municipalities, even though they have changed considerably during the period under consideration in terms of administrative division into municipalities and parishes. Nevertheless, on the basis of official retrospective data (INE, 1964), it has been possible to reconstruct demographic development with reference to the present day.

⁴ Our calculations are based on the total number of residents recorded in the 1527 *Numeramento* in each of the administrative units considered at the time, whose territory lies within the present day region under study: Alcobaça, Alfeizerão, Aljubarrota, Alpedriz, Cela, Coz, Évora de Alcobaça, Maiorga, Paredes, S. Martinho do Porto and Turquel (the present municipality of Alcobaça); Alvaizere, Maças de Caminho, Maças de D. Maria and Pussos (the present municipality of Alvaizere); Avelar and Pousaflores (the present municipality of Ansião); Batalha; Alvorninha, Caldas da Rainha, Salir de Matos, Salir do Porto and Santa Catarina (the present municipality of Caldas da Rainha); Aguda and Arega (the present municipality of Figueiró dos Vinhos); Leiria; Pedemeira (the present municipality of Nazaré); Obidos; Atouguia da Baleia (the present municipality of Peniche); Abiúl, Pombal and Redinha (the present municipality of Pombal); Porto de Mós; Ourém. In calculating the number of inhabitants in the region we followed GALEGO e DAVEAU (1986: 65), using "one of the criteria adopted in demographic studies of the time, according to which each household or resident corresponded to an average of 4 individuals".

Demographic growth is evident in the next decade (1970 – 1981) although in the region we are interested in it was much less intense than in the country as a whole. This growth was due to a slow-down in the flow of emigrants and the return of hundreds of thousands of Portuguese citizens from the former overseas provinces. However, in 1981, the population of the Leiria region was not much more than it had been 1960, as recorded in the Census. It is likely that in the region generally and, in particular, in some of the municipalities within it, there was still a considerable amount of migration, so the fall in emigration noted after the first oil crisis (1973) was not so visible.

From 1981 to 1991, here, as in all country, the population barely grew at all, despite a rise in average life expectancy, as the effects of an increasingly lower birth rate became more marked.

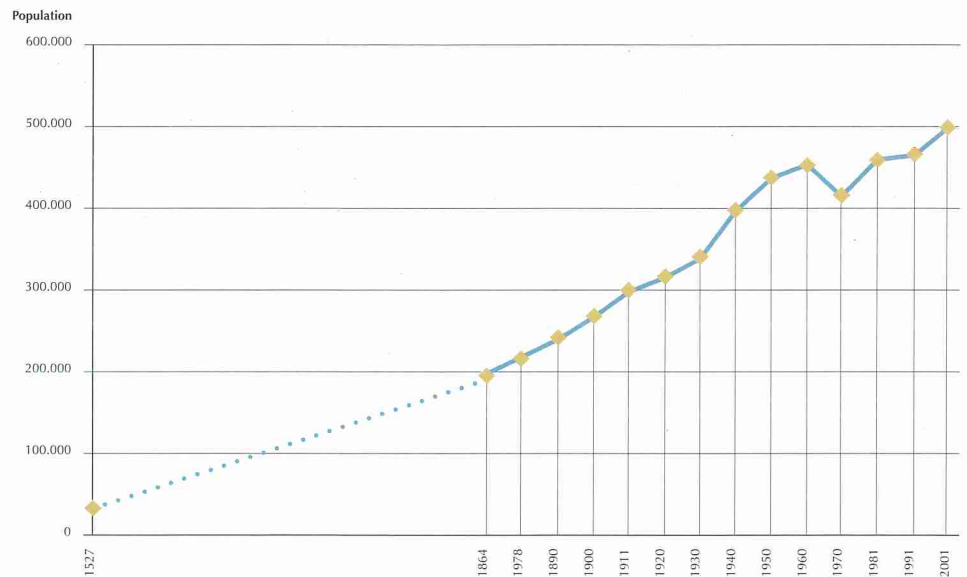


Fig. 16 - POPULATION EVOLUTION IN LEIRIA REGION FROM (1527-2001)

Source - Elaborated, according to the GALEGO, DAVEAU (1986) and INE information (1964; 1970^a, 1981, 1991 e 2002^a)

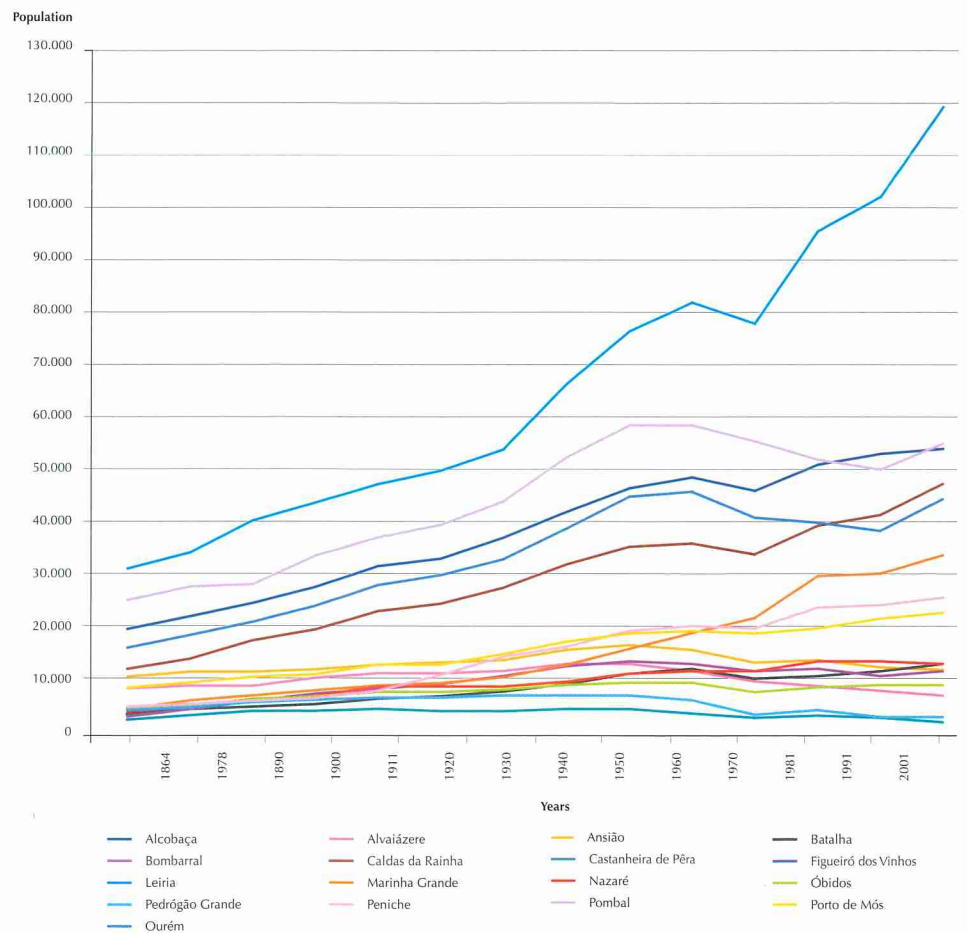


Fig. 17 - POPULATION EVOLUTION IN LEIRIA REGION FROM 1864 to 2001, by municipality

Source - Elaborated, according to the INE information (1964; 1970^a, 1981, 1991 e 2002^a)



More recently (1991-2001), a new demographic factor has emerged: immigration. The region, and the country as a whole, is witnessing a new phenomenon (in terms of its scale) in its demographic history – an influx of foreign workers, not only from the Portuguese-Speaking African Countries (PALOP) and Brazil, but above all, from Eastern European countries. Demographic growth is now becoming much more the result of a migratory, rather than a natural, balance.

Let us turn now to the broader demographic cycle (Fig. 16), which includes the population estimated in the 1527 *Numeramento*. Although the records cover only the results of this exercise, in the 337 years up to the next period (1864) it can be seen that the population of the region grew by 480%, i.e., on average roughly 1.4% per year. From 1864 to the 2001 census – a period of 137 years – the growth rate was slightly lower, at around 1.2% per year.

As the above figures show, in the 2001 census the region slightly exceeded the benchmark of half a million inhabitants. However, of this total, the figures for each of the municipalities reveal significant differences between the most and least densely populated.

These discrepancies are clearly shown in Fig. 17, which trace the evolution of the population in the 17 municipalities which comprise our region in the period between 1864 and 2001.

In 2001, and by quite a margin, the municipality of Leiria is top of the list, with a total population of almost 120,000. Moving down at intervals of 30,000 to 60,000 inhabitants we find the municipalities of Pombal, Alcobaça, Caldas da Rainha, Ourém and Marinha Grande. A group of small municipalities, all with populations of less than 20,000 contains Nazaré, Batalha, Ansião, Bombarral, Óbidos, Alvaiázere, Figueiró dos Vinhos, Pedrógão Grande and Castanheira de Pêra. The municipalities of Peniche and Porto de Mós lie somewhere between this group and the previous one.

These synchronic results, from the last census were compared with the corresponding figures for 1864. Diachronic analysis reveals some striking findings, not only in terms of certain changes in the rankings in comparison with today, but above all in the much smaller discrepancies existing between the municipalities.

Comparing the each of the present day municipalities during this period, it can be seen that around half of the municipalities in the region have stagnated or even regressed in demographic terms, particularly those in the northern inland area of the district of Leiria. Another group, consisting of the remaining municipalities, with the exception of Leiria, showed moderate population growth during this time. During the 137-year period, only the district capital has experienced exceptional population growth, gradually establishing itself (except in the 1960s due to a wave of emigration which also had an impact here) as the main regional centre of attraction, with the population increasing from 32,252 to 119,847 inhabitants.

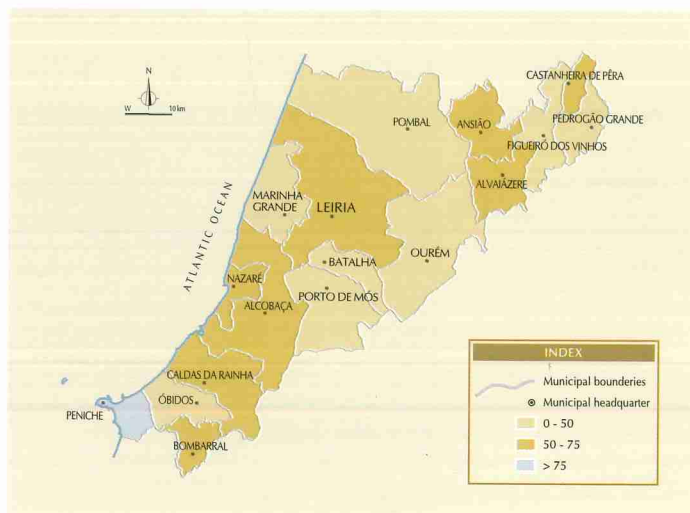


Fig. 18 - POPULATION DENSITY IN LEIRIA REGION, by municipality (1864)

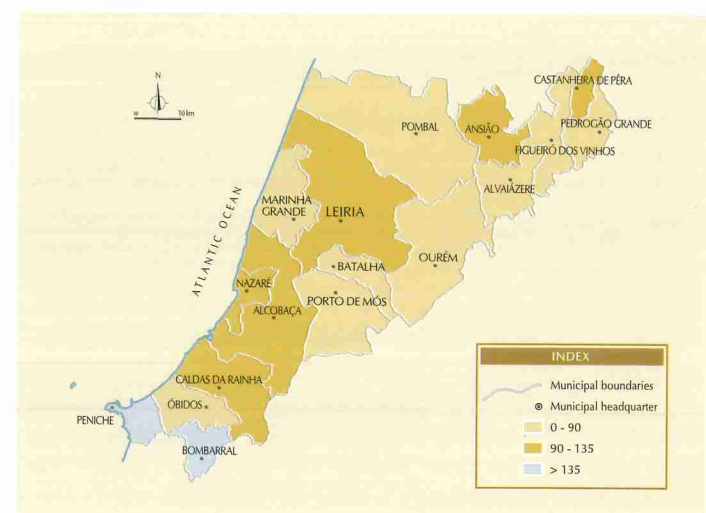


Fig. 19 - POPULATION DENSITY IN LEIRIA REGION, by municipality (1930)



The data relating to population density in the region that today has the city of Leiria at its centre is also interesting – see Table 2, which traces the evolution of this indicator during the above period.

From a demographic point of view, it can be seen that the population has gradually concentrated in this area, even if this happened slowly at certain times and even slipped back in the 1960s, for the reasons explained earlier.

But, this indicator varies when the overall figures are broken down by municipality, with the population density of each ranging, in 2001, from 34.2 pop./km² (Pedrógão Grande) to 351 pop./km² (Peniche). Moreover, the overall trend for these figures, when analysed in terms of individual municipalities (APPENDIX - Table III), also reveals significant changes in the relative position of each municipality.

Figs. 18 to 20 aim to highlight this trend, on the basis of data relating to the initial (1864), intermediate (1930) and final (2001) points in the period in question, relative to three groups of municipalities: those with a population density that was less than average for the respective year, those in the middle of or slightly above this average (figures of up to 50% above the average) and those which were considerably above the average (i.e. with a population density that was more than 50% higher).

In 1864, only Peniche came into the last, group, a position which it also maintained at the other points in the survey. In 1930, Bombarral was also included in this level but was replaced by Leiria in the latest (2001) census.

In contrast, some of the municipalities in the region have always featured in the list of the least densely populated in all three census counts that were analysed. This was the case with the municipalities of Figueiró dos Vinhos, Óbidos, Pedrógão Grande, Pombal, Ourém and Porto de Mós. Others were always in the middle group (Alcoçaba, Caldas da Rainha and Nazaré).

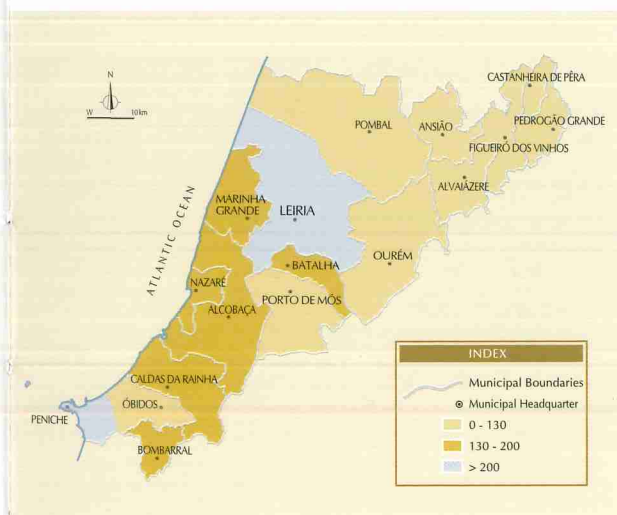
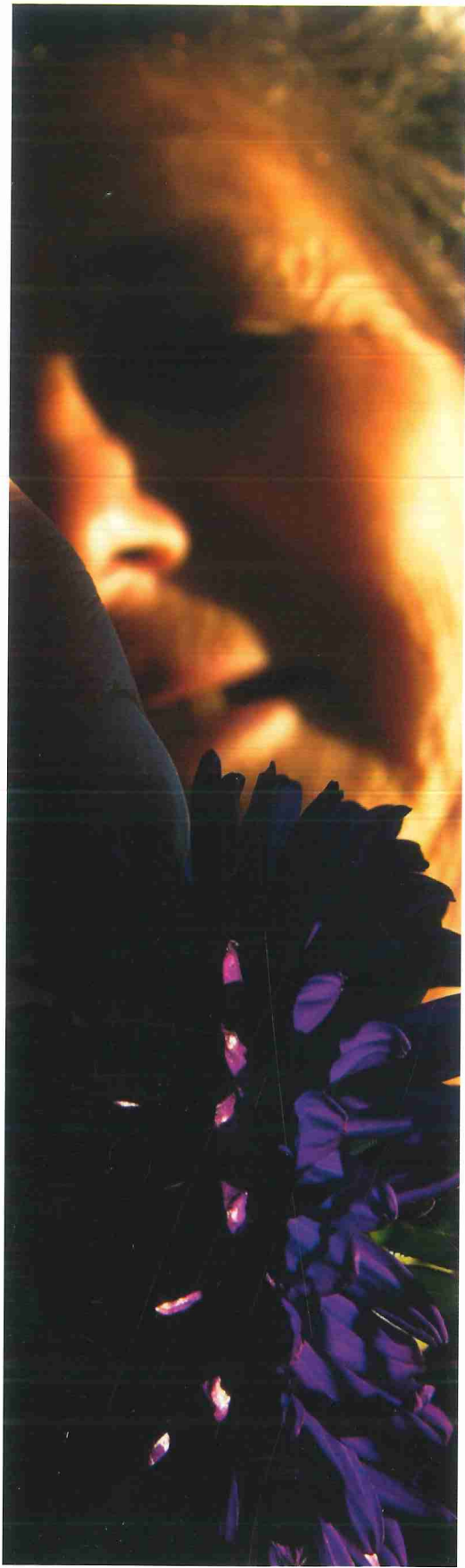


Fig. 20 - POPULATION DENSITY IN LEIRIA REGION, by municipality (2001)

YEARS	DENSITY (inhabitants / km ²)
1527	8.6
1864	49.8
1878	55.5
1890	61.9
1900	68.5
1911	76.5
1920	80.4
1930	87.9
1940	101.8
1950	113.0
1960	115.4
1970	107.2
1981	117.9
1991	119.1
2001	129.1

Picture 2 - INHABITANTS' DEVELOPMENT IN THE REGION (1527-2001)
Source - Elaborated, according to the GALEGO, DAVEAU information (1986) and INE information (1964; 1970^a, 1981, 1991 e 2002^b)





Some hovered between this group and the previous one, such as those whose populations had fallen between 1864 and 1930 (Alvaiázere) or 1930 and 2001 (Ansião and Castanheira de Pêra), whilst others, such as Marinha Grande (1930) or Batalha (2001), saw an increase.

In trying to assess the relative weight of the region in relation to the national total, it can be seen that at present it represents 4.9% of the total population of Portugal (cf. APPENDIX - Table II). Moreover, in diachronic terms, this weighting has not varied significantly since 1864, remaining at between the 4.5% calculated for this year and the 5.2% calculated for 1920 and 1950). In earlier times (1527), however, the percentage population for the region did not exceed 3% of the total number of inhabitants in mainland Portugal.

Another aspect that must be considered when assessing demographic behaviour in the region concerns the analysis of birth and death rates, from which the natural growth rate (NGR) for the population may be obtained. These figures are presented in Fig. 21 for the year 2001, highlighting those municipalities in which the line representing the mortality rate is located at some distance from the line marking the birth-rate, which applies to most of the 17 municipalities included. In contrast, only

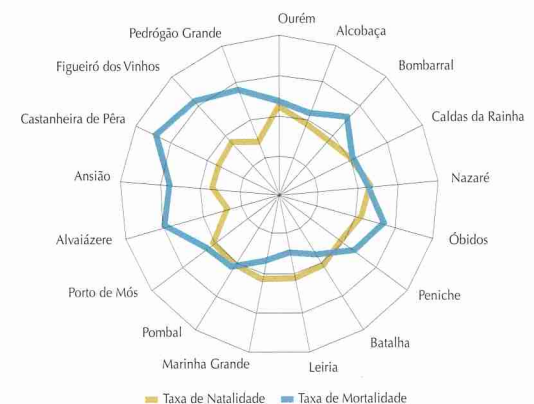


Fig. 21 - BIRTH AND DEATH RATES FOR MUNICIPALITIES IN LEIRIA REGION (PER MIL) - 2001

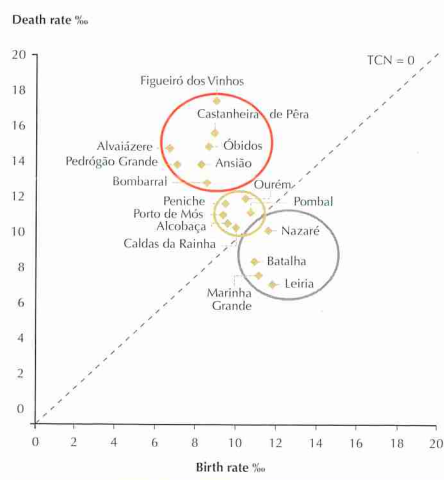
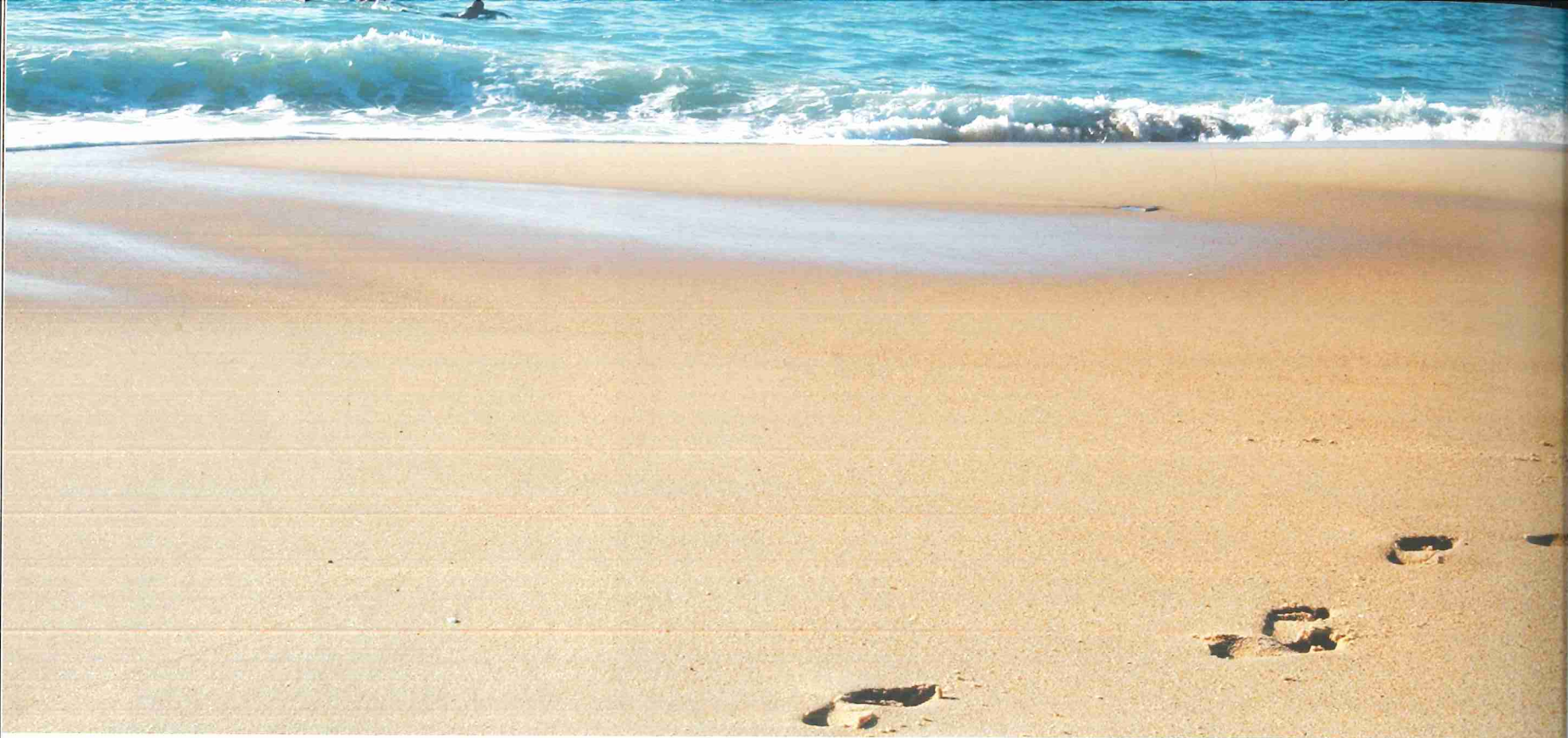


Fig. 22 - BIRTH AND DEATH RATES FOR MUNICIPALITIES IN LEIRIA REGION (2001)

Source - Elaborated, according to the INE information (2002b)

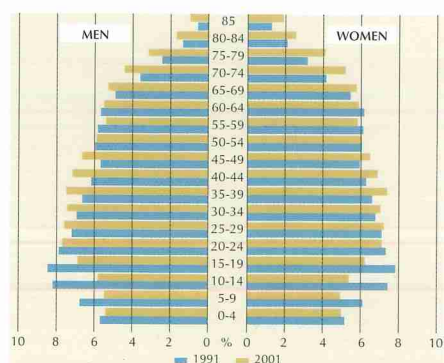


Fig. 23 - AGE PYRAMID FOR POPULATION IN LEIRIA REGION (1991 - 2001)

Source - Elaborated, according to the INE information (1991 and 2002a)

the municipalities of Leiria, Marinha Grande, Batalha and, tangentially, Nazaré, exhibit a positive natural growth rate.

On the evidence of figures from the INE (National Statistics Institute) on the basis of which the above figure was produced, it may be seen that the birth rate for the different municipalities is 4.8‰, although there are variations of between 6.9‰ (Alvaiázere) and 11.7‰ (Nazaré). The death rate varies between 7.7‰ (Leiria) and 17.1‰ (Castanheira de Pêra) – revealing an amplitude of 9.4‰.

The natural growth rate revealed for each of the municipalities using the demographic statistics provided is negative for the municipalities of Castanheira de Pêra (- 8.6‰), Alvaiázere (- 8.1‰), Figueiró dos Vinhos (- 7.1‰), Pedrógão Grande (- 7.0‰), Ansião (- 5.4‰) and Bombarral (- 3.9‰), relating only to situations that are most obvious from this indicator, which is one of the factors contributing to the ageing of the population.

By presenting the same situation differently (Fig. 22), it is possible to define and represent three groups of municipalities according to the birth and death rates for 2001.

Using this method, the municipalities are divided into three groups: the first (defined by a red line) includes those whose natural growth is negative due to a low birth-rate and a simultaneously high death rate – the *shrinking* municipalities.

As a counterbalance, the second group consists of those with higher birth rates and lower death rates, highlighting, as we said earlier, the situation in Leiria and Marinha Grande, which are experiencing positive natural growth – the more *dynamic* municipalities. Somewhere between them are the municipalities for which the figures, although negative, are approaching zero natural growth rate – the almost *stationary* municipalities.

The age pyramid for the region (presented in Fig. 23) represents the situation just described, in which the phenomenon of the dual ageing of the population accentuates

sharply from 1991 (light bars) to 2001 (dark bars), as a result of the twin effects of an increasingly lower birth rate (the age groups at the base of the pyramid) and a gradual rise in average life expectancy (the groups at the top of the pyramid).

The age pyramid for 2001 may be classified as *constrictive* that is, one in which the proportion of adults and the elderly is much higher than the juvenile group, for the reasons already given. This was already in evidence in 1991, although the trend was much less marked. In both cases women are, as usual, less well represented in the lower age groups (it is an established fact that more males than females are born). In contrast, women are increasingly represented in the adult age groups, clearly exceeding the effect of men in the groups representing the elderly, since life expectancy is slightly higher for women.

We now turn to an analysis of the age pyramids for each municipality in the region for 1991 and 2001, which will enable us to verify the development that has taken place and the trend this reveals (Fig. 24). The groups which were defined for the purposes of Fig. 22 largely reappear here.

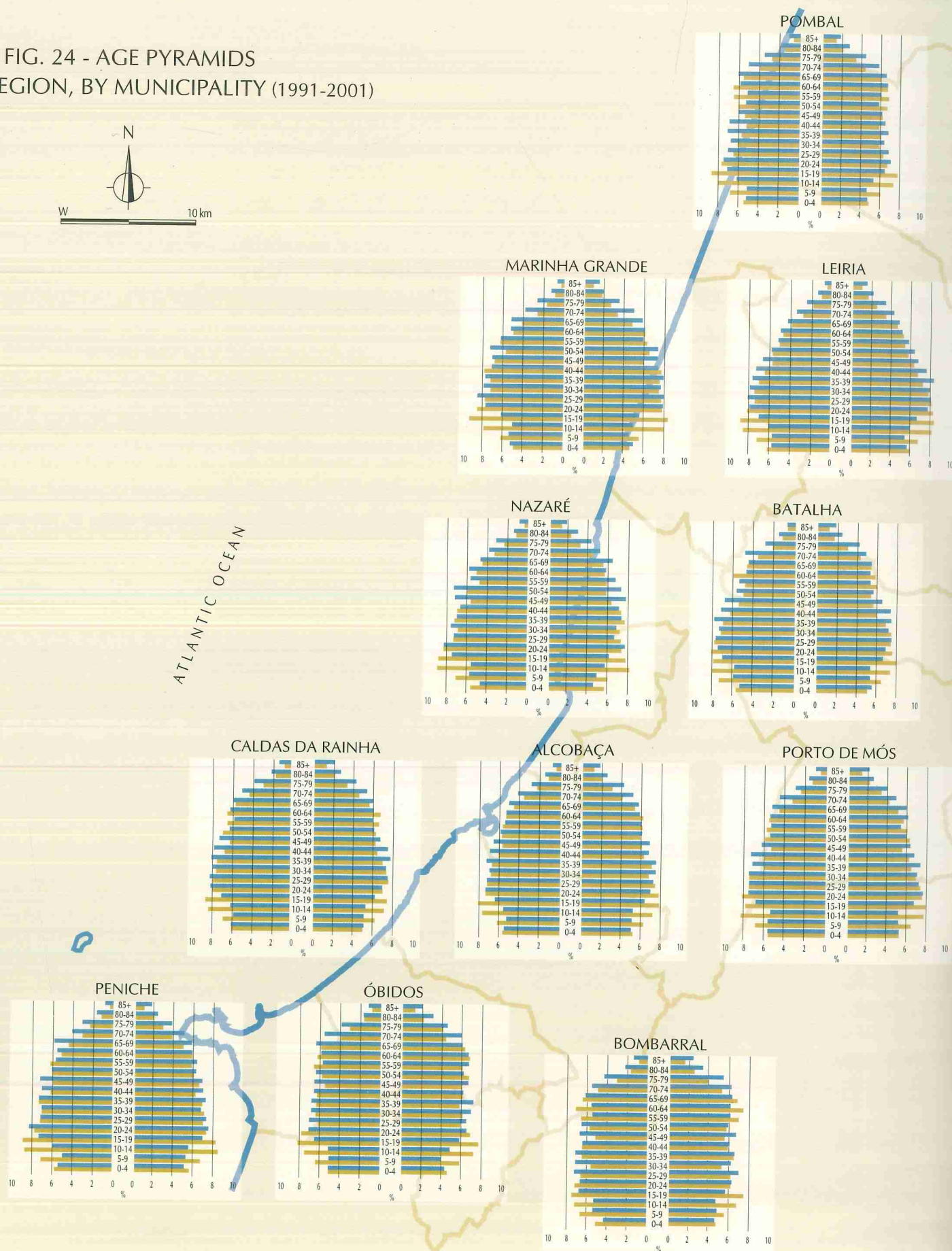
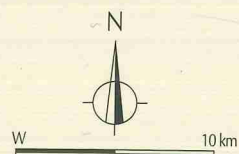
Let us start with Leiria and Marinha Grande, where a certain balance may be seen, despite a low birth rate which is clearly visible in the younger age groups. Nevertheless, in the latter municipality the percentage for the 0-4 year old group increased slightly between 1991 and 2001, as was also the case, less visibly, in Batalha (only for females) and Caldas da Rainha. These two municipalities, together with Alcobaça, Nazaré, Peniche and Porto de Mós, have similar age pyramids, which are close to the Leiria-Marinha Grande demographic axis in terms of their dynamics.

Pombal and Ourém, on the other hand, are a better reflection of the profiles of the groups featuring the more constrictive age pyramids, which include Alvaiázere, Ansião, Bombarral, Castanheira de Pêra, Figueiró dos Vinhos, Óbidos and Pedrógão Grande. The last one deserves special mention since its pyramid is almost inverted, a phenomenon that has been reinforced over the last decade.

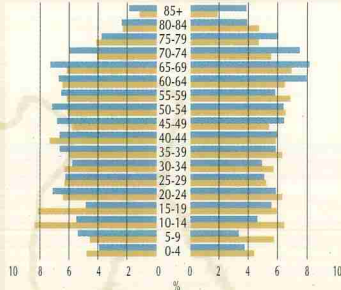
In short, although the regional demographic situation may be characterised in general by an aging population, this process is taking place at difference rates, ranging from the apparently less disturbing situations in the main urban centres to the somewhat more dramatic cases of the municipalities in the Pinhal Interior Norte area, which is exhibiting such a marked and rapid aging trend that it would seem to presage near desertification in the long term.



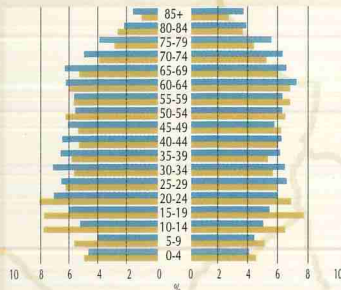
FIG. 24 - AGE PYRAMIDS
IN LEIRIA REGION, BY MUNICIPALITY (1991-2001)



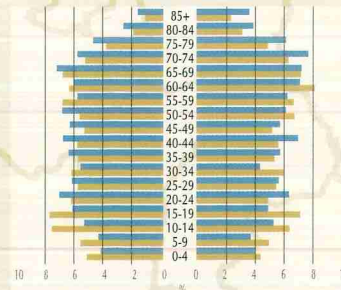
CASTANHEIRA DE PÊRA



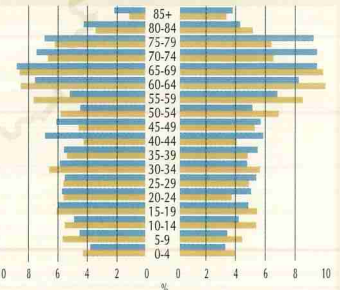
ANSIÃO



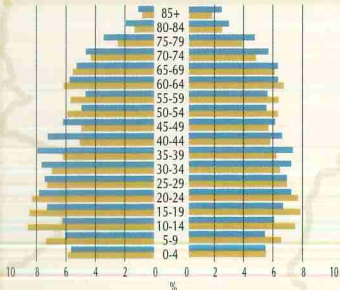
FIGUEIRÓ DOS VINHOS



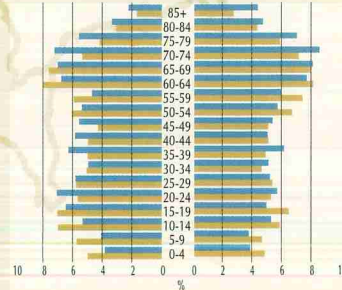
PEDROGÃO GRANDE



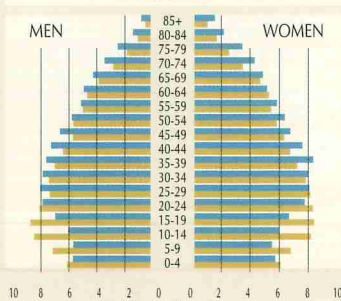
OURÉM



ALVAIÁZERE



INDEX



1991
2001

Municipal boundaries



MALAGUETA
A PRODUZIDA
RESTAURANTE

PROMOÇÕES

alain manoukian



Garrafinhas
Promoção

50%

FROM LAND TO PEOPLE

The structure of the working population by sector: a rapidly changing region

Using data from the census counts of 1950 to 2001 relating to the resident working population by sector of economic activity⁵, the following graphs have been produced (Figs. 25 to 30) to illustrate the deep-seated changes that have taken place during this half-century with regard to the structure of the working population in the region.

In fact, the graphs for the population structure by sector of economic activity almost speak for themselves, given the numbers they involve and the vast changes these represent. The development in the primary sector can be seen at once: its relative weight, calculated by the proportion of the labour force it embraces, is currently more than eleven times less than it was in 1950. This leads us to conclude that the rural-based society that characterised the region until the mid 20th century is nowadays no more than a memory. Moreover, at the time of this census Leiria and its surrounding region still relied more on agriculture, livestock, forestry, fishing, etc. than the nation as a whole, given that within the region 63.9% of the working population were employed in these activities, whereas the figures nationwide did not exceed 49.1%.

This steady abandoning of the primary sector until it reached a low of 5.7% in 2001 benefited first the secondary and, later, the tertiary sector. Until 1981, in fact, tertiary activities amounted to between 16.5% and 22.1% and it was only in that year that they broke the 30% barrier. In these three decades most of the people who had abandoned agriculture went into the manufacturing industries and other activities in the secondary sector, and this growth lasted until the early 1990s, when it reached its peak – 45.5%. The secondary sector still occupies a leading position today (43.3%), compared with a figure of 35.1% for the sector in the country as a whole.

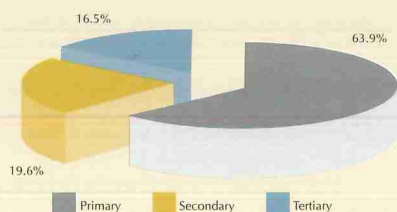


Fig. 25 - ACTIVE POPULATION IN LEIRIA REGION per activity area (1950)

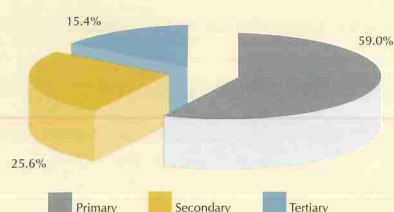


Fig. 26 - ACTIVE POPULATION IN LEIRIA REGION per activity area (1960)

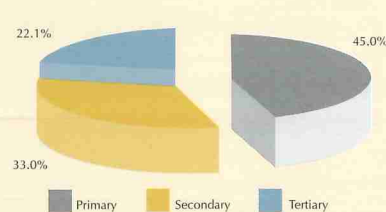


Fig. 27 - ACTIVE POPULATION IN LEIRIA REGION per activity area (1970)

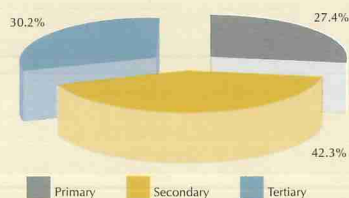


Fig. 28 - ACTIVE POPULATION IN LEIRIA REGION per activity area (1981)

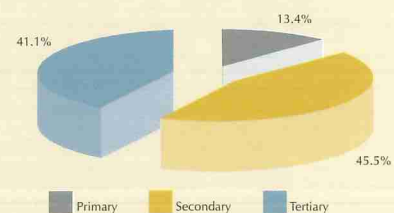


Fig. 29 - ACTIVE POPULATION IN LEIRIA REGION per activity area (1991)

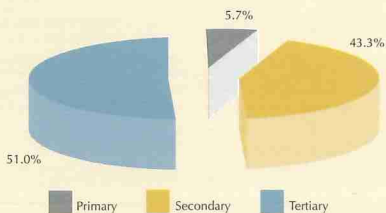


Fig. 30 - ACTIVE POPULATION IN LEIRIA REGION per activity area (2001)

⁵ Prior to 1950, there was no statistical data available for this indicator by municipality, only by district. As we were aiming for a regional perspective (i.e. one that included the municipality of Ourém as well as the district of Leiria) we chose only to process information that was available from that year on. Another constraint concerned the 1970 results, also unpublished, in which mining and quarrying were included in the secondary sector. It should also be stressed that the division of the working population by sector of activity sometimes did not reflect the complex reality of professional structures. For example, the tertiary sector includes both highly specialised and less specialised professions. However, it is still possible to construct an interesting picture from this very broad classification, bearing in mind the objectives of this study.

Tertiary activities made a decisive leap forward in the 1990s, becoming the most important sector in the regional economy and involving over half the working population, although this figure was still considerably lower than the figure of 59.9% recorded for the country as a whole. Nevertheless, the sectoral diagrams in Figs. 29 and 30 reveal the rapid advance of tertiarization (an increase of 10 percentage points over 10 years), due to a sharp reduction in the relative weight of agriculture, livestock, forestry, fishing mining and quarrying, which continued to see a downward trend in terms of the proportion of the labour force they employed during this period (from 13.4% to 5.7%). This phenomenon also contributed, on a smaller scale, to a slight fall in the relative weight of the secondary sector (-2.2 percent).

It is also interesting to observe the sectors of activity in more detail by breaking down the data by municipality, as shown in Figs. 31 to 36 (APPENDIX). A diachronic analysis of these graphs leads us to conclude that once again the region, like the country itself, was subjected to huge socio-economic changes whose effects were felt not only in general terms but also within each of the municipalities.

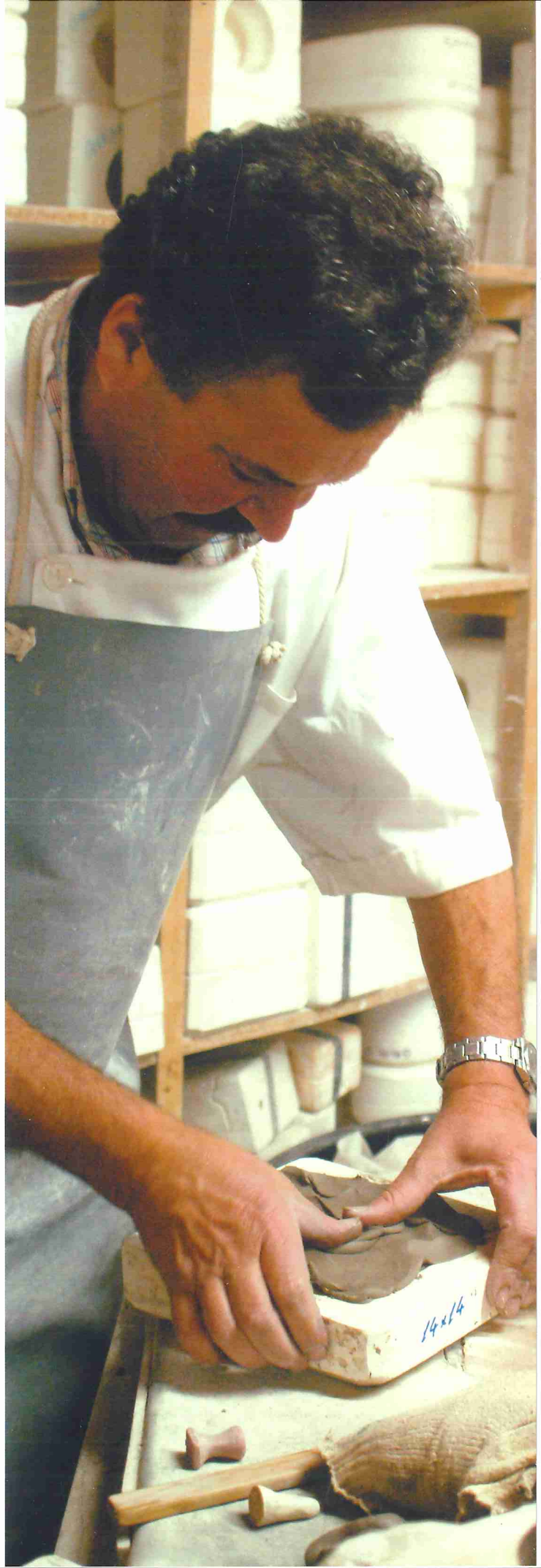
Although it is true that there were differences in pace and intensity, the profile of economic activity changed radically over this fifty-year period. This change accelerated much more rapidly during the second half of this period as a consequence of, amongst other factors, the phenomenon of emigration (in the 1960s and 70s), the change in political regime in 1974, the return of nationals who had been resident in the former overseas provinces (1974/1975) and Portugal's entry into the European Union (1986). These and other "shock waves" were felt in varying degrees in the 17 municipalities under consideration, resulting in a regional profile for the year 2001 that bore no resemblance to the one recorded in 1950.

Let us look more closely at the latter profile (APPENDIX - Fig. 31). With the exception of Castanheira de Pêra and Marinha Grande, industrial centres for the wool manufacturing and glass industries respectively, the working population in the remaining municipalities in the region was mainly employed in the primary sector, mostly in rural municipalities. Moreover, in some municipalities around 70% or more of the working population was employed in this sector, as in Alvaiázere, Ansião, Batalha, Bombarral, Figueiró dos Vinhos, Óbidos, Pedrógão Grande, Pombal and Ourém. In the fishing communities (Nazaré and Peniche) the figures averaged 60%. In the case of Óbidos and Pombal the population employed in the primary sector was as much as 80%!

In relation to the secondary sector, with the exception of the two cases previously cited, only Alcobaça, Leiria and Porto de Mós employed more than 20% of the working population in this sector. Similarly, the tertiary sector had barely come into existence: only Caldas da Rainha, Leiria and Nazaré (which had some tourism at the time) employed more than 1/5 of the population in this area.

In 1960 (APPENDIX - Fig. 32) the profile previously described was essentially maintained, although there was a slight fall in the relative weight of the primary sector. Castanheira de Pêra and Marinha Grande reinforced their status as industrial centres and the beginnings of a measure of industrialisation were being felt in municipalities such as Alcobaça, Leiria, Porto de Mós and Ourém. Only the municipality of Nazaré features in terms of commerce and services and it maintained the highest percentage in this sector in the region. Nevertheless, it was still a markedly rural region, in which, in many of the municipalities, around 60%-70% of the working population was still active in the primary sector.







It was only in 1970 that the structure of production in the region began to show signs of changing (APPENDIX - Fig. 33), albeit cautiously, with the secondary sector becoming the most important, not only in the two industrial municipalities already mentioned but also in Alcobaça, Leiria and Porto de Mós, accentuating the trends that the 1960 statistics had already begun to indicate for these municipalities. Thus, the secondary sector began to predominate in five of the municipalities in the region.

The tertiary sector also began to feature in some of the municipalities, reaching or approaching 30% in Caldas da Rainha, Leiria and Nazaré. In the last one, however, all three sectors had an almost equal weighting at the time. In addition, commerce and services had become the second most important sector in Bombarral, Figueiró dos Vinhos, Óbidos, Pedrógão Grande, Peniche (although in all cases at some considerable distance from the primary sector) and Caldas da Rainha. In Leiria, the tertiary sector was almost level with the primary sector, which had taken by 20 percent in the 1960s. However, the relative weight of the primary sector, although no longer so important in some municipalities, remained a decisive factor in regional employment: in 11 municipalities half or more of the working population was still employed in agriculture or other activities in this sector.

The turnaround in the economic structure of the section of the country that we are examining in this study emerges clearly in the data from the 1981 census (APPENDIX - Fig. 34), in which the area is established as an industrial region with some of the main municipalities revealing a predominant secondary sector, as was the case in Alcobaça, Ansião, Batalha, Castanheira de Pêra, Leiria, Marinha Grande, Porto de Mós and Ourém.

The service sector, in turn, had become the most important sector in Caldas da Rainha and Nazaré. It had also reached a figure of over 20% in all the municipalities and had become the second most important, in percentage terms, in the municipalities of Alcobaça, Batalha, Bombarral, Castanheira de Pêra, Leiria, Marinha Grande, Óbidos and Porto de Mós. In Peniche the tertiary sector had the same weighting as industry, whilst the primary sector remained the most important, due to the combined weight of the rural parishes and the fishing industry in this community. Even so, just a few years before the CAP (Common Agricultural Policy) was applied to Portugal, the primary



sector was still the most important sector in the municipalities of Alvaiázere, Bombarral, Figueiró dos Vinhos, Óbidos, Pedrógão Grande and Pombal.

In relation to the structure of the working population as outlined in 1981, the economic fabric of the region had, by the time of the next census (1991), gained strength in terms of industrialisation, and seen the establishment of the tertiary sector and a major recession in the rural and fishing populations (APPENDIX - Fig. 35). In the last census (2001), the commerce and services sector was well-established across the board, and there was a certain stagnation (or even recession, in some municipalities) in the secondary sector and an employment rate in the primary sector of less than 10% of the labour force in 13 of the municipalities analysed (APPENDIX - Fig. 36).

Let us compare this graph with the previous one. The main conclusion to be drawn, in relation to the primary sector, is that the working population has diminished in all municipalities, without exception. This is most evident in those traditionally associated with agriculture and forestry (such as Alvaiázere, Ansião, Bombarral, Óbidos, Pedrógão Grande, Ourém and Pombal) and in the fishing communities (Peniche). Even in Marinha Grande, where the sector had an almost a residual status in 1991 (0.9%), it fell to 0.7% in 2001. It should also be noted however, that Bombarral, Figueiró dos Vinhos, Óbidos and Peniche still registered figures of between 10% and 18% in 2001.

With regard to the secondary sector, the existence of various cases (seven) of industrial recession during this period should be emphasised, in particular in the municipality of Marinha Grande and, more especially, in Castanheira de Pêra. In contrast, with regard to the reduction in the number of jobs in the primary sector, the labour force employed in manufacturing industries, construction, etc. increased in some of the municipalities referred to in the previous paragraph, together with the process of tertiarisation which will be discussed later, which compensated for this fall. Moreover, in 8 municipalities in the region the secondary sector was the most important, whilst in some others it was the tertiary sector. In one case (Óbidos) the three sectors were of almost equal importance in percentage terms.

Thus Alvaiázere, Ansião, Bombarral, Peniche and Pombal still seem to be recovering from the low level of industrialisation with which they were customarily characterised, in contrast with the situation in the municipalities where industry already had more weight.

A third group consisting of the municipalities of Figueiró dos Vinhos, Nazaré, Óbidos, Ourém and Pedrógão Grande did not register any changes in their situation worth mentioning between 1991 and 2001 and the proportion of the labour force in the secondary sector remained stable overall.

Alongside these developments in the primary sector, there was a sharp increase in the number of employees in the tertiary sector in all the municipalities in the region during this decade.

In terms of this increase in the relative importance of the tertiary sector, it is important to note that certain municipalities, such as Castanheira de Pêra, Pedrógão Grande, Alvaiázere and Óbidos, showed figures for tertiarisation that were almost above the average for the region, due to the sharp fall in the other two sectors.

It is clear today that the municipalities in the region with the largest primary sector are Óbidos (17.8%) and Bombarral (17%), whilst some municipalities are still in double figures – Peniche (13.1%) and Figueiró dos Vinhos (10.9%) - and the figures for all of them are considerably higher than the regional average (5.7%).



With regard to the secondary sector, the following municipalities stand out by virtue of the fact that half of their workforce is employed in this sector: Marinha Grande (56.5%), Porto de Mós (52.6%) and Alcobaça (50.2%).

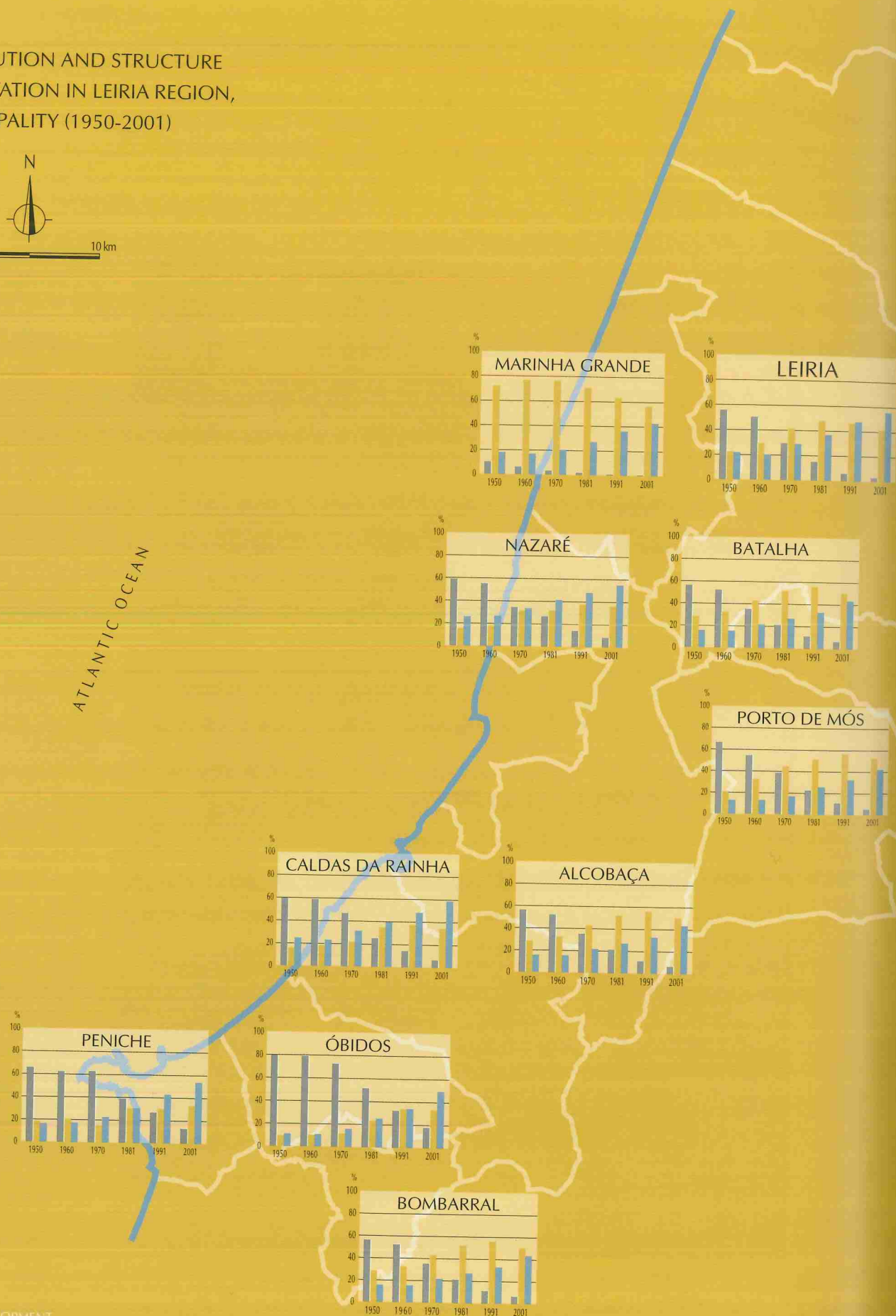
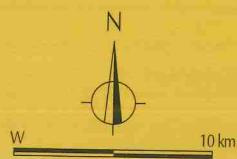
Pedrógão Grande (62.9%), Caldas da Rainha (58.8%), Leiria (55.6%), Nazaré (55.1%), Ourém (54.5%) and Peniche (53.8%) may be distinguished as the municipalities in which the tertiary sector has developed most. In the majority of cases, the already significant or more intense tourism industry, together with the establishment of Polytechnic Institute of Leiria schools in three cases partly explains this result.

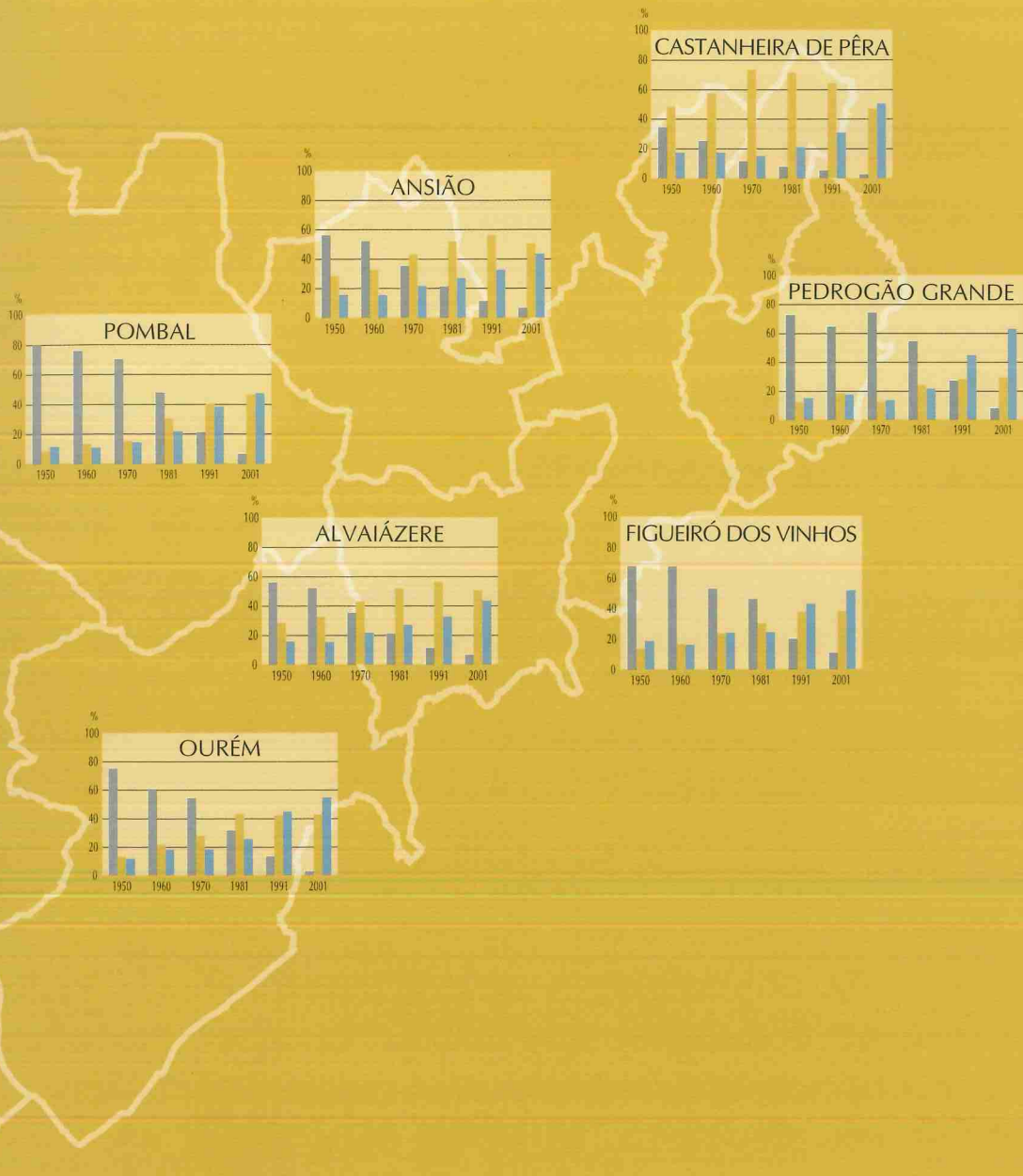
In short, during the 1990s the regions displayed strong mobility between sectors. This had clear socio-economic implications and consolidated the structure of the sectors of activity that had been emerging prior to this period.



If we look now at the data for the entire period in question (1950-2001), by municipality and insert this into a map of the region (Fig. 37), it is easier to appreciate much of what has been said on this subject and we can ascertain the evolution of the working population in the Leiria region on the basis of the municipalities. We can thus identify the specific features of the development of each municipal unit, as well as the features that they share, in terms of both their development and the direction and intensity of the changes which have taken place in the various sectors of activity over half a century. In fact, the relative importance of each change recorded during this period illustrates the specific situation at the starting point (1950) and the finishing point (2001) in relation to this study, together with the differences in the time and manner of this evolution in each municipality.

FIG. 37 - EVOLUTION AND STRUCTURE OF ACTIVE POPULATION IN LEIRIA REGION, BY MUNICIPALITY (1950-2001)





INDEX

-  Municipal boundaries
-  Primary sector
-  Secondary sector
-  Tertiary sector



LEIRIA AND THE FOUNDING OF THE PORTUGUESE NATION

Leiria and the Christian Reconquest

Human presence in the area which nowadays constitutes modern Portugal dates back to prehistoric times and evidence of this can be found in the cave paintings, megalithic monuments and various treasures frequently discovered throughout the country. Occupied successively by different peoples including the Turduli, Celts, Lusitanians, Romans and Visigoths, it was invaded in the 13th century by the Muslims who, in a few short years, succeeded in occupying almost the entire Iberian Peninsula. But two small mountainous areas in the north of the Peninsula steadfastly resisted their incursions: the Asturias in the north, and the Pyrenees in the north-east. Their natural features provided a protective barrier for the Christians who sought refuge there. They became established as the nuclei of the Christian resistance and it was from there that the Christian Reconquest was launched, with the aim of reclaiming the Peninsular Christian territory lost to the Muslim invaders.

The Christian advance on the south led to the formation of the Christian kingdoms of Leon, Castile, Navarre, Aragon and the small *Condado* of Catalonia, which spearheaded the Reconquest in the centuries which followed. Taking advantage of the weakness of the Muslim kingdoms due to internal conflicts, the Christians advanced on the south and in 1064, Fernando Magno, the King of Leon, finally conquered the city of Coimbra, which, over a period of almost a century, became the southern frontier of what would eventually be the future Portucalense *Condado*.

A revival of Muslim power halted the Christian advance and inflicted heavy defeats on its armies. Faced with the impossibility of containing the enemy attacks on their own, the Peninsular Christian kings looked for outside help, requesting support from other kingdoms in the *Respublica Christiana*, on the grounds that they were fighting a common enemy. The *Respublica Christiana* responded to the appeal of their brothers by sending aid in the form of the Crusaders, diverted from their journey to the Holy Land in yet another attempt to liberate Jerusalem from the yoke of the Muslim infidels, since in the end the enemy proved closer to home and constituted a genuine threat to European Christianity.

Amongst those who responded to the appeal from the Peninsula was Henry of Burgundy a French Crusader who, in 1096, as a reward for his services to Afonso VI, King of Leon, was given land extending from the River Minho in the north to the River Côa in the east and from the River Mondego in the south to the Serra da Estrela, with the Atlantic Ocean forming the western boundary. This territory constituted the *Condado* of Portucale, the cradle of the future kingdom of Portugal.



Thus the political corps from which the Portuguese state would be formed began to assemble in the area around the small north-eastern city of Portucale, near the right-hand bank of the mouth of the River Douro. This city, Portucale, was the first seat of the government of the *Condado* and an important source of support in the defence of the Christian borders. Its territory was gradually enlarged following the conquest of the cities of Braga, Lamego, Viseu and, later, Coimbra¹.

By the end of the 11th century, Afonso VI of Leon had moved the front line of the Reconquest from the Mondego to the Tejo but the powerful Almoravid reaction thwarted his efforts and he was forced to abandon the newly-conquered territories.

On the death of Count Henrique his widow, D. Teresa, assumed power as governor of the *Condado*, due to the fact that her son and the legitimate heir, Afonso Henriques, was still a minor. The new governor entered into a dangerous game of political alliances with the nobles of Galicia, which greatly displeased the Portucale nobility who were zealous in guarding their autonomy from the neighbouring kingdom. Fearing the increasingly close relationship established between D. Teresa and the Galician nobility, the Portucale nobles saw the youthful Infante Afonso Henriques as his father's true heir and defender of their autonomy and supported him, and their own interests, in his fight against the woman who ruled over the destiny of the *Condado* and its dubious supporters. Afonso Henriques and the Portucale nobles emerged victorious from this struggle, inflicting a heavy defeat on the supporters of D. Teresa at the Battle of São Mamede in 1128 which, in the words of the historian José Mattoso, marked the first day in the history of the Portuguese nation.

Afonso Henriques became governor of the *Condado* and was soon involved in a war on two fronts in an attempt to strengthen the autonomy of the *Condado* that he had inherited against the threats of Leon and Castile, whilst also extending the boundaries of his territory by advancing the Reconquest further to the south. To achieve his first objective he began to invade Galicia but Muslim offensives in the south forced him to retrench and focus his efforts on containing these attacks².

At the time, the Mondego-Serra da Estrela mountain range formed a natural and civilisational boundary representing a long pause in the progress of the Reconquest. In addition to acting as a line of defence, the southern frontiers inherited by Afonso Henriques also provided important support for the front line of the campaign which, under his aegis, advanced further south.

Having finally been conquered in 1064, Coimbra formed the southern border of the Christian lands for a long time. Despite sporadic conquests on the banks of the Tejo, which were quickly lost again, the Muslims continued to ravage the Mondego region, constantly threatening Coimbra, driving out the population and even succeeding in besieging the city in 1117 when, despite heroic resistance, there were many losses in the surrounding area.

Faced with the insecurity caused by the Muslim attacks, it became imperative to safeguard stability north of the Mondego. The immediate consequence of this was the adoption of a defensive strategy that involved occupying the region between the Mondego and the Tejo. The southern border of the *Condado* of Portucale was therefore extended, increasing the territory whilst also ensuring the stability and safety of Coimbra, which Afonso Henriques took as the seat of his government, where he established his court and took up residence³.

In fact, prior to 1135, the date of the conquest and the founding of the castle of Leiria, apart from sporadic and unsuccessful incursions into Muslim territory, no significant attempt was made by Afonso Henriques to increase the southern territories, as he was occupied with campaigns in the north, in Galicia. Here he aimed to extend his domain and consolidate its autonomy, in an attempt to achieve the longed-for independence of the *Condado*. Further inland, as previously stated, the Central Range constituted a natural barrier that was practically impenetrable and required little in the way of artificial defence.

However, the constant Muslim threats to Coimbra forced Afonso Henriques to focus his attention on the southern border, since it was beginning to create more serious problems. Defending the Mondego lands was vital to the security of the *Condado*.

Meanwhile, south of the Mondego, the Reconquest was progressing in a different manner. The Muslim presence was stronger and more permanent in the south and its influence lasted until the end of his reign. In the lands south of the Mondego, devastated by 150 years of fighting, the rural areas were less densely populated than those north of the Vouga. The central and southern territories had not experienced the long periods of peace that had occurred north of the Mondego between the main military campaigns and had favoured a stable rural life⁴. In addition to the advance and retreat of the Christian armies, the populations in the south of the Mondego had also suffered as a result of the armed conflicts between the Muslim lords which, during the two periods of Taifa rule, were sparked by the slightest provocation. The Almoravid and Almohad invasions, heralding fanaticism, intolerance and a lack of respect for local faiths and customs, caused great hardship to the Christians. Devastated by war and "squeezed" between two aggressive armies, the local inhabitants abandoned their homes, creating vast areas of "no man's land" which, without owners or governors, became the arena for fierce battles. After they were reconquered, these lands were given to the Church or the nobles or, in order to ensure they were populated, they were formed into municipalities which, if this was by royal decree, ensured that they were better protected from abuse by landowners.

¹ Orlando Ribeiro, "A formação de Portugal", in *Dicionário de História de Portugal*, vol. V, direcção de Joel Serrão, Livraria Figueirinhas, Porto, 1992.

² *Idem*.

³ José Mattoso (dir.), *História de Portugal*, vol. II, Círculo de Leitores, Lisboa, 1993.

⁴ Orlando Ribeiro, *Op. cit.*



The main centres of Muslim government were established in central Estremadura, in Santarém, Óbidos, Torres Vedras, Alenquer, Lisbon and Sintra and it now became imperative to conquer these cities in order to subdue the threat they represented to the Christian lands that had been conquered.

South of the Mondego, the defence of the *Condado* was maintained through isolated castles such as Penacova, Soure, Arouca, Miranda do Corvo, Penela and Ladeia, with the area between Leiria and Ceres forming a flexible border from which attempts were made to extend the territory⁵.

Afonso Henriques' first offensive against the Muslims was the conquest of Leiria and the founding of a castle there in 1135. Its function was to serve as an outpost to support the strategically positioned castle of Soure which the Infante had given to the Knights Templar some years earlier. Until the conquest of Leiria, this castle had been the most important defence for the city of Coimbra against Saracen incursions from the south, particularly Santarém, which headed towards Coimbra through the Ladeia region between Penela and Soure to the east of the Serra da Lousã⁶.

Afonso Henriques ordered the area to be occupied, thus protecting the communities in the region. As part of this strategy, which was both defensive and offensive, he ordered the castle of Germanelo to be built in 1142, near Rabaçal, together with the castles of Alvorze and Ansião, probably at the same time. These strategically linked operations ensured the defence of Coimbra and enabled the local inhabitants to cultivate the lands within its boundaries and work in greater safety, thus guaranteeing that the city was supplied with goods. At the same time the region's dependence on the north, in particular the Entre Douro e Minho region, was reduced in terms of agricultural produce and surplus population.

However, as mentioned earlier, the campaigns led by Afonso Henriques and his knights were not only defensive. The aim of building the castle of Leiria, according to contemporary sources, namely the *Crónica de Afonso Imperador*, was also to establish a front line from which the south could be attacked via the Muslim cities of Santarém, Lisbon and Sintra. A succession of Christian incursions into enemy territory led to a Muslim reaction in 1140 when the castle of Leiria was apparently razed to the ground⁷.

⁵ José Mattoso, *Ob. cit.*

⁶ *Idem.*

⁷ *Idem.*



At the time of the arrival of Afonso Henriques' army, the Leiria region was, according to contemporary sources (the 12th century Santa Cruz annals), a *locus vastæ solitudinis* (uninhabited and ungoverned land) or, in other words, a deserted wilderness consisting of thick woodland and fertile soils, the result of centuries of abandonment. This "no man's land" was a favoured site for the endless conflicts of the time between the two rival armies⁸.

The conquest and founding of Leiria represented an incursion into a neutral area, and was represented in Christian sources as essential to the defence of the Coimbra region. It was legitimate for Christian lords to occupy deserted and ungoverned land, when their interests matched those of the powerful and influential Canons Regular of St. Augustine at Santa Cruz in Coimbra and the joint project was also designed to provide a solution to the growing population. Thus the occupation of land in Leiria, which subsequently changed from being a borderland to a territory, served these combined interests perfectly. A further pretext was the conquest of "pagan land", following the taking of Muslim cities such as Santarém and Lisbon in 1147⁹.

The mission of the castle of Soure, an outpost for the city of Coimbra, was to defend the Mondego lands to the west. However, it was unable, at the time, to undertake any offensive missions, due to the fact that the troops stationed there were clearly insufficient to wear down the Muslim forces and the fact that Santarém, seen as the base for raids on Coimbra, was too far away for effective attack by the small numbers of Christian cavalry. It was necessary to find another outpost that was more central and closer to Santarém in order to launch an effective attack on this city and Leiria, for the reasons previously described, served this strategic purpose perfectly.

The Coimbra area, despite the outlying fortress of Soure, located at the apex of a triangle formed in conjunction with the castles of Miranda do Corvo and Montemor, remained the direct target of the Saracen onslaughts and had proved powerless, in military terms, to drive off the enemy forces which were weakening the *Condado*.

The castle of Leiria served Afonso Henriques' strategy perfectly since it acted as a shield against these incursions. It also served as a powerful outpost and a vigilant sentinel in the operations to take, or rather, conquer a base in the Tejo area. The dual aim behind the building of Leiria castle seems clear: on the one hand, it was to act as a defence, and on the other hand it was to be a centre for the attack on the Muslims. The process of occupying the surrounding conquered territory consisted of building fortresses, castles and smaller defensive complexes to ensure that it was effectively secured.

⁸ Saül António Gomes, "Sobre a fundação undecentista de Leiria", in Actas do Colóquio sobre a História de Leiria e da sua região, Câmara Municipal de Leiria, Leiria, 1991.

⁹ *Idem*.

If we observe the profile of the Leiria, Ourém, Porto de Mós and Pombal defences, fortresses that formed part of the north/south Coimbra line of defence, it may be seen that they form a hierarchy in which Leiria emerges as the most important centre in military and population terms. Leiria was closer to the river, which was essential in supplying water for the fortress, and also played an important defensive role, making it difficult for attacks to be mounted from the north due to its high walls. The other complexes could not provide this level of security, as they were located 1,500 to 500 km away from the fortresses¹⁰.

The castle of Leiria contrasted with the land around the River Lis, which consisted mainly of plains. It also dominated the 7 hills in the surrounding landscape, all of which were lower than the hilltop on which the fortress was built. It therefore possessed a strategic advantage which the Christian forces could not and would not ignore and the 12th century military construction combined the interests of strategic defence with the local orographic resources and raw materials used in creating and maintaining the fortress.

Leiria, Ourém, Pombal and Porto de Mós were centres for active defence rather than attack (although Leiria was engaged in both). The fortresses of Leiria, Ourém and Porto de Mós formed a tripartite unit, representing a very significant investment by the crown and also requiring strict government. In addition, the castles represented the physical base of the authority of the crown or its representatives, whilst also serving as protection in the event of outside threats. The castles of Porto de Mós and Ourém to the south-east and Leiria to the east would initially have been simple watch towers or outposts, built to provide better protection for the settlements and agricultural activities in the Leiria area. Some of them later became the preferred residences of the nobles, following the evolution of a small power base from which the military society gradually turned itself into a governing and administrative body¹¹.

After conquering the land and building the castle, Afonso Henriques appointed Paio Guterres, a famous Portuguese lord as its Governor, an indication of the military importance attributed to the fortress. It became the base from which numerous incursions into enemy territory were launched, gradually wearing down resistance in Santarém.



¹⁰ Saúl António Gomes, *Ob. cit.*

¹¹ *Idem.*



In 1137, two years after it had been conquered, Leiria was attacked. This event, coming after a heavy Christian defeat near Tomar, caused serious damage in the region. However, the castle, defended by Governor Paio Guterres and his men, resisted the attack. Unfortunately this was not the case in a second onslaught in 1140: the walled area was seriously damaged and the valiant Governor was captured and executed, together with around 250 knights who were defending the castle. In 1144, the castle was targeted in a new enemy attack which left a trail of destruction in its wake. The castle was taken, and aid was promptly delivered by Afonso Henriques, since the enemy had by then reached Soure and was threatening Coimbra. It was now becoming increasingly urgent to conquer Santarém in order to suppress further attacks.

Santarém was conquered in 1147, followed by Lisbon and Sintra. After this, Leiria began to lose its strategic importance and although during the course of the century the area between the Mondego and the Tejo suffered further Muslim attacks, Leiria managed to achieve the necessary stability to enable it to develop.

Taking advantage of the situation, the conquests rapidly proceeded beyond the Tejo: Alcácer do Sal fell at the fourth attempt (1159) and in the following year two important cities in the Alentejo, Évora and Beja, were taken. The Almohads, Muslims who had arrived to help their brothers in the Iberian Peninsula, heralded a revival of Muslim power in the Peninsula and the Christian Reconquest subsequently suffered a reversal in its fortunes: all the recently conquered land to the south of the Tejo (with the exception of Évora, which remained isolated) was lost. During the Muslim counter-attack, Santarém was besieged, Torres Novas was taken and the enemy threat reached the castle of the Knights Templar in Tomar, whilst the Saracens gained ground in Almada, overlooking Lisbon (1190).

At the start of the 13th century, following the decline of the Almohad Empire, the main territories in the Alentejo fell in succession to the Portuguese and, in 1238, the conquest of the eastern Algarve was launched from the banks of the Guadiana. In 1249, the Reconquest was complete, following the taking of the last Muslim fortress in the Algarve by the king, D. Afonso III.

The Reconquest, which had suffered an impasse for several centuries, developed rapidly between the time of the first military campaigns of Afonso Henriques and the occupation of the last of the Algarve settlements in the reign of D. Afonso III. During this time there was little cooperation between Portugal and the other Christian kingdoms in the Iberian Peninsula. In fact the lands beyond the Guadiana and in the Algarve were almost always the subject of disagreements between states which were only resolved by armed conflict.

The main phases in the Christian Reconquest may therefore be summarised as follows: one and a half centuries for the consolidation of the Douro area, two centuries to expand from the Douro to the Mondego, eighty years to advance from the Mondego to the Tejo and one century to advance from the Tejo to the Alentejo and Algarve. Within 114 years of independence and during the first five reigns, almost two thirds of the total land had been incorporated into national territory¹².



¹² Orlando Ribeiro, *Ob. cit.*



LEIRIA AND THE FOUNDING OF THE PORTUGUESE NATION

Settlement

Leiria was created during the Christian Reconquest of the 12th century, after which it was consolidated over the following centuries, although human presence in the region dates back to prehistoric times when man inhabited the River Lis hydrographic basin. There are also Roman remains from the classical period, clear in descriptions of *Collippo*. The Roman presence seems to have been structured around an arrangement of *villæ*, based on agricultural activities, which would not have survived the Barbarian invasions in the 5th century. It therefore seems clear that there was no urban centre with sufficient power to consolidate and ensure the continuity of the settlement and rural land use model that could have survived the new invasions and this idea is reinforced by the absence of any Muslim or Christian sources to confirm its existence. Hardly any traces remain of the Muslim presence in Leiria, which may lead us to suppose that during their time in the Peninsula they built no settlement there, an indication of their inability in human and demographic terms, to establish themselves throughout the entire Peninsular territory. It is therefore not surprising that during the 12th century the region was described as a “no man’s land”¹³.

A structured population only developed in Leiria after it was conquered, following the building of the castle, as previously described. The *Chronica Gothorum*, a historiographic text from Santa Cruz in Coimbra written around 1185, states that both the building of the castle and the settlement in Leiria were the King’s personal decisions. The new settlement was given the name *Leirena*, a name which frequently appears in medieval documents, although its origins are still uncertain.

As the region became safer, areas within it developed rapidly, first within the walls and later as populations became established in non-walled areas, seeking out the common lands. Leiria was granted its first Charter in 1142 by Afonso Henriques, in recognition of the development of the settlement and its increased population. Afonso Henriques granted spiritual and ecclesiastical jurisdiction of the Santa Maria da Pena church (the first church to be built in Leiria) to the Santa Cruz Monastery in Coimbra, as well as that of all others that were built within its boundaries.

With stability ensured after the conquest of Santarém, the population, now ruled by the king D. Sancho I, abandoned the area between the walls and expanded westwards in the direction of the river, showing a preference for settling next to churches, a sign of the strong religious spirit of the times. The urban agglomeration grew, concentrating on areas next to religious buildings, to form five important



¹³ Saúl António Gomes, “Sobre a fundação undecentista de Leiria”, in *Actas do Colóquio sobre a História de Leiria e da sua região*, Câmara Municipal de Leiria, Leiria, 1991

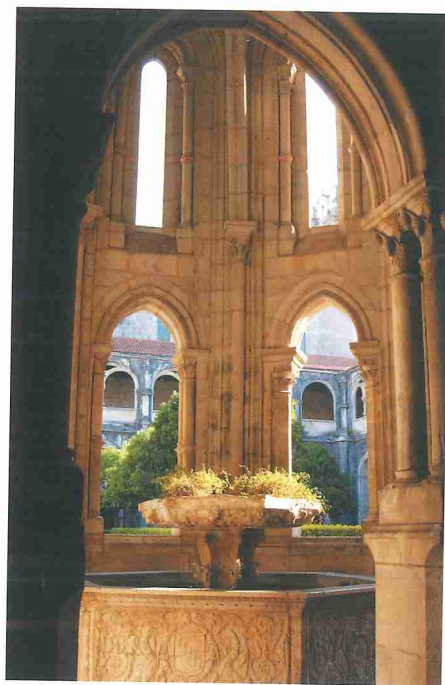
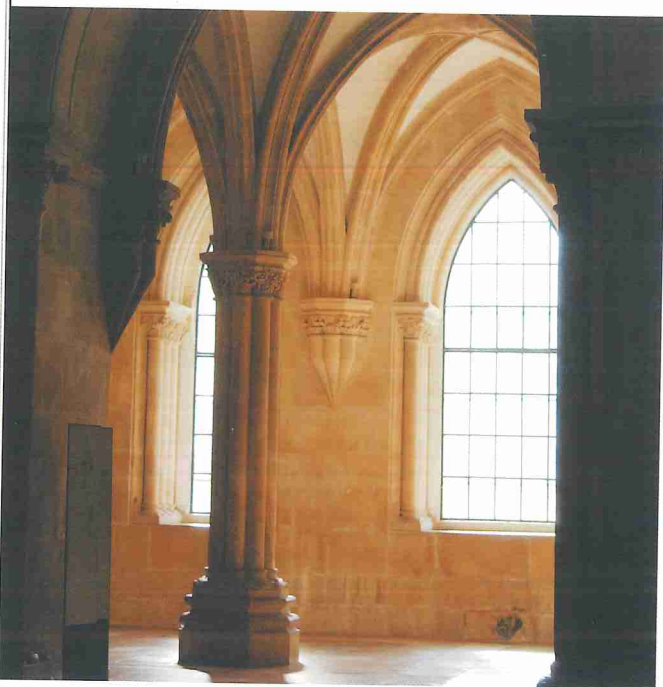
population centres: those next to the churches and parishes of Santa Maria da Pena and São Pedro in the area between the walls and those of São Martinho, Santo Estevão and Santiago outside the walled area¹⁴. In 1195, Sancho I granted Leiria a new Charter, acknowledging the rapid demographic growth of the town which, until the 18th century, was confined to the left-hand bank of the River Lis, affected by the flooding of the river bed. The urban fabric became denser to the south of the castle near the so-called "Lis elbow". Commerce would develop in this area, particularly near the São Martinho church, as is evident from the prestigious position it occupied in the urban map in an age in which trading was the main reason for the existence of urban agglomerations.

The medieval town grew around the hillside on which the castle stood and a maze of streets opened up to the south, mainly influenced by the local people's preference for sunlight.

As a result of the town's growth, at the beginning of the 16th century D. João III granted Leiria the status of a city (13 June 1545). At almost the same time, Leiria also became a bishopric, which led to some changes in the urban fabric of the new city, namely the opening of new roads leading to the newly-built Cathedral, which was completed in around 1574. The new city was organised predominantly around the Praça de São Martinho which, following an agreement between the Council and the Bishop of Leiria, had been built in the area formerly occupied by the São Martinho Church. In addition to commercial activities, the Praça also operated as the seat of the local government, where the pillory, the Council Chambers and the jail were located¹⁵.

It is also worth noting that Leiria had, according to some authors, also been a pioneer in introducing the art of printing to Portugal. This theory is supported by the fact that paper mills were already in existence in the town, introduced in 1411 after a warrant had been granted to a local resident by the king D. João I. However, whether Leiria had in fact been a pioneer in the introduction of this art, together with the paper mills, or not, it is generally accepted that it was one of the first, if not the first, city in the kingdom to introduce this revolutionary invention¹⁶.

Populating the surrounding region of Leiria also became a reality after the conquest of Santarém. As the Reconquest advanced towards the south, the kings granted Charters establishing new municipalities with the aim of encouraging settlements in areas which had thus far, been under Muslim rule. Settlements granted Charters in the early years of the Portuguese monarchy included Pombal, Castanheira de Pêra, Penela, Alvaiázere, Alcobaça, Redinha, Ourém and Figueiró dos Vinhos.



¹⁴ Ana Paula Margarido, *Leiria, História e morfologia urbana*, Câmara Municipal de Leiria, Leiria, 1988.

¹⁵ *Idem*.

¹⁶ João Cabral, *Anais do Município de Leiria*, vol. 1, 2^a ed., Câmara Municipal de Leiria, Leiria, 1993.



Having relinquished its military role, the region then came under the authority of the religious orders, which gradually increased their sphere of influence. They played a vitally important role in promoting economic activities and settlement in the region, particularly the Cistercian Order in Alcobaça, with its vast estates.

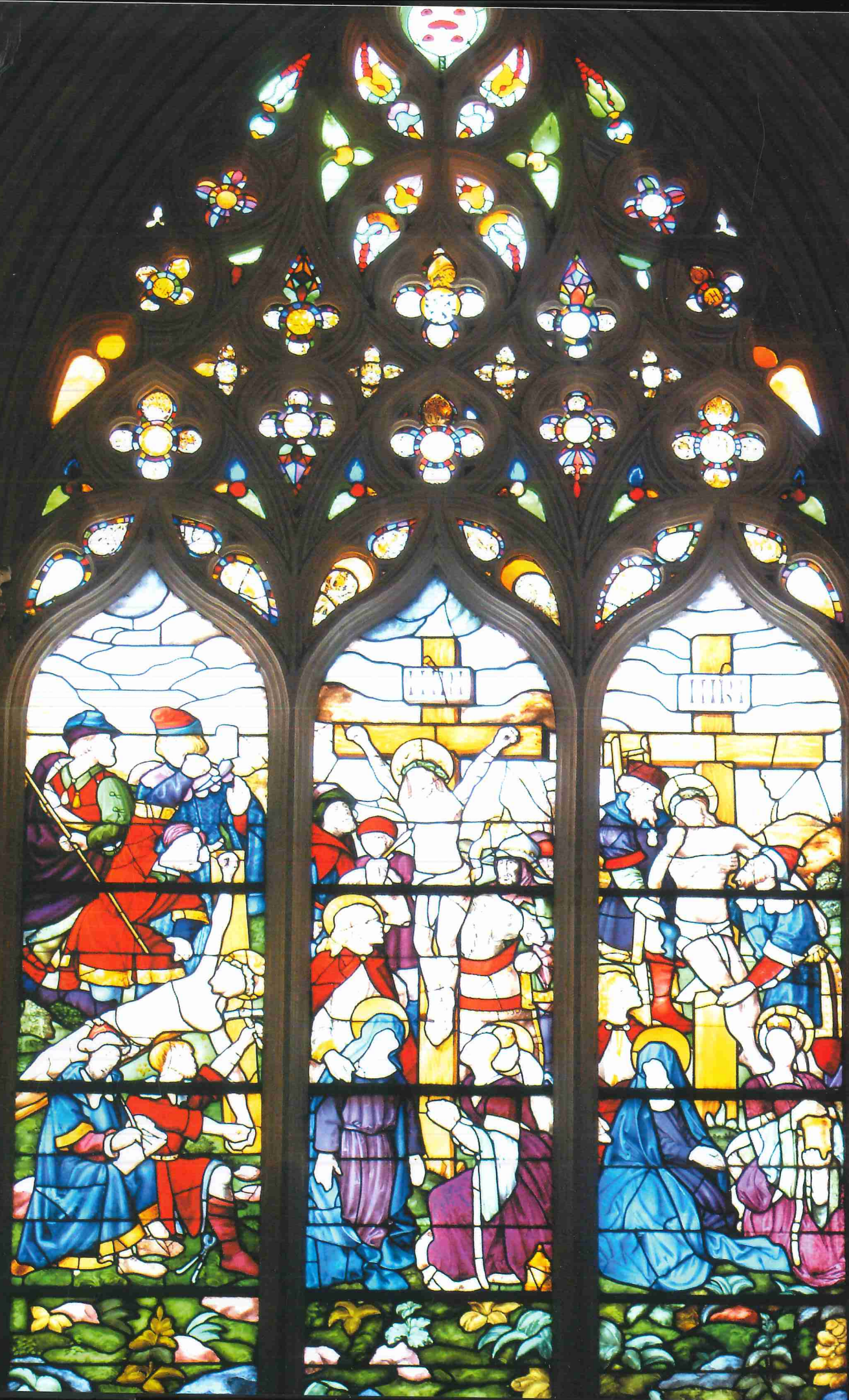
Alcobaça came about as the result of a vow made by Afonso Henriques at the time of the Santarém campaign – namely that if he won the battle he would build a great monastery that would encompass all the lands between the Serra de Albardos and the sea. Afonso Henriques won and kept his promise. Alcobaça was created in 1153, by a charter of endowment and enclosure in favour of the monks of St. Bernard, thus giving rise to a new political and economic reality in Portugal; the Alcobaça Monastery was to become the “capital of the Cistercian empire” in the country.

The new Monastery continued to receive large donations until the end of the 12th century, in addition to certain privileges, such as exemption from paying taxes on the sale and purchase of goods throughout the kingdom (1157) and, amongst other favours, the royal property extending between the Leiria and Óbidos castles. In his will, D. Sancho II donated the towns of Porto de Mós and Cornaga, together with the port of Salir. The Monastery assets extended throughout the kingdom, as a result of these continual donations. Its domains eventually covered the entire region between São Pedro de Moel and Lourinhã and the area between the Serra dos Candeeiros and the Rio Maior.

Extending to over 60,000 hectares, the Alcobaça estates included 14 towns (including Porto de Mós, Aljubarrota, Maiorga and Vestiaria) and four sea ports (Salir, Pederneira, Cós and Alfeizerão) over which the monks were able to exercise their authority, levy taxes and hold a monopoly over economic activities. The Alcobaça estate was the largest *latifundium* in the Leiria region and its lands were the most productive in the kingdom. In the famous Alcobaça granges cereals, fruit, cotton, flax and olives were cultivated and it became a kind of school for agriculture and other related industries. Farmers, shepherds, potters, smiths and many others worked there in addition to the monks. Salt was also produced on the estates (Salir), and, as it was served by the four abovementioned ports, the fishing industry was also established¹⁷.

The Monastery granted settlement charters or privileges to those intending to establish themselves in the estates. Alcobaça was possibly the largest workshop in the kingdom, because it made the most of its land and increased its population. Although they devoted much of their time to administering their properties, the monks did not neglect their religious duties or their role as men of letters. The Monastery was famous for its library, which contained several hundred manuscripts, and for its *Scriptorium*, where the hard-working copyists fulfilled their duties as guardians of the memories and wisdom of the past and as recorders of the present.

¹⁷ Joaquim Veríssimo Serrão, *História de Portugal*, vol. I, 4^a ed., Editorial Verbo, s.l., 1990.



LEIRIA IN THE CONTEXT OF THE FORMATION OF PORTUGAL

The role of the region in the formation of the Portuguese state: important events in its history

D. Sancho II was engaged in many conflicts, both with the prelates and with his own brother, the Count of Boulogne and the future Afonso III, the latter leading to a civil war over the succession. The various municipalities in the region adopted different positions during this conflict. The municipality of Leiria came out against Sancho II and in favour of the Count of Boulogne, whilst the municipality of Óbidos remained loyal to the legitimate king, Sancho II, inaugurating a “tradition” that lasted throughout its history, with the town only surrendering after the death of the man they considered their king, even though Afonso III had already, in practical terms, begun to rule the kingdom. Contrary to expectations, Afonso III did not retaliate or threaten the people of Óbidos but in fact rewarded them for their loyalty to their legitimate king, bestowing on the town the title of “*Sempre Leal*” which, added to the title “*Nobre*” which it already possessed, enabled the town of Óbidos to boast the title “*Nobre e Sempre Leal*” (“Noble and Ever Loyal”).

In 1254, Afonso III, “The Bolognese”, called for a meeting of the Cortes to be held in Leiria – later known as the 1254 Cortes of Leiria – which included representatives from the municipalities for the first time since, prior to this, only the nobility and the clergy were allowed to sit as the King’s advisors on matters of government.

The Cortes of Leiria were convened within a new spirit, with the kingdom already established and ruled by a king who supported municipalism and intended to surround himself with traders. Afonso III proposed to deal with the “state of the realm”, bringing the three social orders together for the first time in order to determine what was appropriate for the kingdom. Various measures were adopted including the granting of a Charter for Beja and the confirmation of a second Charter for Guarda, the settling of appeals from Sé do Porto, Santarém and the Alcobaça Monastery, certain diplomas for the municipalities of Lisbon and Guimarães and the Bouro Monastery and the establishment of a new monetary tax to avoid the consequences of any possible devaluation¹⁸.



¹⁸ Joaquim Veríssimo Serrão, *História de Portugal*, vol. I, 4ª ed., Editorial Verbo, s.l., 1990.



The importance of the Cortes of Leiria lies in the active participation of the municipalities, which became increasingly aware of their municipal autonomy in relation to the nobles and the clergy. The crown took advantage of the political strength of the people to increase its authority in a tacit alliance that would remain in force until the 15th century. The 1254 Cortes of Leiria represented the first attempt at a balance of power that included the voice of the municipalities. From then onwards, regional bodies were always represented at the Cortes and therefore in the government of the realm.

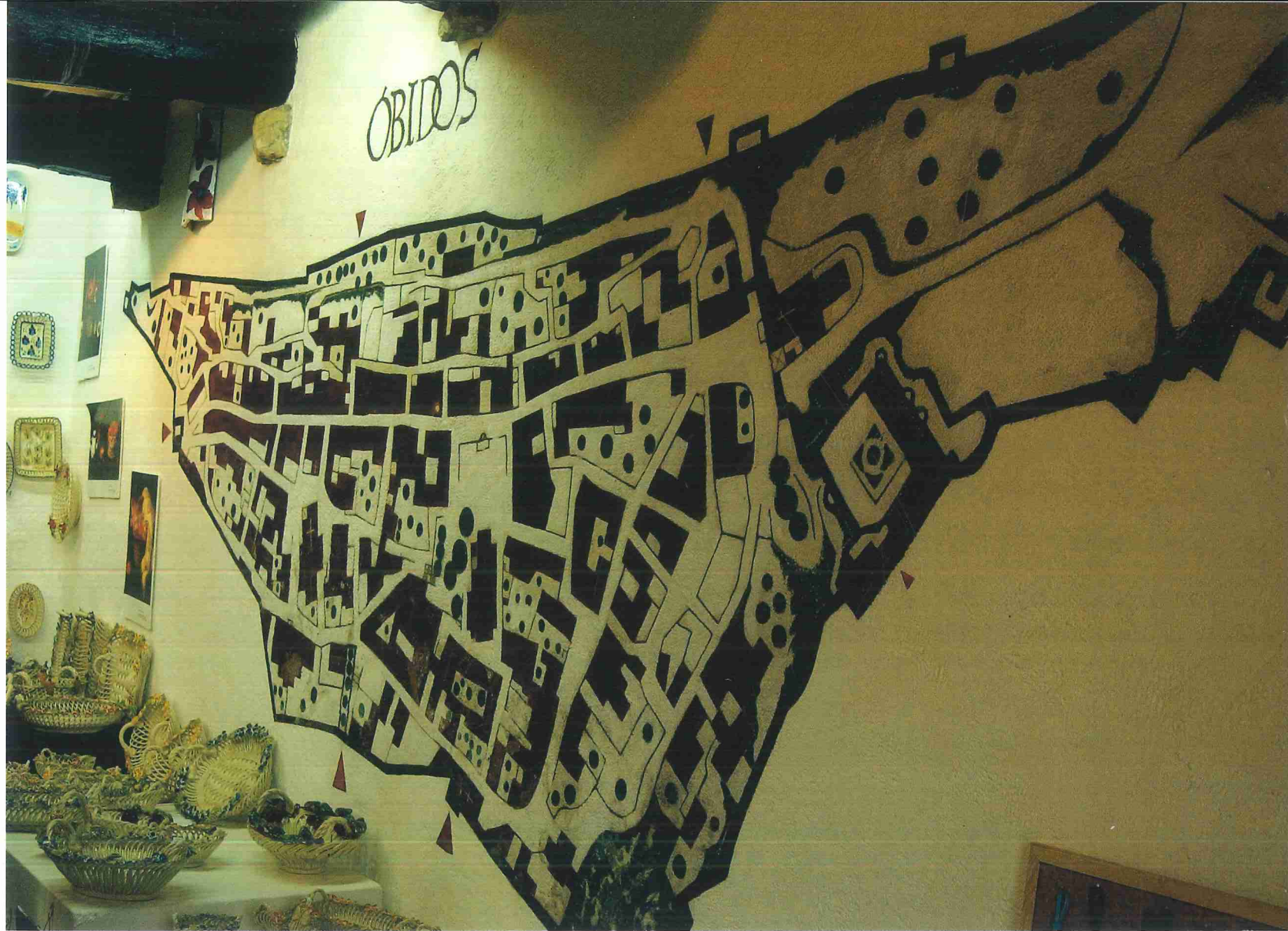
Around one century later, in 1372, the king D. Fernando convened the Cortes in Leiria to discuss devaluation due to the fact that he needed money to cover the costs of his war with Castile. In November 1376, the same king convened the Cortes in the same town in order to deal with the issue of the succession in favour of his daughter Lady Beatriz.

In 1438 during the reign of Duarte the Cortes also met initially in Leiria but ended in Santarém. The aim had been to study the possibility of negotiating for the freedom of Fernando, the Holy Prince and brother of the king, who was a prisoner in Fez. In 1580, at the start of the reign of Filipe I the Cortes were convened for Leiria but as the city was not considered safe enough, the Spanish king transferred the meeting to Santarém¹⁹.

It should also be noted that king D. Dinis and his wife frequently visited the region and stayed several times at the castles of Leiria and Óbidos, thus making their mark on these areas, particularly Leiria, where they ordered work on the castle (namely the Keep, which D. Dinis commissioned), the draining of marshland, the reorganisation of the Leiria pine groves. They also feature in numerous legends which flourished in the popular imagination in some parts of the region.

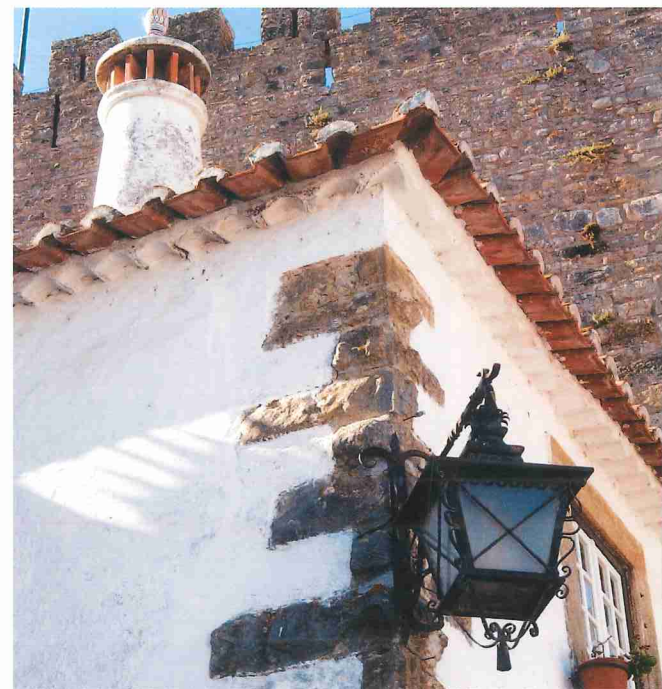


¹⁹ Joaquim Veríssimo Serrão, *Ob. cit.*



Leiria's loyalties were once again at stake in the war which broke out between king Dinis and his son and heir Afonso, the future King Afonso IV. The main cause of this conflict was the favoured relationship between the king and his illegitimate son, also named Afonso, whom the legitimate heir saw as a threat. In 1321, the heir therefore left Coimbra for Leiria, where his troops and local partisans caused various riots. D. Dinis took the castle and punished the Leiria nobles who had supported his son by condemning them to death and seizing their property. Queen Isabel played an impartial role in appeasing the two rivals and restoring peace between them shortly before the king died.

However, this was not the last time that the faithfulness and loyalty of Leiria was put to the test. During the 1383-85 crisis, Portugal was divided over the rival claimants to the throne, João I, the king of Castile who was married to D. Beatriz, the daughter of the deceased king, and João, Master of Avis and illegitimate son of king Pedro I. The kingdom was split and society was divided. Leiria supported the Castilian monarch when he arrived in Portugal, accompanied by a powerful army to defend his rights. In a first offensive he encircled Lisbon but the outbreak of an epidemic forced him back to Castile. In a new attack in 1385, João of Castile entered the country via Ribacoa, conquered Almeida and began to march towards Lisbon in the direction of Foz do Tejo. During the journey the Castilian army inflicted countless atrocities on local populations. At the town of Soure they were confronted by an army led by Constable Nuno Álvares Pereira,



seeking negotiations between the two sides to prevent the kingdom from being destroyed. Since these negotiations came to rest on recognition of the Castilian king as the ruler of Portugal, the talks failed.

On 10th August the Castilians reached Pombal and entered Leiria the following day. In order to defend the Tejo border and subsequently Lisbon, the Portuguese had positioned themselves in the Abrantes and Tomar region. It was essential to block the advance of the Castilians so that they could not conquer Lisbon and take control of Portugal. The Castilians clearly outnumbered the Portuguese, although the various sources and authors



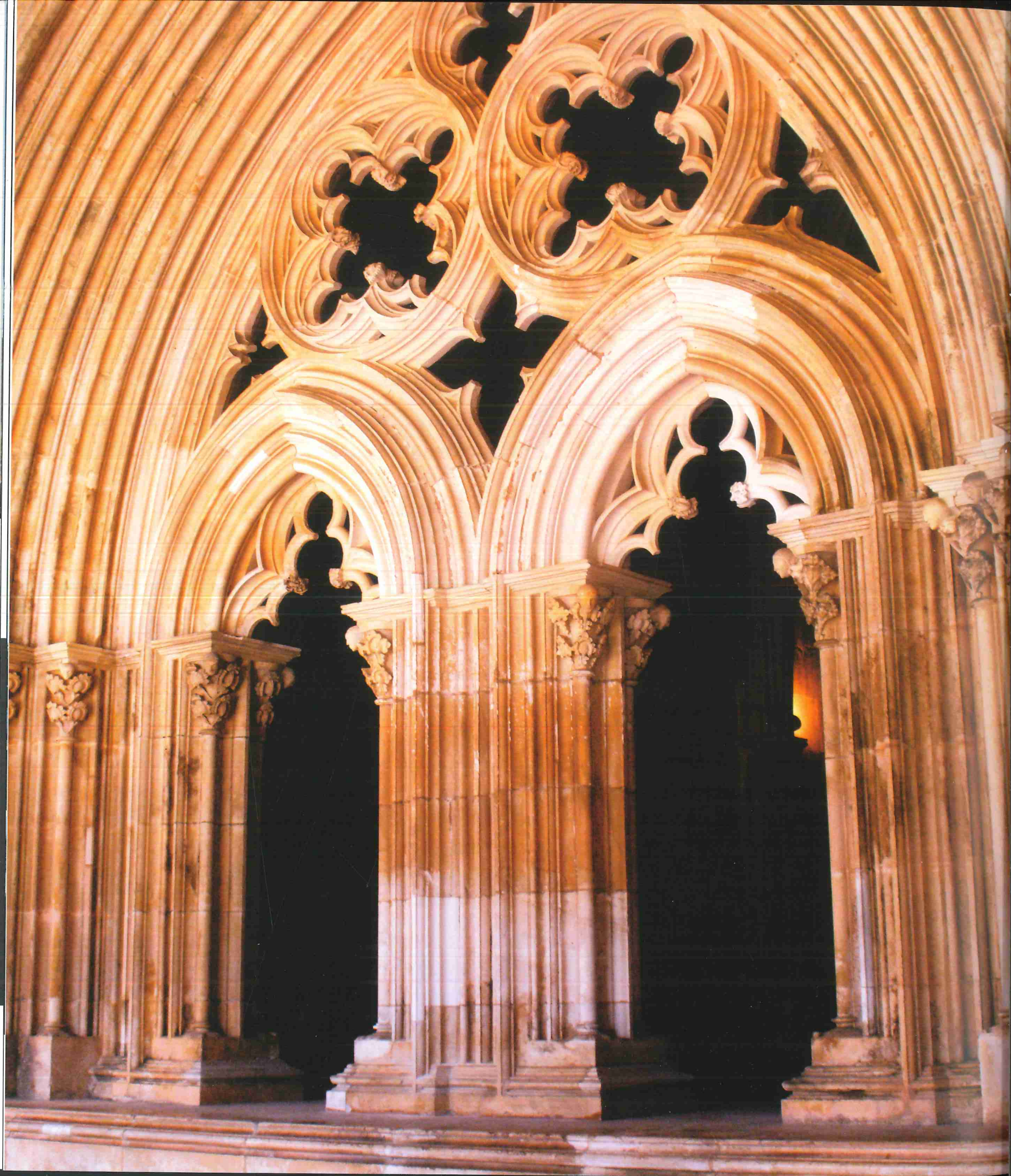


disagree on the figures for each side. From Tomar, the Portuguese headed towards Ourém and reached Porto de Mós the following day. On 14th, in order to block the enemy advance, the Portuguese troops stationed themselves on a hill between two streams flowing from the River Lena, using an innovative defensive strategy designed by the Constable – the square formation – which exploited the defensive role of the infantry. This new strategy achieved its aims and led to an overwhelming victory for the Portuguese²⁰. National independence was secured on that day and it is hardly surprising that the name Aljubarrota has endured down the centuries. As a decisive moment in Portuguese history, both in the collective imagination and in the mind of a people not always accustomed to winning.

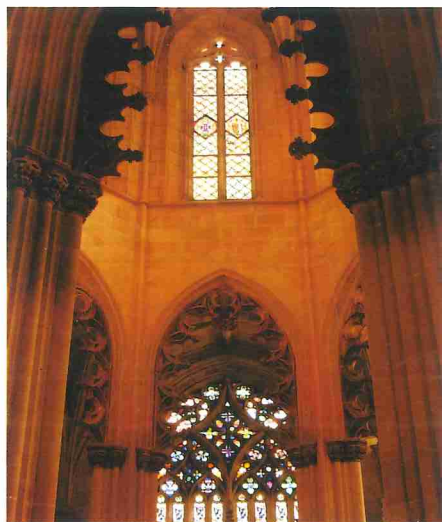
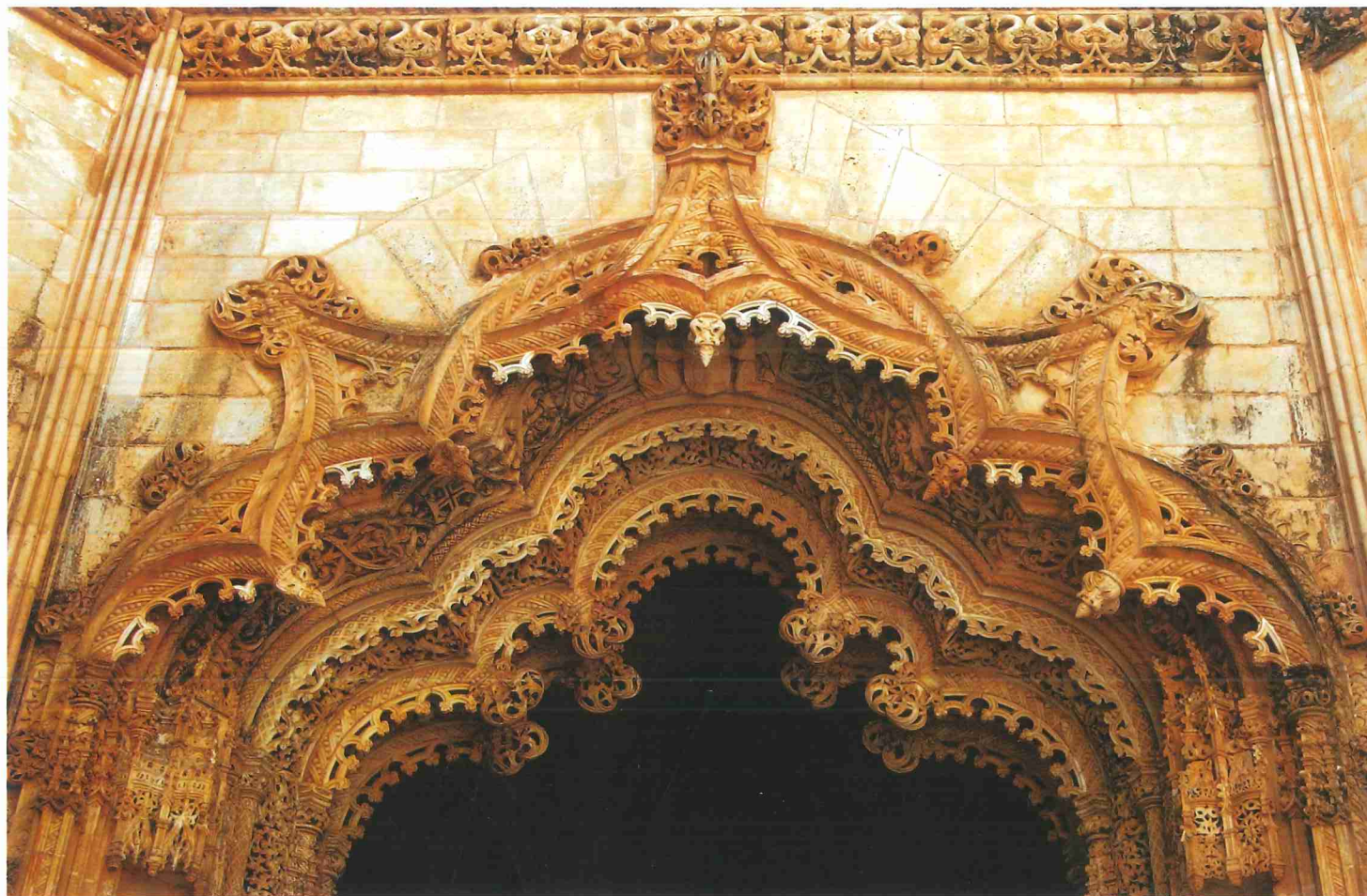
The victorious Battle of Aljubarrota will always be remembered for the Monastery that was built in commemoration of the event. It was the result of a vow made by João I at the time of the battle. The king fulfilled his promise and the result was the Santa Maria da Vitória Monastery, one of the most beautiful examples of the Gothic style in Portugal, later embellished with Manueline features. Work began in 1388, carried out by Portuguese and English master builders, and the influence of the latter can clearly be seen in the main facade of the church.

In addition to the architectural beauty of the building, the Santa Maria da Vitória Monastery is also important as a historical symbol, a celebration not only of the decisive battle in the struggle for the independence of the kingdom but also the first pantheon to the

²⁰ Joaquim Veríssimo Serrão, *Ob. cit.*.



Avis dynasty, a role that was similarly taken up by the Santa Maria de Belém Monastery during the reign of Manuel I. The sheer volume of the architecture represents the historic expression of a people who had just opened a new chapter in their history and of a king who wanted to display the grandeur and legitimacy of his kingdom and the dynasty he had founded.





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LEIRIA AND THE FOUNDING OF THE PORTUGUESE NATION

The process of industrialisation in the 18th century

If the first half of the 18th century was dominated by gold, the second half was undoubtedly linked to the figure of Sebastião José de Carvalho e Melo, the Marquis of Pombal, and his policy of nurturing trade and industry.

Opinions have always been divided on the subject of the Marquis of Pombal, but whether loved or hated his importance in Portuguese history is undeniable. A well-travelled man who understood the European situation, he attempted to lift the country out of the severe economic crisis into which it had fallen. The Lisbon earthquake of 1755 and the measures he introduced to reconstruct the city and cope with this difficult situation are proof of his pragmatism. Nevertheless, he also adopted some harsh measures in order to control society, particularly the nobility and the Jesuits, who were involved in what is considered by some to be a merely hypothetical attempt at regicide. He terrorised the former by accusing them and ordering the execution of some of the most important families in the country whom he considered were implicated in the conspiracy and, in 1759, he exiled the latter, whom he deemed responsible for the lack of progress in the country. In this way he managed to keep society under control.

However, with dwindling supplies of gold from Brazil and a crisis affecting the production and export of colonial goods, Portugal, whose economy was based essentially on national products such as wine, salt, fruit and olive oil and colonial products such as tobacco, sugar, wood, cocoa and slaves, entered into a critical period. The balance of trade was unfavourable, since it involved the importation of wheat and other cereals, manufactured goods and foodstuffs, amongst other items, which were exchanged for national produce, with the deficit being paid in gold. Obviously when the supplies of gold began to dry up, the fragile trading balance was lost, whilst at the same time, exports were also falling due to competition from other countries and other factors. Faced with this situation, the Marquis had only two alternatives: either dependency, or the increase of national production in order to supply the country's needs. From 1762 onwards, Pombal's policies were closely associated with these economic problems²¹.

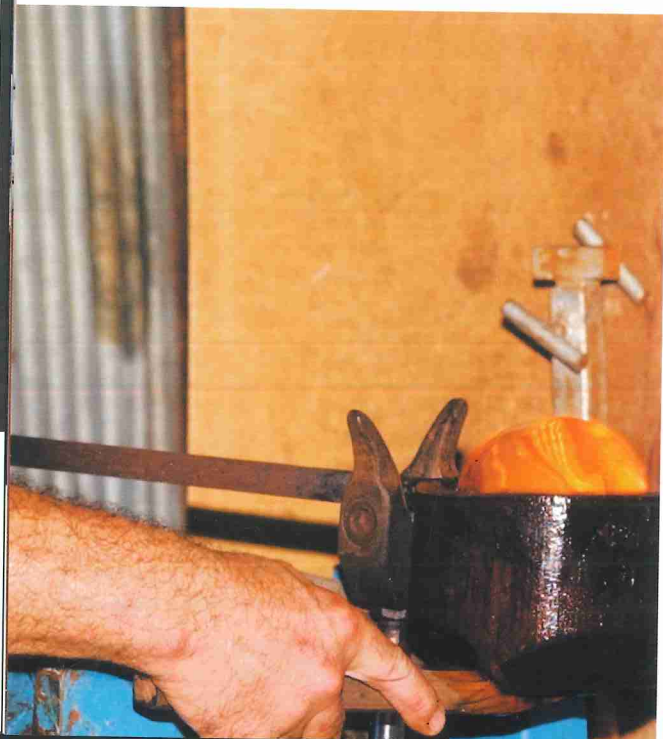
The reign of José was defined by mercantilism, a policy designed to boost manufacturing industries under the control or protection of the state. It aimed to establish conditions under which trade and industry could be nurtured, with a view to reducing dependence on foreign markets that were bleeding the Treasury dry.

In order to boost the wealth of the country, technical progress was needed, based both on possession of raw materials and on a specialist Portuguese labour force. This would free the Portuguese economy from its dependence on England and France by strengthening the national currency and opening up the labour market to the non-working population.

The expansion of industry depended on an efficient trading system allowing for the flow of goods and preventing any obstacles caused by excess production or the poor flow of products. Pombal's economic thinking focused more attention and support on trade and industry than on agriculture, where it did not meet expectations. The greatest weakness of the Pombaline economic system lay in this



²¹ Jorge Borges de Macedo, *A Situação Económica no Tempo de Pombal*, 2^a ed., Ed. Moraes, Lisboa, 1982.



area, whereas in the rest of Europe physiocratic trends, taking agriculture as the main source of wealth and sustenance, were being implemented and developed. In Portugal, although there were some supporters of physiocracy, they found no ally in the powerful Prime Minister, who decided unequivocally in favour of mercantilism and, whilst not totally ignoring agricultural issues, considered them to be of secondary importance.

His concept of the state was constructed within a European and overseas framework involving the economic integration of the overseas dominions with the Metropolis. The country's agriculture, with the exception of olive oil and wine, was of little importance in this cycle in which gold, diamonds and raw materials were directed towards the production and improved distribution of consumer goods.

The Pombaline government recognised the advantages of investing in new factories in order to develop the textile industry within the kingdom, an area in which Portugal had serious needs, since it resorted regularly to imports, particularly from England. The Marquis of Pombal took advantage of the already existing industries, which were widely dispersed and small in scale, and encouraged the founding and improvement of factories, granting privileges, subsidies and tax exemptions on both the import of raw materials and the export of fabrics²².

Other factories, in addition to the one at Covilhã, were founded since it was a profitable industry and, although the main centres of production were in the Beiras region, it began to spread throughout the country. The Central region was also subject to this Pombaline policy of encouraging industry. The textile industry became established in Tomar and Alcobaça, although it never matched the manufacturing achievements of the interior. The Tomar factory, in addition to silk, also produced linen and the Alcobaça factory produced cotton and linen.

However, due to its historical significance and national importance, the establishment of the glass industry also deserves special mention, with the transfer of the Glass Factory from Coima to Marinha Grande in around 1748. In order to set up and develop the glass industry, the local area required certain conditions which Marinha Grande was able to fully satisfy: it had an abundant supply of wood which came from the nearby *Pinhal d'El-Rei* pine woods, raw materials were available locally and it was located close to communications networks which made it easy to transport the glass and the raw materials.

The area chosen was a small civil parish within the boundaries of Leiria, the future Marinha Grande, which according to the Parish Memoirs of 1758, had less than 1,000 inhabitants. Forty years later, in 1798, after the industry had been established and developed and national and foreign workers and their families had settled there, it had 402 households and had almost doubled its population²³.

Under a licence issued on 7th July 1769, the Marquis of Pombal placed William Stephens, an English trader who had been based in Lisbon since 1750, in charge of the factory. Stephens had already applied for permission to set up a lime factory in 1756, having undoubtedly realised that, after the 1755 earthquake and the subsequent rebuilding of Lisbon, the city would be in need of large amounts of lime. However, despite the fact that it was essential to the building work in hand, he was not a successful manager and became bankrupt in 1761.

Despite this setback, Stephens found a friend and ally in Sebastião José de Carvalho e Melo who, in 1769, responded favourably to his solicitations by entrusting him with the Royal Glass Factory in Marinha Grande. This industry was essential as there was a severe shortage of glass and panes for windows for the buildings that were being constructed in Lisbon.

The Royal Factory was the most successful of the industries launched by the Marquis of Pombal. During the time it was managed by the Stephens, firstly by William Stephens

²² Jorge Borges de Macedo, *Ob. cit.*

²³ Joaquim Veríssimo Serrão, *História de Portugal*, vol. VI, 2^a ed., Editorial Verbo, s.l., 1990.



then, after his death by his brother John James Stephens, the factory prospered and provided Portugal with crystal glass. It also served as a major training school for Portuguese glass workers, inaugurating a tradition that survives to this day. Whenever glass or crystal is mentioned, *Marinha Grande* and its glass industry immediately springs to mind. In 1773, the factory employed over 300 people. Stephens sought to ensure that his employees had good working conditions and the factory and surrounding area were well-supplied with butcher's shops, taverns and inns, and other facilities.

By the end of the 18th century under the management of the Stephens, the factory was entering a golden age. The production of glass and glass panes had increased and was exported all over the kingdom. However, its success was guaranteed by the protection offered by the government, and this continued during the reign of the next monarch *Maria I*, in recognition of its value and importance to the national economy.

Another industry which is of particular importance to this region, the hat manufacturing industry based in the town of *Pombal*, was also the result of *Pombaline* policies. Fashion demanded that hats should be worn and large sums of money were spent on importing them. Mercantilism demanded that imports should be avoided by encouraging national industries. Therefore the Royal Hat Factory, located in the town of *Pombal*, aimed to provide a solution to this unnecessary expenditure.

The factory was annexed to the Silk Factory in the same town and enjoyed its many privileges, namely exemption from paying duty on the import and export of manufactured goods. This led to massive complaints by other hat manufacturers and the prerogative was eventually extended to all hat manufacturers in the kingdom²⁴.

To prevent the industry from falling into ruin, since imports of the better quality foreign hats were still increasing whilst Portuguese hats were not being bought, the Marquis of *Pombal* launched a pragmatic solution in the form of the radical measure of banning all imports of hats as long as Portuguese hats could supply the market. It is also worth noting the existence in 1770 of some soap factories in *Alcobaça* and *Pombal*, which belonged to the Crown. The establishment of a glue factory, managed by businessman *António Henriques de Gouveia*, is further evidence of *Pombaline* economic policies in *Leiria*.

When *Queen Maria I* came to the throne in 1777, the Marquis of *Pombal* was removed from office and sent into exile, spending the rest of his life in *Pombal* at his *Quinta da Gramela* estate. Portugal however would certainly not have been the same without him. He left his mark forever imprinted on our collective memory, regardless of what has been written about him by his critics or admirers. In the region of *Leiria*, the cities of *Pombal* and *Marinha Grande* will always be associated with his name.

In 1788, during the reign of *Maria I*, according to a map of the factories in the kingdom produced by *Pina Manique*, several factories were operating in the area. The Royal Hat Factory in the town of *Pombal* was still functioning, as were the cotton and linen mills in *Tomar* and *Alcobaça* and the cotton mills in *Leiria* and *Alcobaça*, the latter also possessing a linen mill.

In the early years of *Maria I*'s reign there are also records of other manufacturing industries in the region, namely a glass-cutting factory and the Royal Glass Factory in *Marinha Grande*, still managed by the Stephens, and a silk factory in the town of *Pombal*.

Mining also existed in the area. There was an abundance of marble of varying quality: "excellent" in *Leiria*, black, containing pure arsenic which gave it a polished finish in *Porto de Mós* and inferior quality in *Monte Redondo*, in the municipality de *Leiria* and also in *Ansião*. Iron was also still being extracted from mines in *Porto de Mós*, *Tomar* and *Figueiró dos Vinhos*.

²⁴ Joaquim Veríssimo Serrão, *Ob. cit.*



CONTEMPORARY IDENTITY (19TH-20TH CENTURIES)

The structure of the economy

Natural resources

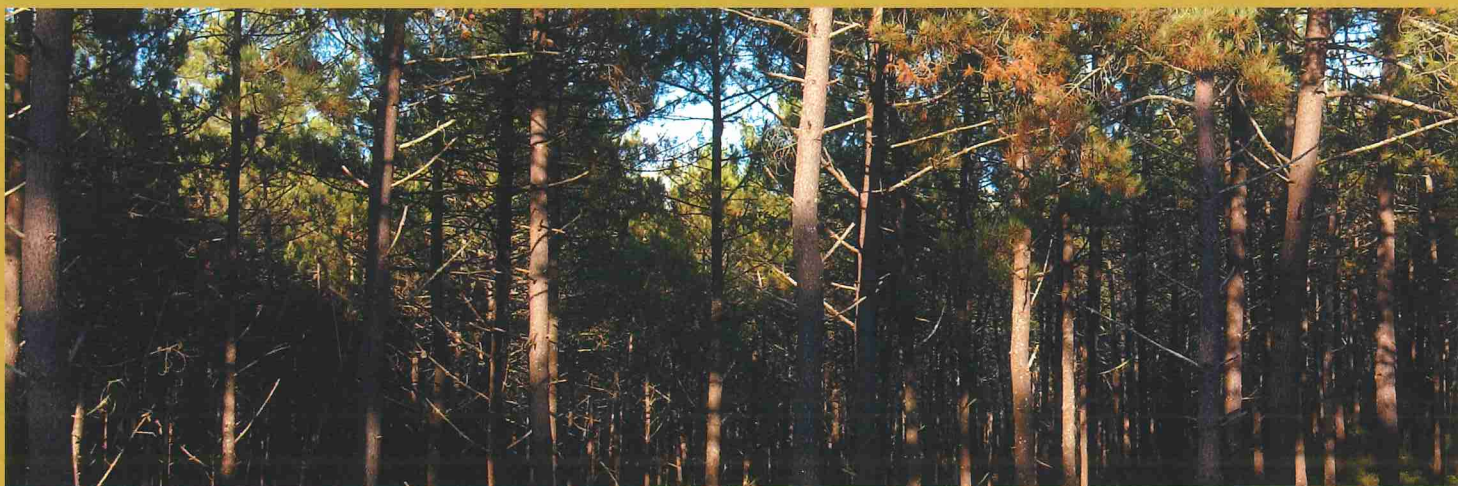
Within the national economic space, the region of Leiria is recognised as a centre that is full of potential, where production and marketing levels are remarkable. The evolution of the Portuguese economy in the period since the second world war saw its most positive effects here in the early 1960s. Trade developed, various industrial sectors gained strength and others adapted to the new needs of the market.

Water and wood have been a constant presence here for hundreds of years, in a setting and climate that are far from harsh. While the rivers are not particularly large, except for the River Liz in certain periods, timber occupies a very significant strip, with pine predominating.

In the words written in 1855 by António da Costa de Sousa Macedo, who was the Secretary General of Leiria District, here “the capital of pine forest is located, the monument of agriculture”¹. Besides timber being used for various purposes its resins also yield pitch and tar. Naval and merchant shipbuilding had an excellent supply base here.

There was a whole swathe of occupations based on the forest, including sawyers, carters, labourers, *carrasqueiros* (collectors of bark chippings), pitch-makers, resin tappers and charcoal burners. It provided a source of fuel that enabled many industries to establish themselves. The pine forest was thus a driving force for Leiria’s industrialisation. By the end of the 1940s, a tourist itinerary of the District of Leiria was showing that its potential spanned quite distinct periods. Mention was made of the importance of firewood from the pine forest as a replacement for pit coal, especially in war time².

For centuries, small rivers and streams used to feed the mills that turned corn into the local staple food. Leiria not only had the lay-owned mills along the banks of the Lis, but from early on it also welcomed those that belonged to the Monastery of Alcobaça³. These rivers also provided sites for small buildings that housed industries that relied on the water. Such as paper production.



¹ D. António Sousa Macedo, *Estatística do Distrito de Leiria*, 1855, p.33. This writer prepared “the first statistical work produced in Portugal founded on scientific bases”, according to the view expressed in *Portugal Pittoresco*.

² Cf. Pedro Muralha, *Roteiro Turístico do Distrito de Leiria*, n.d.

³ Cf. Pedro F. Gomes Barbosa, “O Mosteiro de Alcobaça e os Moinhos de Leiria, no século XII”, *Coloquio sobre a História de Leiria e da sua Região*, Câmara Municipal de Leiria, 1991, p. 402-409. This author expanded this information in a more important work (*Povoamento e estrutura agrícola na Estremadura Central*, col. “História Medieval”, no. 6, I.N.I.C., Lisboa, 1992).

As A. Teodoro de Matos recalls, the River Liz used to be navigable, but gradually became unsuitable for shipping in the nineteenth-hundreds. For him “the wood leaves the Leiria Pine Forest for the port of Vieira, whence it leaves for its destinations”⁴. The richness of the Leiria subsoil was not as unanimously accepted as the value of its forest was acknowledged. In the early 20th century, concluding a study on the geology of the region, Tito Larcher recorded and analysed some of the mines and quarries found there. He commented: “The region is poor in minerals and stones”⁵. Actually, the history of iron and coal mining goes back to the Roman occupation, to the time of *Collipo*. History and tradition present a considered discourse which often portrays reality very vividly. In 1884, a description of the town of Leiria contained some details that are worth remembering. It said: “Within its limits there are large iron mines, fossil coal mines, stone and fine marble quarries, limestone and excellent clay for the pottery industry”⁶. This opinion was based on the more or less sensationalist news of discoveries that were being made there. Years earlier, in 1855, the magazine *O Panorama* ran an article on iron and coal mines in Portugal⁷. It said: “Between Porto de Mós and Leiria some iron and coal mines have just been discovered which, according to the experts, are extremely important [...]”

The building of the railway will therefore cost a lot less, if we have the iron for the tracks and the coal to fuel the locomotives here in the kingdom. It is asserted that the coal and iron from these mines are of the finest quality.”

But the idea that there were significant deposits in the region was discredited at the end of the 19th and early 20th century. The following item appeared in the local press: “[...] the supposed coal mine in Pinhal de Leiria has not yielded anything, and neither have the others.”. Apart from this, the high number of rural workers was called into question, now left without jobs as most of the mines were abandoned. In practical terms, we can conclude that the silica sands, kaolin, clays and ochre were the real gifts that the economic area of Leiria contributed to some of the industries in the region, such as glass-making, pottery, cement, and fertilizer.

The many quarries, found throughout the district, enabled the mining of another natural treasure. In 1855, António de Sousa Macedo listed a total of 85 quarries in the district, of which 66 (77.6%) were in the Leiria region.

The clay limestone used to make hydraulic lime since the distant past, were especially abundant in S. Pedro de Moel and Pataias, as Gil Braz de Oliveira notes in his account of Portugal’s cement industry (1955:363, vol.I). The long tradition of lime production, and the subsequent production of white cement, shows us the importance of this natural resource from the Leiria region. They undoubtedly represented a significant activity that supported the building industry and “material improvements”. At the end of the 19th century, the last industrial survey (1891) revealed that Lisbon was using a considerable amount of the limestone quarried, searching for distant quarries[...]”⁸.

⁴ A. Teodoro de Matos, *Transportes e Comunicações. Portugal, Açores e Madeira (1750-1850)*, 1980.

⁵ *Leiria Ilustrada*, 19 August 1911. His articles on this topic were also published in this magazine on 9 and 30 November.

⁶ *Portugal Pittoresco*, 2a série, nº 13, 1884.

⁷ *O Panorama*, vol. II, 1855, p.152.

⁸ *Inquérito Industrial*, 1890, vol. I, p.223.





The movement of people and goods

Located on a traditional dividing line between north and south, the region of Leiria has been crossed by people and merchandise since time immemorial.

Focusing on the overland trade in the Leiria region in the mid-19th century, it was held that: “There are no travellers in Portugal, there are sufferers who are transported”⁹. The poor state of the road, which were often no more than tracks, transport was dear, slow and laborious. These were just one of the obstacles to the region’s progress. As Damião Peres observes, improving the roads was an old intention, proclaimed in 1821 and 1822¹⁰. But the protracted victory of liberalism meant that this only happened in the late 1830s.

In the mid-nineteenth century, as before, animals were mostly used for journeys overland. The traveller could use a horse or mule, if he had one, otherwise he could hire one. He would have to go to a trader in beasts of burden for this. Beasts of burden dealers could be found in most places. They were of limited scope in terms of the number of animals available, and the number of carriers - usually the same person was both owner and driver.

Until the end of the 19th century, horse- or ox-drawn transport was regulated under the district and under another, more restricted level: municipal. In 1878 the Leiria District General Council published forty-eight articles regulating the transit of hire vehicles for carrying people and goods. Carriages, stagecoaches or carts had to undergo a prior inspection before being registered, providing “safety, strength, decency”¹¹. The profession of coachman was dignified with a code of ethics for the guidance of the professionals, who were expected to drive well and safely, as well as the right way to treat passengers and the draught animals.

Not everything in the region was speedy. It is enough to consider the route taken by the mail coach, which also carried passengers, on its journey between Porto de Mós and Leiria. If the intention was to make it easier for people to get to the town, this was jeopardised when the time-table was changed, in June 1910. The coach would leave Porto de Mós at 6.30 pm and arrive at Leiria three and a half hours later, at 10 pm. The next day it would leave town at 8 in the morning, to complete its journey at 11.30 am. “So you couldn’t go to Leiria to do business without renting a coach for the purpose”¹². Leiria was still a long way away!

⁹ This was the opinion of D. António Sousa Macedo, *Estatística do Distrito...*, p. 110.

¹⁰ D. Peres, *História de Portugal*, vol. VII, p.642.

¹¹ *Regulamento para a Polícia e Transito de Vehiculos no Distrito de Leiria*, 1878, arto 3, p.4.

¹² *Correio de Porto de Mós*, n.º. 34, de Junho de 1910.

While road improvements and the establishment of the railway line were awaited, the region's economy was benefiting from the three seaports available to it: S. Martinho, Pederneira and Vieira. The proximity of the sea thus created alternatives to travelling by land.

It actually offered an additional resource to the existing roads. S. Martinho was called at by merchant vessels from Lisbon, Porto, Setúbal, Peniche, Aveiro, Figueira da Foz, Sesimbra and Algarve.

And this was how sugar, cod, leather, cloth and iron reached the region. These were the goods that came in the biggest quantities. Followed by rice, potash and soda. Trade, as well as local industry, were thus fed by products not available in the area. On the other hand, coal, glass, window panes and aguardente were surplus to local requirements. Farming also yielded surpluses of potatoes, cereals and fruit¹³.

A regional form found to get to S. Martinho, the unloading port, from the centre of the tree-felling, to Marinha Grande, was the conception of the American railroad.

Mostly to transport timber, but for other products from the pine forest, too, it was proposed in an official letter from the General Administrator of Forests dated 28 January 1853, "to construct a timber rail to the port of S. Martinho"¹⁴.

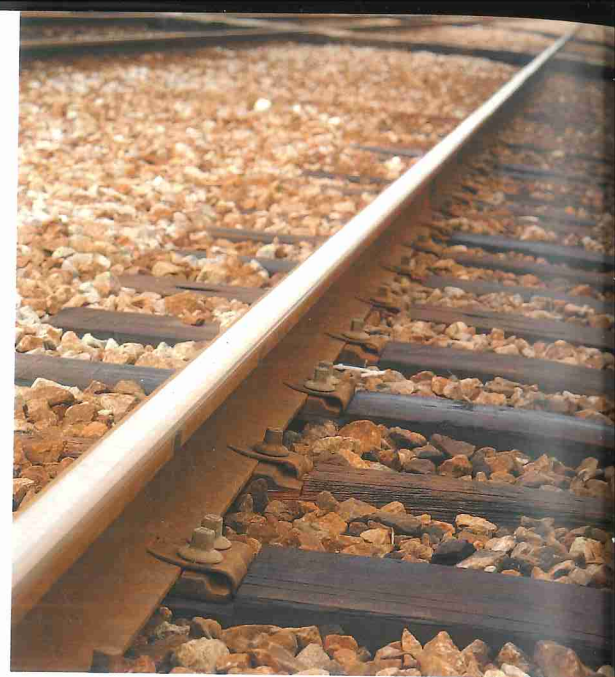
The following announcement was made in 1860: "the railroad from the Leiria pine forests to S. Martinho will be finished and will open shortly; it will make it easier to bring the products cleaned and pruned from this vast property to the major centres of consumption".

The journey, basically made through the pine woods, started in Pedreanes and ended in S. Martinho do Porto, covering 37 km¹⁵. Along the way was the Marinha Grande station, stopping next to the Royal Glass Factory to unload sand and lime and take on board glass, and the stations of Matingança, Valado and Mouchinha.

Towed up the hills by oxen, it used its own weight to go downhill. It ran on a bed "made from sand with pine or other foliage, to prevent the animals from tiring and stop them from stumbling on the sleepers"¹⁶. It usually consisted of nine goods wagons and one passenger carriage, which clearly shows it was meant to carry goods, rather than people. The two trains would meet at Valado station, every working day, one having started from Pedreanes at nine o'clock and the other leaving S. Martinho at eight o'clock. The first took six hours and the other one took eight "because the draught animals were used more in this direction". It could reach a speed of 40 km per hour on the downhill slopes. It travelled much more slowly on the rest of the trip. The passengers could therefore not only observe Nature, but also enjoy a spot of hunting¹⁷.

As it was not converted into a shortened railway, as was requested, it was removed from service in 1885, in favour of the West line. With the American railway there came to an end an era in which transport technology linked tradition to aspects of modernity, to be finally condemned to be replaced by faster and more convenient means of getting around.

The age of the train was starting in the region. The time for the locomotive had come! Support for it emerged in 1875. A shorter line was planned which would connect the town to the port of S. Martinho via the south of the district of Leiria. The arguments advanced were based on the circumstances: the region's produce (forest, agricultural and manufactured products) were greatly jeopardised by the problems encountered in transporting them.



In 1911 the importance of connecting Leiria to the North Line, at Chão de Maças was still under discussion¹⁸.

But the conditions for moving around the region, not to mention the cult for a particular urban leadership, meant that Leiria had not got closer to communities further afield. In 1906, a movement started in Pombal, represented by a committee and backed by local traders which made its displeasure at being abandoned felt in Leiria's corridors of power and through the newspapers. It was even suggested that the municipalities in the north of the district be incorporated into Coimbra, where people could get to more quickly¹⁹. The extreme of the communication era illustrated by the journey between Pedrógão Grande and the district capital: it took five days.

To the south, relations were facilitated by more accessible communication and so became quite a lot friendlier, as revealed in the exchanges of praise and displays of appreciation carried in local magazines in Leiria and Alcobça.

¹³ Cf. D. António Macedo, *op. cit.*, p. 110-113; p. 342-343.

¹⁴ *Boletim do Ministério das Obras Publicas, Comercio e Industria*, 1856, p. 246.

¹⁵ Cf. Pedro Inácio Lopes, *Projecto de um caminho de ferro de via reduzida entre a Ponte de Sant'Anna e o Porto de S. Martinho*, Imprensa Nacional, 1875, p.12.

¹⁶ *Boletim do Ministério das Obras Publicas, Comercio e Industria*, 1857, 1 semestre, p. 332.

¹⁷ The slower speed meant that people sometimes took rifles with them and did some hunting on the stretches where the train was pulled by oxen. Cf. Arala Pinto, *O Pinhal do Rei*, vol. I, p. 382.

¹⁸ *Linhas ferreas complementares da região da Extremadura. Petição apresentada ao Ex.mo Ministro do Fomento pela Comissão de Melhoramentos da cidade de Leiria* (Complementary railway lines in the Extremadura region. Petition presented to the Minister for Development by the Committee for the Improvement of Leiria town), 1911.

¹⁹ "Transport is expensive for people from Pombal, and it is only five and a half leagues, whereas they are in Coimbra in one hour" (*Leiria Ilustrada*, of 8 March 1906).

Economic sectors

In the dying years of the 19th century, the district of Leiria was presented as having a significant population with potential for “industrial and commercial development that it should enjoy in a few years”, in the words of the local branch of the Bank of Portugal²⁰, the first bank to set up in Leiria, in 1893.

At a time when local agriculture was recovering from the severe blow caused by the devastation of the vineyards, better economic times were hoped for, with industry playing a leading role. For this, the region of Leiria could offer abundant labour and the Linha do Oeste (Western railway line). It was hoped that the loan service offered by the Bank of Portugal would enable local resources to be utilised, expanding the industrial scene beyond “fabric from Castanheira and Alcobaça, pottery from Caldas... and glass from Marinha Grande”.

In the more dispassionate and, perhaps, more prejudiced view of the inspector who visited the Leiria branch in 1901, from the commercial standpoint the town is of “scant importance”, in a spatial setting that was sustained by its nearest neighbours²¹. At any rate, it would not extend beyond shipping farm produce, animal husbandry and eggs. Wood is mentioned as the most important export product, especially for England. The only industry mentioned was glass, with Marinha Grande being named as the centre for some of the sector’s producers.

At the time of its closure, in 1944, the following was said about Leiria’s branch of the Bank of Portugal: “It has learned how to cope with difficulties and handle the granting of loans with shrewdness, over the past 101 years”²².

In terms of commerce in the urban environments, towards the end of the 19th century, the activity was “professionalizing”, introducing considerable improvements in the size and quality of establishments. The goods available to a more demanding,



²⁰ *Relatório, Balanço e Desenvolvimentos do Agência do Banco do Portugal em Leiria*, 1893.

²¹ *Relatório de inspeção às agências*, ano de 1901, fl. 2v.

²² *Revista*, Banco de Portugal publication, no. 39, September, 1994, p. 17-18.

informed public were becoming more diverse. Specialist stores were opening their doors: dairies, bookshops, cafés. In the rural world, change did not necessarily come in the same period: it happened quite a lot later.

Leiria was openly different, in the commercial sector, in the variety, specialisation and quality of its establishments.

Competition proclaimed perfectionism and creativity. The use of local newspapers to advertise what was on offer, was marking out a commercial area that was quite distinct from the amalgam in which it had founded itself.

Competing with and complementary to the fixed trade, markets and fairs were also playing an essential part in the regional supply system, and this has continued almost up to today.

With reference to the industrial sector, we should begin by remembering Bacelar Chichorro who, in the last few years of the 18th century, complying with royal instructions of 17th January 1793, gathered information on the economy of the Province of Estremadura, which was published two years later²³. He has thus given us the results of the inquiries he undertook in relation to trade, agriculture and crafts in the Estremadura districts. He was looking at a province which, as he saw it, was the “best equipped” with useful establishments, which were the factories. Because of their excessive concentration in Lisbon, which was in Estremadura, the area as a whole was unable to reflect the benefits of manufacturing development. He argued for the diversification of sites where they should be set up, which would be very good for the national economy: owners would make more profits, the population would grow, farming would benefit with more investment. This was the model brought to Marinha Grande, with the establishment of the Royal Glass Factory, the “factory of factories” in the entire region of Leiria.

In the early 20th century, Bento Carqueja (1916) observed that industry can be a stimulus for all other forms of production. He said that “it specialises and expands the articles traded; in view of its great capacity for capitalisation, it provides an entry for all forms of activity”. It could be added that it would motivate the production of its own raw materials, essential for its activity.

These principles became obvious in the complicated system of tasks developed under the responsibility, organisation and needs of the Royal Glass Factory. Besides producing glass and crystal, the factory engaged in a whole series of activities that complemented the production. Outside the factory, a variety of activities was encouraged, with the aim of supplying what was missing. The first and possibly the most important, was related to the supply of firewood. Felling, cutting and transporting wood from the pine forest, justified work that involved considerable manpower, all year round. The many activities generated by the glass factory were quite obvious. The Royal Glass Factory depended on supplies of sand, seashells, pebbles, limestone, lime, tiles, bricks, clay, planks, charcoal, wooden boxes²⁴. Behind all these materials seethed a multitude of activities that enhanced the image of the Royal Glass Factory. In fact, this large factory fulfilled a social task by fostering the creation of jobs.



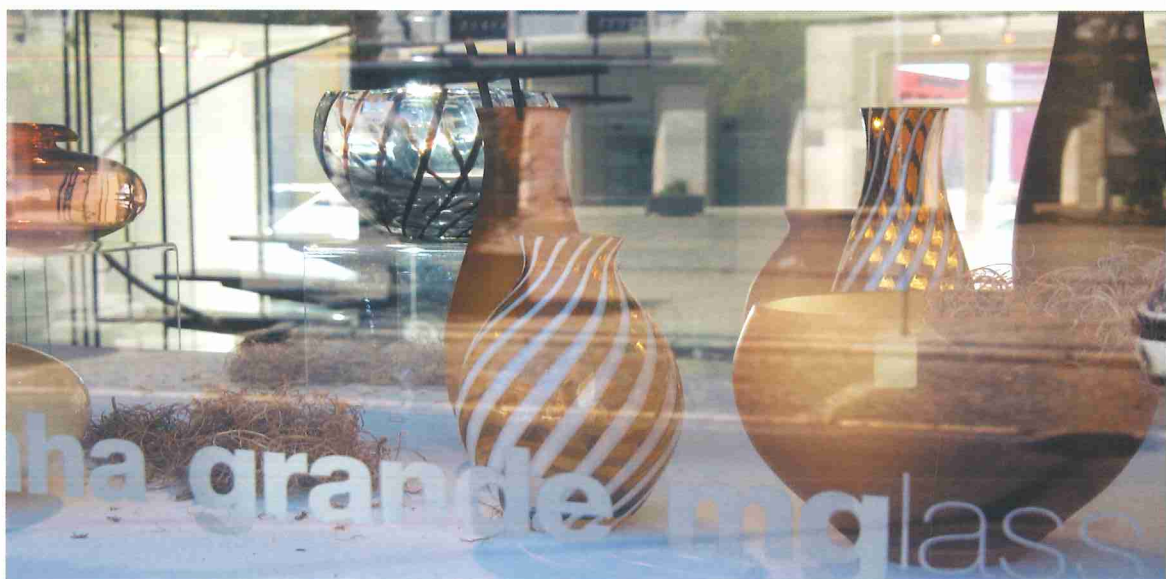
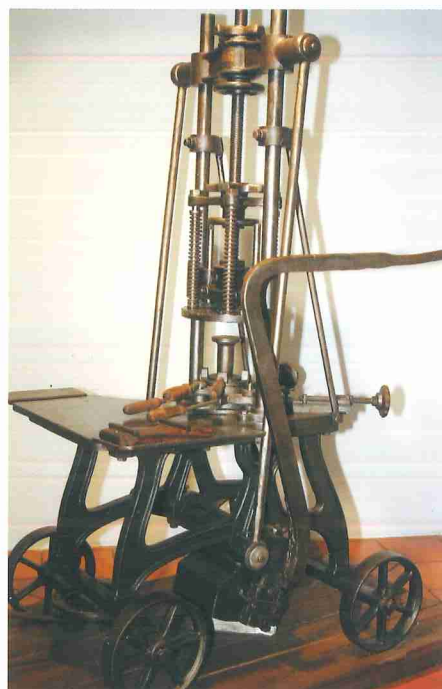
²³ *Memoria Económico Política da Província da Estremadura. Traçada sobre as instruções régias de 17 de Janeiro de 1793, as it was called. Last published in 1943, by Bensabat Amzalak. José Luís Cardoso reveals in this work the influence of the writings of Guimarães Moreira, District Governor (Corregedor) of Leiria, at the end of the 18th century. See *Memorias económicas inéditas, 1780-1808*, with preface by J. L. Cardoso, Academia de Ciências de Lisboa, 1987.*

²⁴ *ADL - Livros Notariais* no. 41 and 45, ff.48-49v; 8-12. Contracts from January 1880, unspecified day, and of 2 February 1882, respectively.

Notarial deeds confirm the development of a range of workshop and industrial activities at the end of the 18th century²⁵. On the whole, the scale and organisation of production units tended to be simple, where a small number of workers absorbed the wisdom of the master, usually the owner. They were receivers and transmitters of the knowledge handed down by tradition, from which the future would benefit. Taking the region of Leiria as a whole, an industrial scenario that perfectly matched the national economic fabric was recorded. At the start of the 19th century, the register of industries established in the Leiria region was quite modest: apart from the glass and crystal factory, threads were woven in two “factories” not far from the town, stockings and fabric, in Alcobaça.

Industrial output from the region was divided between that which arose exclusively from internal needs, like glass, and that which stimulated colonial trade, mostly in Brazil, like hats and cotton fabric.

The town of Leiria also had a system of economic communication routes, which included neighbouring villages. The



²⁵ Cf. Saul Gomes, “A industrialização da Alta-Estremadura no final do Antigo regime – breves notas”, *Revista Portuguesa de História*, volume XXXII, 1997/1998, p.225-241. Jorge Pedreira describes this situation in more detail for the Leiria region (*Estrutura industrial e mercado colonial. Portugal e Brasil, 1780-1830*), especially Chap. II, p.65-137.

backbone, which links the country's towns and cities to one another, opening bigger and more demanding markets, had not yet been sketched out. This failure played its part in the feeble process of industrialisation here, as in the rest of the country. The first decades of the 19th century reflected the effects of the crisis subsequent to the French invasions, from the industrial point of view. The region of Leiria was not to be an exception. As an urban centre, it was to remain detached from a non-existent network of towns; as a predominantly farming region, it was to witness the apathy that marginalised the potential benefits brought by modernisation. Except for the glass-making sector, there was no training of skilled worker and industrial initiatives were in the hands of a labour force that had recently left farm work. But it did have the advantage of being on the coast. More than an organised market, the coast offered accessibility. And this introduced dynamics which locally spurred the utilisation and optimisation of the natural conditions.

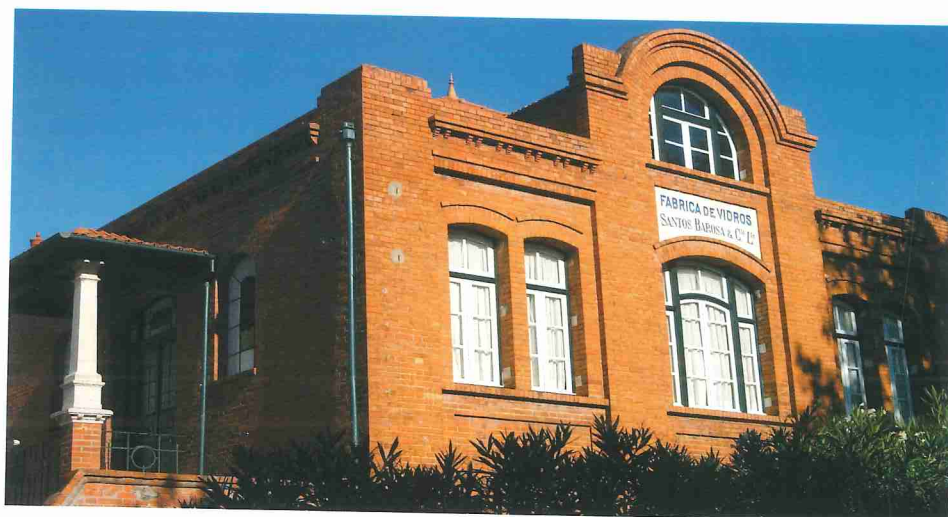
At local level, Leiria region was an area where business initiative, influenced by the Pombaline legacy, adapted to the new circumstances of the late seventeen-hundreds and the start of the next century. Here, as elsewhere in the country, industrialisation made only modest, slow progress, but it still had the essence for creating, throughout the 19th century and early 20th century, the economic, social, mental and cultural structures needed for the strong thrusts that followed.

From the early 20th century, and most noticeably with the coming of the republic, growing involvement with industrial activity was observed. There remained a great many small production units, run by individuals and of limited operations. One corner stood out for its local traditions, and that was Marinha Grande, with others beginning to join it.

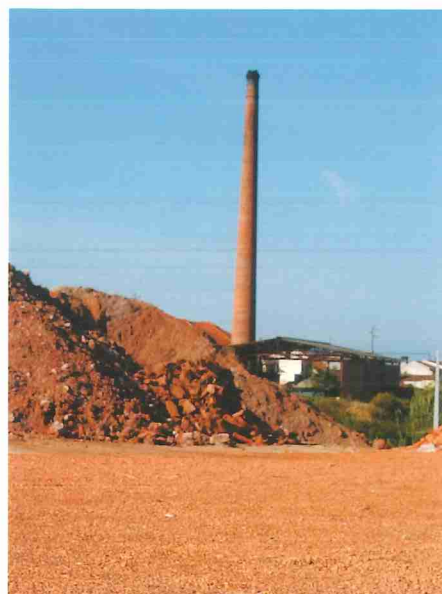
We were seeing the gradual dismantling of a traditional, pre-industrial society. After 1905 the process of change took a clearer route and became more important in the first few years of the republican regime. It does not appear that the political change had any influence on Leiria's industrial path. The information available suggests it was the continuation of a pre-1910 process, which, in fact, was António Telo's conclusion for the country as a whole²⁶.

Regarding Leiria, this, of all the municipal seats, that was most known for its factories, with a total of 23, compared with Alcobaça, with 3, and Pombal, with 4. There are some points of interest about the town. First, the urban area was overlooked in favour of its periphery in relation to the siting of factories.

Second, zones attractive to industry were defined : such as Maceira and Souto da Carpalhosa. While Maceira was to "specialise" in chemicals (fertilisers and matches), taking advantage of local resources (ochre, gypsum), it also tried to compete with Marinha Grande with a glass and window pane factory. Souto da Carpalhosa, meanwhile, flagged as an "industrial centre", on a local dimension, and Maceira was to change its entire landscape, its traditional and economic scenario, benefiting from the railway links to welcome the cement industry, still there today.



²⁶ Cf. António Telo, "A busca frustrada do desenvolvimento", in *Portugal Contemporâneo*, vol. 3, p. 135. Sobre a região em apreço, vide A. Mourão Filipe, *A Formação do Tecido Empresarial da Área Económica de Leiria (1836-1914)*, tese de doutoramento, 2000.



Finally, attention should be paid to Marinha Grande. The glass industry created a tradition based on successful production and on the establishment of a life regulated by factory work. The periods of considerable precariousness it knew seem to have stimulated the entrepreneurial spirit of those who, thanks to some assets, invested in setting up their own company. The families in the glass business were trained, keeping alive the interest, the energy and the determination needed to pursue the activity.



CONTEMPORARY IDENTITY (19TH-20TH CENTURIES)

The forming of the industrial fabric

Business

Economic life is organised on individual initiative and through the creation of companies, formed by two or more individuals. These give rise to a more complex form of economic intervention and take the written form of a legal deed.

The next Table summarises the rate of company creation between 1830 and 1914, in the different municipalities in the Leiria region. To properly interpret the data, we should remember that, in the period under consideration, the present day municipality of Marinha Grande was part of that of Leiria, and that of Nazaré belonged to Alcobaça.

The first decade of the 20th century saw the most active period in terms of formally and legally created companies. The movement started very hesitantly, from 1840, and this changed in the 1860s. It gathered pace in the 1870s, and reached its peak, with 60.5% of all effective formalisations, after 1900. To better understand the situation created after 1910, and for which the figures have their real value, it should be remembered that the amounts found refer exactly to half the time accounted for the previous classes: we go no further than the year 1914.

In the context of business initiative, Alcobaça achieved its good positioning thanks to its coastal zone.

The area generally called Nazaré, which includes Sítio, Pederneira and Praia, played a unique part in the region. Its society formalised the dominant, and almost exclusive, activity: fishing. Although the fishing enterprises began to assert themselves in the 1880s, it was in the early 1900s that they were at their greatest volume.

In the municipality of Leiria, Marinha Grande's propensity for business investment led to the setting up of companies at a rate very similar to that in Alcobaça. Moreover, the glass-making community was foremost in some municipal seats, like Batalha and Porto de Mós, which showed a minimal vocation for creating structures that would cover centres for producing or marketing goods according to a modern code of precepts.

What happened in Leiria town seems to reflect economic movements that differed from those everywhere else. It has the first legally registered company in the locality, but the timidity of its business drive persisted until the end of the 1880s. The international recession in the early 1890s, mostly the reaction of Leiria's market to the decline in emigrants' remittances, led to the interruption of this movement, which only recovered at the turn of the century.

The early years of the 1st Republic established its leadership within the region. Of the other municipal seats, Alcobaça and Pombal reacted most favourably to the economicist appeals of the new regime, and the highest number of companies formed between 1910 and 1914 were located there. Overall, while the small town of Alcobaça was completely overwhelmed by the dynamism in the neighbouring coastal zone of Nazaré, Pombal completely led the way in its municipality.

The businessman

MUNICIPAL	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900	1910	TOTAL
Alcobaça		1	3	2	2	5	7	36	19	75
Batalha				1	2		1		1	5
Leiria	1	4	2	1	12	13	9	24	26	92
Pombal		1			2	2	8	8	13	34
Porto Mós					1	1	2			4
TOTAL	1	6	5	4	19	21	27	68	59	210

Table 3 - CREATED SOCIETIES per municipal and per decade (1830-1919)

Source - Notarial books (from 1836 to 1914)



The late 19th/early 20th century businessman was regarded by some as a weaker kind of explorer and exalted by others for his participation in 'communities' socio-economic development. He created his own social space that was not based on fortune, birth or academic titles.

In the Leiria region, as in the business world in general at the end of the eighteen-hundreds and the early nineteen-hundreds, the family was the key to moulding businessmen.

Of the industrialists who would set up larger firms, like those in the area of glass manufacturing and even ceramics, there is a tendency for them to originate in a small workshop. As employees or small producers, they acquired the know-how, the will and the need to invest in a larger scale project. They created a new kind of businessman: that of the boss who has a thorough knowledge of the job, who shares knowledge and works side by side with his employees, among whom he has placed his own sons. Many of them trained themselves, corresponding completely to the profile of the 'self-made man'. Others reproduced the "business climate" started by the family, or which the boss had given them. They were no less meritorious, because they too consolidated the spirit of change.

The businessman in the industrial sector, more than anyone else, maintained strong ties with the rural world. The complementarity between the two activities was consummated in areas that were hard to autonomize. This was true of milling, wine and brandy distilling, fruit and vegetable preservation. The sharing of physical spaces and seasonality with other apparently unrelated activities became an invitation to forge such a relationship. This occurred with the paper industry, tanning and fertiliser production. Mobility between the two sectors can be seen as a factor of stability, balance and investment security. But is also undoubtedly meant the accommodation of old-fashioned technologies, strongly based in tradition.

Production limitations shaped the limitations of the market. Which is to say, things were produced for local consumption. In the countryside, consumption matched the farming calendar, reducing the development of production capacity. The supply and demand cycles, which obviously coincided, became obstacles to production. Given this background, there was no quantitatively significant training of real businessmen. In terms of quality, and even though they were not a homogeneous group, these were the people responsible for the business climate that was gradually taking shape in the Leiria region.

There is very little information to help us pinpoint the social origins of these men. Information has been built up on the most notable ones that suggests the first generation was of humble birth. Rather than heading for the industrial sector, some were involved with activities linked to trade. Three prominent Leirian businessmen come to mind, all connected with the glass industry: Dâmaso Luís dos Santos, Carlos Salgueiro Gallo and José dos Santos Barosa. When they became glass making industrialists, they concentrated solely on production. Elsewhere, trade remained a supplementary activity in a perfectly harmonious and compatible relationship with industry. The energy and risk the latter required was balanced by the stability and security of the former.

The trade sector was not particularly demanding in terms of specialist knowledge. The relative ease with which it was possible to enter the business world through this route resulted in there being a very broad group, generally called traders or businessmen. Many of them never achieved the status of entrepreneurship. Those that did so overcame demanding levels so that only the best stand out.

Leiria region had some fine businessmen operating in the commercial sector. Establishing themselves, using family assets or backed by a boss, any of these routes was taken in the second half of the 19th and in the 20th centuries.

The economic area of Leiria began an early experiment in large-scale industry, in the national context, through Marinha Grande. The business model developed there showed that it was ahead of its time. Social and cultural concerns like those emerging in the first phase of the Royal Glass Factory did not dominate the mind of those responsible for production or distribution establishments many decades later. The English pattern, so dear to the Pombaline government, was adopted and showed its worth. It created a gap between



the reality it brought to Marinha Grande and the rest that was put into practice afterwards, in other economic sectors. It was not just the size of the company that made it different. The interest in encouraging the workers, by means of culture, training, defined the distance.

At the same time, the first entrepreneurs from the Royal Glass Factory in Marinha Grande drew attention to the participation of foreigners in shaping Leiria's business fabric. They were among the pioneers, and many of them settled down here and established families. They were also among the specialist workers who shared their expertise with colleagues, and replicated it through succeeding generations. There were the Gallos, for example, studied recently, who demonstrated this convergence of origins of some of our businessmen.

Despite the presence of foreigners, Leiria's entrepreneurship was basically endogenous, as elsewhere, even elsewhere in Europe²⁷. In the industrial sector, the two largest factories, up to the end of the 19th century (which came to be known as National, associated with the New Glass Factory of Marinha Grande, and the Fábrica de Fiação e Tecelagem de Alcobaça) benefited from outside investment. Shortly afterwards, the same thing happened with the installation of the cement factory in Maceira. Apart from these firms, there were very few examples that we can find. Leiria received most of its investment from local sources of capital. The economic capacity of its entrepreneurs was in harmony with local wealth, since it was here that the means were found to accumulate capital. From this angle, we can see that there was a blocking factor which prevented the appearance of important companies, in terms of size and technology. Financing, over which we find a veil of silence has been drawn, rarely involved people or institutions from outside the region until the early 20th century. The family was the main source.

From the social point of view, there are no references to the origins of the great majority of businessmen in the Leiria economic area²⁸. Various documental sources have provided indirect information which has led to a certain homogeneity in terms of birth. In the industrial sector and commercial sector alike we come across men of humble origin: sons of small property owners, of petty traders, of labourers. In some cases they team up with a self-employed professional, a doctor or lawyer. They mostly started out by setting up on their own; some of them gained experience and ambition from being involved in larger projects that extended beyond the family setting. They found partners with whom they shared ideas and interests. They established firms. Others expanded their company on their own and survived thanks to their skills and the support and backing of their family.

The second generation did not greatly change this model, but it benefited from a birth that made things easier than the course taken by the father. Access to education was being extended and came to be an added value for firms. Two levels of knowledge converged in the new businessman: that from school and that from the shop or workshop. The Leiria region showed that the ideological representation of the third generation "law" exhibits considerable weakness²⁹. When some of the younger members of the family break with the relative stability of the father/son succession, reproducing a widespread business practice, this was due to the attraction of professions which required a university education. They symbolised the economic and social power of the parents. Some of the lawyers, doctors and engineers in the early 20th century, in Leiria region, were the offspring of local businessmen. They did not always leave the business world, a clear illustration of the influence exerted by the entrepreneurial climate and culture that had been growing there. In the absence of children, other relatives, or even workers, were admitted to this chain of inheritance.

Not all the businessmen were successful. Of those who did succeed, some attained powerful positions in Leiria's social structure. They mostly came from the commercial sector. But, contrary to what happened in Porto in the 19th century, as Manuel C. Teixeira (1996) described, in Leiria's economic area industrialists also occupied distinguished positions. On the whole, they formed a small group, but they left their mark on local civic life. In associations, in local government, in party political organisations, cultural and leisure activities, businessmen were involved as driving forces. The level of their standing was directly related to the importance of the position taken in these other spheres of activity. Leaders of economic life were given more responsibility.

When it comes to trading, for instance, the businessman was in charge of a privileged place for exercising his influence: the shop. This sociable place joined up with others, because of the need to form a group identity. The Leiria Commercial Association, the Leiria Assembly, and clubs were among the organisations that became centres for the class to discuss issues and take decisions. This aspect of power was gradually being given visibility, and was manifesting itself in the collective, from the singular.

Businessmen led local economic life, but they went further. They became renowned as citizens, contributing both as a group and individually, to the development of the entire region of Leiria in the second half of the 19th and early 20th century.

²⁷ Cf. D. Barjot, *Les Patrons du Second Empire*, vol.1, p.19. This is about an example from Upper Normandy.

²⁸ A completely acceptable situation, from the number of authors who have noted this information gap, for Portugal, for European countries and for the United States.

²⁹ On the Gallo family, J. M. Amado Mendes and Manuel F. Rodrigues have another example to expand the number of exceptions (*Ricardo Gallo. Um século de tradição e inovação no vidro, 1899-1999*, p.39). We would add the Leitão and Barosa families, among others.



ATENEU

CASA

CONTEMPORARY IDENTITY (19TH-20TH CENTURIES)

Structuring of urban space and new forms of sociability

When organising the urban space, trade starts out by defining a centre, from which commercial peripheries are hierarchised. Services keep pace with the spatial layout decided by trade, according to an interactive model, justified by the flow of people there. But the trade justified the urban model, not only in terms of organising the town's internal space, but also the road network that would give it the best accesses.

In a recent study, the geographer Teresa Barata Salgueiro looked at the organisation of a city, as influenced by commerce, by making use of the current example afforded by the city of Leiria³⁰. Going back to the mid-twentieth century, we would find at the reinforcing of the monocentric urban model, exemplified by the Praça Rodrigues Lobo, where the city's main shopping area could be found. Apart from the various stores, the weekly markets are also held there. The various kinds of trade co-existed in an atmosphere of peaceful neighbourliness, from which everyone gained. The interests of anyone wanting to sell were protected not only by a code of professional ethics but by the balance sought between what buyers needed and the range of goods available to them each day. And so the variety of products did not result in a twofold supply, differentiated by where it was bought (shop or market stall). No complaints were made about this by traders with an open shop. The accessibility of the Praça Rodrigues Lobo made it easy for sellers and buyers alike. In addition to all this, the mobility of the latter was facilitated by the concentration of the suppliers and the friendly protection of the boundaries of the actual space.

As time passed, the town shifted from this monocentric trade and welcomed other units, which little by little began to develop into secondary centres. This did not coincide with the decline of the main centre, but with the growth of residential areas which were creating their own "consumption areas".



³⁰ Do comércio à distribuição. Roteiro de uma mudança, Celta Editora, 1996.

As we leave the town of Leiria in 1914, the primacy of the commercial area defined by the Praça Rodrigues Lobo and the streets nearby was still a fact. But there were signs foreshadowing the existence of peripheries that were likely to become secondary centres in relation to the older, more important one. Here, and round about, in addition to living there, the local bourgeoisie had their "social emblems": social centres of professional, cultural, humanitarian organisations, elegant leisure amenities, big stores, banks. The workshops and factories remained, but to the extent that they were being created, this was taking place in the suburbs. The administrative services were established nearby. The construction of a new municipal building would remove some public offices to the edge of the town, releasing space for the services and even for private housing.

The areas around the Praça Rodrigues Lobo soon benefited from the improvements in urban conditions, especially those linked to hygiene and public lighting.

The flipside of this situation of the down-town part of the town involved the River Lis. Its floodwaters regularly invaded the nearby streets, bursting into the establishments there.

It was necessary for the town, a place of markets and traders, to be flexible and adapt to the new conditions. The economic relations engaged in here did not always clarify the dichotomy between the urban and the rural. Quite the contrary. The limits were sometimes so diffuse that Leiria could have served as a pattern to support the idea of the wrong placing of the division between these two worlds.

There was a balanced relationship of interdependence in the trade between the town and the country areas.

The town centre, with its many commercial establishments, was not very keen to welcome industrial initiatives. It would make room for small craft workshops producing goods that catered for the immediate needs of the people, and these therefore acquired commercial functions.

The factories and workshops that needed more space and used more workers preferred to set up either on the edge of Leiria or in neighbouring parishes. The peripheral calling of industry, in the words of Maria Madalena Allegro Magalhães (1988), was being repeated here. The needs of a growing urban population was combined with the demand for cheap land and plentiful labour.

The doubling of activities that often occurred, due to the proximity with farming, meant that this labour force was fairly undemanding when it came to working conditions, benefits and wages. But the counterpart was that it became a perverted benefit, since it did not encourage the acquisition of new skills and knowledge. This situation only served to adversely affect industry.

From the intellectual and administrative standpoint, the town of Leiria, district capital, also occupied the centre of an extended area. The peripheral communities had to come here to use the services that regulated the political and administrative life of the country.

The town can enjoy a reputation as a "social elevator", bringing added value to its people by the simple fact that they are living there.

But the urban population was hierarchised by upward and downward social movement, in terms of professional successes and failures. There is the example arising from the publicity surrounding the bankruptcy proceedings of businesses, whose owners are quickly forgotten in the media, which, especially the local journals, follow the social ups and downs in the town. The weekly social contact they afforded with a particular citizen would come to an abrupt end when an economic setback became public. The ethics established by urban sophistication would prevent the journalist from making considered judgments in relation to the events to which the personages involved were related. But the local press, as a creation of a social - even cultural - elite, would give the picture of the social vicissitudes of their peers.

Some displays of solidarity, cemented by relations of neighbourliness, have persisted in the urban space, despite everything. The scale of Leiria's economic wealth was naturally considerably distant from the patterns of large towns and cities at the end of the 19th century, noted for being completely dehumanised, in spite of the excessive concentration of human resources³¹.

Like other Portuguese cities, Leiria allowed features of rural companionship to persist: when there was a fire in the house or shop of a wealthy trader, people would get together to help alleviate the damage. A lot of examples have been gathered, thanks to acknowledgment notices in the local press.

³¹ Cf. *História Económica e Social ...* (dir. P. Léon), vol.IV, tomo II, p.328.





1894

RODRIGUES

LYCÉE DE

LOBOS

APE

46

46

APE

LYCÉE DE LOBOS
RUE DE LA PAIX
LOBOS

EDUCATION IN THE REGION OF LEIRIA (FROM THE MIDDLE AGES TO THE PRESENT DAY)

The Evolution of Education in Portugal

Education, in the broad sense of teaching provided in a building set aside for the purpose, with assessment schemes, has not always been a matter of interest either to rulers or to a largely illiterate population. This population was not only made up of underprivileged social groups, i.e. 'the people'. On the contrary, for many centuries this was a feature shared by the nobility and the people alike. Only the clergy had access to instruction and the domain of writing, since this was necessary for their training and for the proper performance of their duties. However, in the Middle Ages, this privileged group did not escape criticism relating to their training, which was sometimes regarded as wholly inadequate for the exercise of such important functions in society, given that they were responsible for the spiritual and moral life of their parishioners.

The Monastic Schools in convents and monasteries were not good enough preparation for a secular clergy, since their main aim was to train for the regular clergy. Having noted the failings in the training of the secular clergy, the Church's hierarchy stepped in to deal with it. In the 3rd Lateran Council, in 1179, it was ruled that a benefice for the master, *Magister Scholae*, should be instituted in cathedrals, which was to provide free teaching for admission to the priesthood¹. This led to the establishment of Episcopal Schools in the larger cities and towns of the kingdom. Even so, the instruction available still do not match the needs of the country, especially at a time when great socio-economic and political changes were taking place. As the kingdom was at peace, after the Algarve had been definitively conquered, it needed an effective administration. But there were not enough qualified laymen people to satisfy these administrative needs.

In fact there was no university in Portugal until 1290. This meant that Portuguese students who wanted to pursue studies at a higher level had to go to the universities that were emerging little by little throughout Christian Europe. However this was both unsafe and costly. It was D. Dinis who, together with some Portuguese clerics, including the Abbot of the Monastery of Alcobaça, request papal permission to found a General Instruction in Portugal, in 1288. The reply was delayed, and so the king, in 1290, created a General Instruction in Lisbon, on his own initiative. So now Portugal had an institution that tried to satisfy the needs of training at the level of Canon Law, Law and, later, Medicine and Theology, with Arts being required for admission to the higher faculties.

Latin, the official language of the Church, was also the language of instruction, and it was only much later that national languages became part of the curriculum. The teaching method was based on holy texts which were read and explained according to scholastic method. Instruction was oral and there were no written exams, nor was there any kind of contestation - it was dogmatic teaching. Education continued in the Monasteries and Sees, along with the university education, with little opening up to the outside world.

The economic, social and cultural changes in the modern period, made possible by the intensification of trading relations, the multiplying of public offices and the policy of centralising government, led to an ever-increasing demand for "masters of reading", recruited from students, bachelors, and clerics². The social elevation of certain strata of society was sustained on cultural promotion through instruction, facilitated by the press, more and more necessary: a written form of the national language was being steadily established.

Learning was not only a prerogative of the convents, churches or the (rare) parish schools: it also took place at court, in the houses of the nobility and the bourgeoisie, in classes given by private tutors in their own homes or rented premises. These private classes were mostly attended by males, while the teaching of women was largely confined to the upper echelons or to those who adopted a convent life³.

¹ Joaquim Ferreira Gomes, *História da Educação*, Coimbra, 1967.

² Rui Grácio, "Ensino Primário e Analfabetismo" in *Dicionário de História de Portugal*, vol. II, Direcção de Joel Serrão, Livraria Figueirinhas, Porto, s.d., pp. 392-397.

³ *Ibidem*.

In the 16th century the Company of Jesus, whose devotion to education was one of its main features, with its Lower and Higher Colleges and its University in Évora, introduced a new method of education. It was based on the constant review of contents, the division of classes by age, the encouragement of competition and constant supervision of the students, and also on the use of written exercises. Their motto, *it is better to learn a little well than a lot superficially*, was found to be extremely effective and they dominated education in Portugal until they were expelled by the Marquês de Pombal in 1759.

After their expulsion, first letters (*primeiras letras*) was deprived of instructors, and so the Marquês de Pombal undertook a series of reforms with the aim of filling the gap left by the Jesuits. It was under the Marquês de Pombal that the first official concern with teaching the people was aired when, in 1772, the first attempt was made to institute primary education, leading to the blossoming of the first letters, towards the end of the 18th century. The schools of "Reading, Writing and Arithmetic" emerged and expanded under his government. In 1779 there were almost 720 first letters schools in Portugal. It was during his rule that Royal Schools (*Escolas Régias*) were set up and the Reform of the University of Coimbra was undertaken, providing it with infrastructures to allow a more useful education that accorded with European pedagogical courses and teaching methods. After that, the State took control of education and this tendency was accentuated in the succeeding centuries, although there was a certain amount of stagnation in the encouragement of education in the reigns of Maria I and João VI, for several reasons⁴.

Once liberalism took hold, education received a new impetus. This guaranteed education for everyone and freedom in teaching, with the 1826 Constitutional Charter decreeing that education should be free and a citizen's right. Efforts were therefore made to foster educational advances in various domains, by expanding the network of schools and by training teachers, with the creation in 1860 of the Normal Schools (*Escolas Normais*). These measures led to a slight drop in illiteracy from 90% in 1834 to 74.1% in 1900.

However, primary education was not the level that the liberals focused on. Based as it was on the support of the middle classes, whose access to the first letters was fairly well assured, liberal interest was directed at Secondary Education, since it was of concern to the social group that backed and nurtured the regime.

So, with Septemberism, Secondary Education was reformed after 1836, under Manuel Passos government. This reform was very progressive, creating Secondary Schools (Liceus) in the District capitals with a curriculum that included the Humanities (History, Geography and Literature), Living Languages (French, German and English), the Sciences (Chemistry, Physics, Algebra, Geometry and Natural Sciences) and the traditional subjects of Classical Languages, Rhetoric and Philosophy. Subsequent governments made some changes to the Secondary Education curriculum, but these were based on the Passos Manuel reform.

Another novelty introduced by the liberal regime was the establishment of Technical Education in Portugal, as it became necessary to provide the nation with experts in industry and commerce. Although it was the Passos Manuel government which introduced Technical Education in Portugal, with the creation of the Arts and Works Laboratory (Laboratório de Artes e Ofícios) in Lisbon and Porto, this aspect only really developed after 1850, in the Regeneration period. Fontes Pereira de Melo, seeing the need to train skilled technicians for industry, the development of which his government was encouraging, established Industrial Schools in Lisbon and Porto. In 1880, Emídio Navarro created the Commercial Schools, which spread throughout Portugal in the decades that followed.

Another manifestation of liberal interest in education was the creation of Higher Education in the form of 8 colleges established in Lisbon and Porto, including the Polytechnic School of Lisbon and the Polytechnic Academy of Porto. University education was largely left alone under the liberal regime, which mistrusted the University which it saw as a centre of tradition and refuge of absolutism in Portugal. The most important change at this level of education was the merging of the Faculties of Canon Law and Law to form the Faculty of Law, and the inclusion of various new subjects in Science. In the domain of knowledge, the University was consigned to a modest role as a school for the training of future administrators and government officials (middle classes and aristocracy).

The monarchy, moribund since the 1890s, was the target preferred by the republican party and its propaganda, which focused on the need to educate the people so that they could freely and conscientiously choose their rulers. After the Revolution of the 5th of October 1910, the new republican regime took a number of measures to democratize education, which was now fully controlled by the State. The complete secularisation of the State and education was thus undertaken.

⁴ Among these factors, special emphasis is given to the French Invasions and the political, social and economic upheaval that was to lead to the Liberal Revolution of 1829, and the victory of liberalism in 1834.



The 16 years of the republican regime were marked by countless reforms, as well as by great instability in government, which prevented the full implementation of the proposed reforms. Among the measures taken then, special mention should be made of Infant Education for children aged between 4 and 7⁵. This was promoted with the appearance of the João de Deus Kindergartens, first in Coimbra, then in Figueira da Foz and the third in Alcobaça, gradually spreading countrywide.

In terms of Primary Education, a three-year compulsory education system was established, divided into three levels: elementary (3 years), complementary (2 years) and higher (3 years). In 1914, the organisation and supervision of Primary Instruction was decentralised and it was handed over to the municipalities, but, in 1919, Decree-Law no. 5787-A, of 10th May, entrusted the responsibility for running schools to School Boards (*Juntas Escolares*), composed by teachers, councillors, a schools inspector and a municipal financial secretary. Compulsory education was extended from 3 to 5 years - General Primary Education.

Undergoing a series of reforms, secondary education saw its network of schools increase significantly. The Decree-Law of 17th November 1914 created female sections in the Secondary Schools, consolidating the principle of co-education. In 1918, Secondary Education was completely overhauled, with the introduction of more subjects and longer hours, and this remained in place until 1926⁶.

Although the republican regime tried hard to encourage education, the results were not as significant as might have been expected, considering the efforts made.

The collapse of the republican regime with the Military Coup of 1926 and the consequent rise to power of António de Oliveira Salazar gave rise to profound changes in education. Although education was not one of the main preoccupations of the new regime - the *Estado Novo* - neither was it ignored. Two measures marked this process which, "in their apparent insignificance, illustrate the close ties between the scholastic institution and social dynamics: the reduction of compulsory education to three years (1930) and the expansion of compulsory

⁵ António Nóvoa, "A «Educação Nacional»", in *Nova História de Portugal*, vol. XII, Dir. Joel Serrão e A. H. de Oliveira Marques, Editorial Presença, Lisboa, 1992.

⁶ *Idem*.



schooling for both sexes to four years (1960)⁷. Whereas in the first phase the goal was to quickly reduce illiteracy, given the existing institutional capacity, the second phase considered the social demand for education, at the same time as the school network was growing significantly, covering most of the country. The education system helped to internalise a model of society and culture. The stability of the *Estado Novo* and its education policies is explained by a capacity for totalisation and social integration⁸.

The new regime started off by passing legislation against the republican school: compartmentalisation of education, separating the sexes and social groups, acting against the principles of co-education and single school of the republicans, the dumbing-down of learning (reducing compulsory education and cutting back the curriculum), adapting the institutional supply to the social demand for education, imposing an authoritarian and centralist administration on the education system by controlling teachers and strengthening the inspection system, and through an attitude of deprofessionalisation of teachers, devaluing their professional and academic bases by appointing school trustees (*regentes escolares*)⁹ with no academic or professional qualifications.

The second phase, from 1936 to the post-war period, was notable for the attempt to build a nationalistic school, based on a strong element of ideological inculcation and moral indoctrination: school was not meant to pass on knowledge but to train the consciousness along the lines of the *Estado Novo*, with the institution of the Official Book (*Livro Único*), the perfect vehicle for transmitting the State ideology. This nationalism imposed the supremacy of education on instruction.

After 1947, a third phase undertook a reform of Secondary Education (the secondary schools) and Technical Education to accommodate the education system to the social and economic realities of the post-war period. This involved steps to increase compulsory schooling that set education policy within the economic needs and the industrialisation of the country, with the aim of training qualified human resources.

The administration of education, with its strong centralising and bureaucratic tradition, despite the timid efforts of republicanism to decentralise the system, was reinforced by the *Estado Novo*, which installed a real administrative dictatorship in education.

Between 1930 and 1960, the illiteracy rate fell from 61.8% to 30.3%¹⁰: in fact, the *Estado Novo*'s illiteracy strategy worked for the regime, since, as it declined, it simultaneously instilled nationalist ideals from a tender age.

People had primary education without any great social expectations being aroused in them. This level of teaching was available to all, based on minimal, controlled, course contents. In terms of compulsory education, this was being increased so that the Government could meet new challenges. In 1930 it was three years, and in 1964 it had expanded to 6 years. To cover the whole country, ensuring an education for everyone, the Government built new schools (as part of the Centenary Plans - *Planos Centenários*) by bringing education to small communities. In 1967, Preparatory Education was established, expressing a significant change in current education policy.

Growth in technical education in the post-war period helped to meet existing industrialisation plans, training workers and technicians aware of their role in society. They mostly aimed to train the middle classes, especially the local leadership elites, and so this level of education was also considered by the regime.

⁷ António Nóvoa, *Ob. cit.*, p. 455.

⁸ *Idem.*

⁹ *Idem.*

¹⁰ *Idem.*

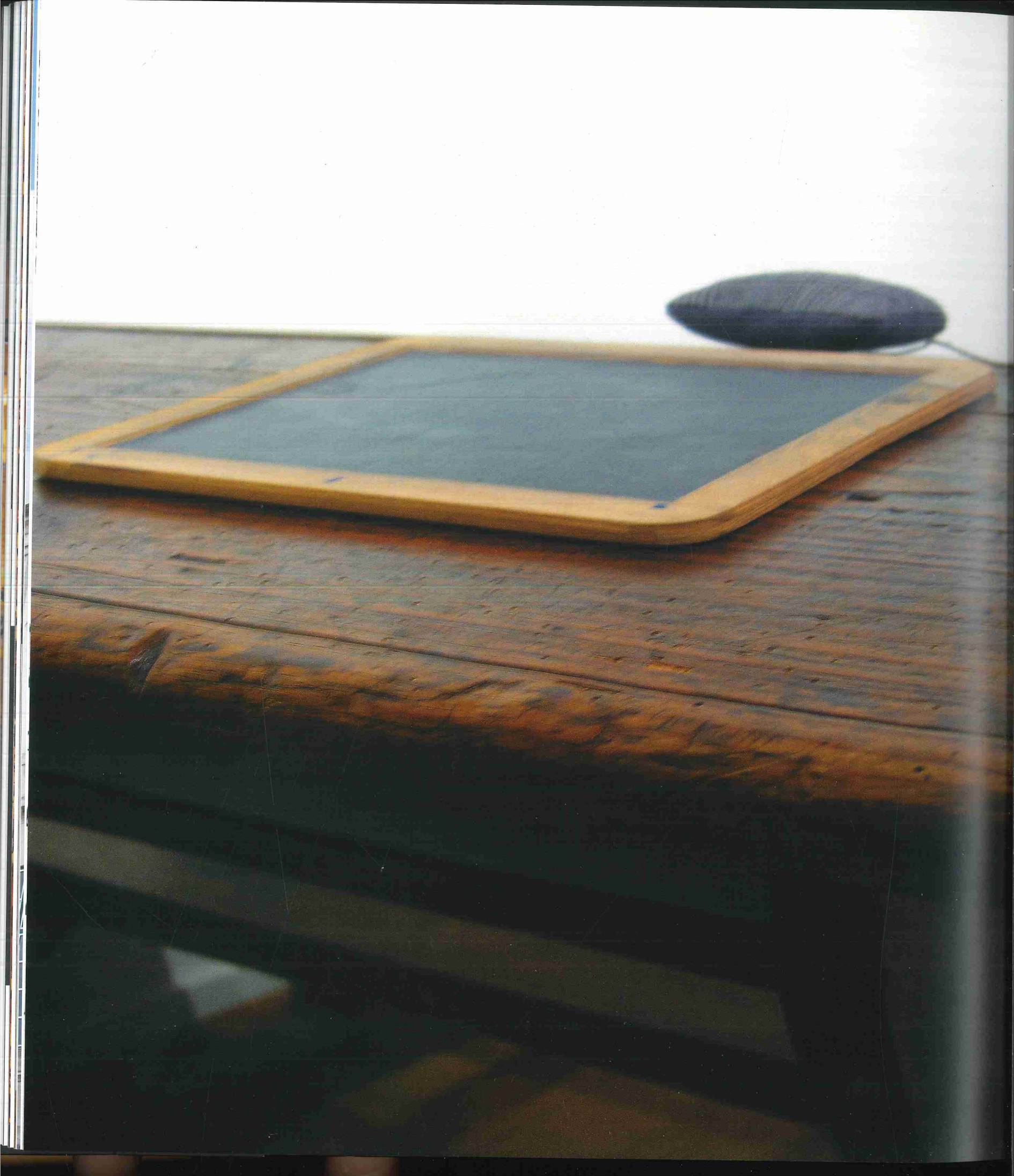
In 1960, there were four universities teaching at this level (two in Lisbon, one in Porto and one in Coimbra), and a number of institutions offering non-university higher education. The university population was quite small and did not correspond to the true needs of the country. A significant point is the fact that the number of female students in higher education was growing, and this trend was consolidated in subsequent years. In 1940, the proportion of female students was 18.9%, and in 1960 it was 31.1%¹¹, representing significant growth in 20 years. The higher education system did not enjoy high productivity, and this aggravated some of the problems already noticed, which would find their greatest expression in the student movements that heralded the crisis in the universities in the 1960s.

Teacher training was always a sensitive area of the education system. More than a place to gain knowledge and techniques, teacher training was a fundamental element in the configuration of the teaching profession. The *Estado Novo* carried out important reforms in the sphere of teacher training. In 1930 the Primary Teacher Schools (*Escolas do Magistério Primário*) were established to replace the Normal Primary Schools (*Escolas Normais Primárias*), which were republican in character, and the Higher Normal Schools (*Escolas Normais Superiores*) were abolished, thereby achieving the complete demolition of the structure put in place by the previous regime.

In 1936, the newly-created Primary Teacher Schools (*Escolas do Magistério Primário*) were closed down, showing the failure and inability to prevail in this vital area of the education system. These schools were re-opened in 1942, the republican ghost having been finally laid to rest. Teacher training courses lasted 2 years in 1930, and 3 semesters in 1942, when these schools were re-opened. In academic and intellectual terms the demands were also lower and lower. The appointment of school trustees offset this lower qualification of teacher training to a certain extent.



¹¹ António Nóvoa, *Ob. cit.*



With the Revolution of 25th April 1974, and the consequent democratisation of a country that had survived almost 50 years of an oppressive dictatorship, teaching too was released from the chains of the Salazar regime. In the dying years of the regime, with Marcelo Caetano presiding over the destiny of a nation eager for change, efforts were made to make changes in education, notably in the Education Reform envisaged by Veiga Simão. But the Carnation Revolution frustrated these efforts.

Democracy brought in its wake freedom, secularisation and democratisation in education. Co-education, already tried in the First Republic, came back to schools. Reforms in education ensued until the publication in 1986 of the The Basic Education Law (Lei de Bases do Sistema Educativo – LBSE)¹² which established the overall framework of the education system. This law, and the amendments introduced by Law no. 115/97, of 19 September, form the basis of Portugal's education system, in strict compliance with the provisions established in the Constitution of the Portuguese Republic.

According to this law, the “education system is the set of means by which the right to education is established, as expressed by the guarantee of a permanent training action directed at fostering the global development of the personality, social progress and the democratisation of society”¹³, developing on the basis of a set of organised structures and range of actions, the initiative and responsibility for which are entrusted to different public, private and cooperative institutions and bodies.

The scope of the education system is likewise defined, embracing Portuguese territory in its entirety, with all Portuguese being entitled to education and culture, as enshrined in the Constitution. The State is responsible for promoting and democratising education and ensuring the right to equal opportunities, in both admission to and success in education. It further guarantees the freedom and tolerance for those with different choices, being secular, itself¹⁴. Mindful of the needs deriving from social circumstances, the education system



¹² Law no. 46/86, of 14th October.

¹³ Law no. 46/86, Article 1, no. 2.

¹⁴ Law no. 46/86.



aims to promote the development of a pluralist democratic spirit, in respect to democratic values. It is also stipulated that this is student-oriented, aiming at students' cognitive, moral and civic preparation, so that they can adopt a reflective and critical attitude to society, and may later make their contribution to the advancement of society as active citizens.

The Portuguese education system includes pre-school, school and extra-school education. The first, pre-school, is optional and complementary to families' own educational activity. The second, school education, involves basic, secondary and higher education. The third, extra-school education, concerns activities like literacy programmes, cultural improvement and updating, and may be formal or otherwise. Universal Basic Education, compulsory and free, comprises 9 years of schooling in three cycles¹⁵, and is completed at the age of 15¹⁶, ensuring the training and balanced development of everyone, and encouraging an open and tolerant awareness, in the spirit of universalist humanism. At the same time, it provides for children with special educational needs, giving them suitable conditions to develop fully. Secondary Education, open to everyone who has completed basic education, lasts for three years, covering various areas of knowledge, and it aims to prepare students either to enter higher education or for work.

¹⁵ The 1st Cycle, 4 years, is basically taught by just one teacher; the 2nd Cycle, 2 years, is organised by subject area with one teacher per area; the 3rd Cycle, 3 years, has a unified curriculum with one teacher per subject.

¹⁶ Law no. 46/86, Article 6^o.

Education in Leiria and its Region

The region of Leiria has struggled for an intense pedagogical activity since the earliest days of nationhood, to teach its people. It was a different education, taught in convents and monasteries, of which the Monasteries of Alcobaça and Santa Maria da Vitória are two of its dearest sons.

The Monastic School of Alcobaça, and that of Santa Cruz in Coimbra, were two of the chief centres of teaching in the region, providing instruction to their members since the 12th century. The Monastery of Santa Maria da Vitória in Batalha, was another important centre of learning in the region, together with the education provided to some extent by all the convents in the region. But these institutions only taught their own, that is, they taught future members of the clergy. We should not overlook the fact that, until the Pombaline Education Reform, the State had no responsibility for education, which rested solely in the hands of the Church and private tutors.

With the expulsion of the Jesuits in 1759, education, which had been one of their main activities, was left without teachers. To overcome this problem, the Marquês de Pombal undertook a Reform of Primary Education (*Estudos Menores*). This reform started with the attempt to place teachers of Latin Grammar in every town and village of the kingdom. Thirteen years after the start of the reform, it gained a new impetus. In order to provide more effective educational cover, "837 teaching posts" were created "and 479 places for 'reading, writing and Arithmetic masters', 236 for Latin Grammar teachers, 38 for Greek Language, 49 for Rhetoric and 35 for Philosophy. Every town and village would have at least one master of first letters. The heads of the Judicial District (*Comarca*) and more important communities were also given Latin Grammar instruction"¹⁷.

The region that we are concerned with, Leiria, benefited from the 1772 reform. It received a Greek Language teacher, one for Rhetoric, one for Philosophy and the villages of Alcobaça and Ourém each had a teacher of Rhetoric. Latin Grammar teachers were also provided in Pombal, Ansião, Leiria, Figueiró dos Vinhos, Pedrogão Grande, Ourém, Batalha, Aljubarrota, Alcobaça, Caldas da Rainha, Peniche and Óbidos. In the Judicial District of Leiria, Alfeizerão and Alvorninha received first letters masters. The region of Estremadura had 80 masters of reading, writing and Arithmetic, according to Joaquim Veríssimo Serrão¹⁸.

But with the arrival of liberalism, there came a period of instability and this had its impact on education. The triumph of liberalism and its ideals, in 1834, created the conditions leading to real progress in the sphere of education. This progress was certainly visible in Leiria, which sought to maintain Public Primary Education in the municipality.



¹⁷ Joaquim Veríssimo Serrão, *História de Portugal*, vol. VI, 2^a ed., Editorial Verbo, Lisboa, 1990, p. 257.

¹⁸ *Idem*.

The first agitation to encourage this level of education in the municipality in the liberal period dates from 18 June 1836, when the town council presented the queen, D. Maria II, with a complaint through the General Directorate of Studies in which it was stated that the youth of the town were not receiving the first letters education, since there was no teacher¹⁹.

In 1846, the ruler was asked to provide an Normal Mutual School (*Escola de Ensino Mútuo Normal*)²⁰. In the same year, the Civil Governor asked the Town Hall to reward a primary instruction teacher in Caranguejeira, saying that two more primary instruction places would be established in the municipality's parishes, to bring education to more people. The Council refused the request, saying that the Municipality had no income to reward new teachers.

Some years later, at a meeting in 1866, a sum of 30 000 *reis* was voted for the adult school in the town, with the Civil Governor providing two rooms for the purpose, occupied until then by the Civil Governor's Office.

The name of Joaquim Ferreira dos Santos will forever be linked to education in the town. Better known as the Conde de Ferreira, he was an eminent merchant from the north who, having no direct heirs, left provision in his will for the building of 120 primary schools, for both sexes, with houses for teachers in the municipality's chief villages.

Leiria, although a town, was also contemplated by the will, with the building of a primary school in front of the D. Manuel de Aguiar Hospital. The school was built with a donation of 1 200 000 *reis* from the late Conde de Ferreira, which the Council accepted in October 1866, with the Town Hall contributing a further 400 000 *reis* and furniture. The tender was awarded in August 1867, and it was completed in December of the same year. It was inaugurated in March 1871, and later the building was given to the Post Office (CTT).

Between 1882 and April 1888, besides the schools in the town, the municipality also had a boys school in Caranguejeira, an Elementary and Complementary Education school in the parish seat of Marinha, a girls school in Milagres and a school in the parish of Pousos. Education developed quite quickly in the municipality of Leiria: in 1856 there were only 10 Royal Schools (*Escolas Régias*), attended by 407 pupils and a private school attended by 23 pupils in the municipality. In 1882, however, the number had risen to 31 primary schools, 7 of which were for girls²¹. In 1853, there were 41 public primary schools in the district of Leiria, to which were added 11 private schools, attended by 3 476 pupils. By 1873 there were now 96 such schools, with a ratio of one school for every 1 877 inhabitants. In 20 years 55 new schools had been added, an increase of 134%²². These schools were mostly attended by boys. In 1853 there were 3 girls schools, ten years later there were 9 and ten years after that, in 1873, there were 13.

In relation to illiteracy, in Leiria the rate was 86%, in Caldas da Rainha it was 84%, Pedrógão Grande 85%, Pombal, the most populous municipality in the district, 91.5% and the figure for Batalha and Porto do Mós was 90%. Peniche, with 75%, was the furthest from the district average (86%) and was also lower than the national average, 79%²³.

The municipal authorities wanted to teach the people. In 1903, in a minute from a council meeting, the council decided to set up night courses in primary education in Leiria and Marinha Grande. In 1908, the Instruction League (*Liga de Instrução*) was established in the town and in 1909 it asked the Town Hall to organise a primary night course in the town²⁴.

On 26th October 1910, after the Implantation of the Republic, the Town Hall decided to seek the creation of an Central Primary School (*Escola Central Primária*), for both sexes (on a co-education basis) and the granting of the Santo Estêvão building for it to set up at once. This was given to the Town Hall the following year, on a temporary basis, to house a primary and secondary school. On 16th October 1912, the School was installed there and it operated for several years, despite suffering certain ups and downs. In 1930, the usefulness of night classes was recognised in the request that they should made permanent, because of the countless benefits they had brought in the reduction of illiteracy in the town.

During the time the *Estado Novo* was in power, the number of primary schools multiplied throughout the municipality and district of Leiria, as they were built in the parish seats and in the larger villages in these parishes. In 1972, after the reforms of the *Estado Novo*, there were 122 schools in the network of public schools in the municipality, with several rooms. The financial investment made by the Salazar government in establishing them was manifest²⁵.

When it came to the secondary school level, one was established in Leiria in September 1844, in the wake of the education reform instigated by the Passos Manuel Septembrist government. However it was only in 1850 that teachers of Moral and Rational Philosophy,

¹⁹ João Cabral, *Anais do Município de Leiria*, vol. I, Edição da Câmara Municipal de Leiria, Leiria, 1993.

²⁰ *Idem*.

²¹ *Idem*.

²² Alda Mourão Filipe, "Algumas reflexões sobre a implementação do Ensino Primário: Leiria na segunda metade do século XIX", in *Actas do II Colóquio sobre a História de Leiria e da sua região*, Câmara Municipal de Leiria, Leiria, 1995, pp. 247-254.

²³ *Idem*.

²⁴ João Cabral, *Ob. cit.*

²⁵ *Idem*.



Latin Grammar and Language were appointed. Later on, in 1858, an application was made to create a subject of the Principles Physics and Chemistry in the town's National Secondary Schools, and another for an Introduction to Natural History, which was agreed by the authority. In 1866, the town's Secondary School was considered to be first class, a category reserved for only a few. As the building steadily deteriorated, the Town Hall asked for a new building to be constructed for the Secondary Schools, and which happened in 1965.

Leiria kept up with the education reforms and with economic and technological developments. In June 1888, therefore, the School of Industrial Design of Leiria (Escola de Desenho Industrial de Leiria) was founded and it was up and running two years later. In 1922 the School of Industrial and Comercial Domingos Sequeira (Escola Industrial e Comercial Domingos Sequeira), attached to the School of Industrial Design, was created by decree.





POLYTECHNIC EDUCATION

Higher Education was initiated in 1973, with the publication of Law no. 5/73, of 25 July, incorporated in what has become known as the Veiga Simão Reform, which established that Higher Education would be the preserve of Universities, Polytechnic Institutes, Higher Normal Schools (*Escolas Normais Superiores*) and other similar establishments. Promoting vocational training, the courses provided by the Polytechnic Institutes and the Higher Normal Schools, lasting 3 years, lead to a Bachelor's degree and are designed to offer the conditions needed for certain professional occupations. The universities would be allowed to award Licentiate degrees. The Polytechnic Institutes, besides training technicians, also trained teachers for the Unified Secondary Education system, giving them a bachelor's degree which would subsequently be completed with an academic-pedagogic licentiate course in a university.

The Higher Normal Schools trained teachers for Preparatory Education, and could be attended by students holding a Secondary Education Complementary Course diploma, or who had taken the Primary Teaching course, and by students who had completed the first two years of Kindergarten Teacher training or Primary Teacher training. The changes brought by the 25th April 1974 meant that Decree-Law no. 5/73 was never implemented, leaving a gap that would be worsened later when middle-level technical education was abolished.

With the application of Decree-Laws nos 830/74, of 31st December, 316/76, of 29th April, and 327/76, of 6th May, middle-level technical training vanished, turning the former middle education into higher education. But the gap left by its abolition was never filled, leaving the country without any suitable training for the technicians needed for many socio-economic activities. The conversion failed to correct these flaws, since it merely altered the old study curricula, bringing them closer to a university education in terms of theory instruction, but not taking so long to complete. No care was taken to look at the relation between the country's actual needs and the number of graduates to be trained by the schools and institutes created by those decree-laws. The outcome was an imbalance whose social and economic repercussions have been incalculable.

There was an urgent need to establish purely practical higher education colleges designed to produce qualified technicians at an upper-intermediate level who could meet the nation's requirements. It was also imperative to produce properly qualified kindergarten and primary teachers, since, in a free and democratic society, these teachers would have new demands made on them that the existing schools could not satisfy, even though they had been modernised (though not as successfully as wished).

The extending of compulsory education and the new demands arising from social and scientific development required that a higher education be provided. And so, to plug this gap, Short-term Higher Education²⁶ was established by Decree-Law in 1977, which supplied a way to overcome the abolition of the middle-level technical courses. The objective behind their creation was to diversify Higher Education and meet requirements in various socio-economic sectors by training technicians qualified in areas where there was a glaring need for them, such as agriculture, livestock and vegetable production, industrial technology, health and in services, such as education.

The same decree established that Short-term Higher Education would be implemented in regional establishments, to be called Higher Technical Schools (*Escolas Superiores Técnicas*)²⁷ and Schools of Education (*Escolas Superiores de Educação*)²⁸. The existing institutes and the Normal Schools for training kindergarten and primary school teachers would be converted into Schools of Education. The courses would last between 4 and 6 semesters, established and organised according to national and regional requirements, with the aim of tackling the lack of qualified technicians and teachers. Involving a strong practical component, these schools aimed at a swift insertion into working life. The Schools of Education gave specialist diplomas in Kindergarten and Primary School Teaching.

²⁶ Decree-Law no. 427-B/77, de 14th October.

²⁷ The Higher Technical Schools were meant to offer predominantly technical education, training qualified technicians for industry, agriculture, livestock and forestry production, health and services, in addition to refresher and booster courses.

²⁸ Schools of Education were meant to train Kindergarten and Primary Education teachers and to provide such teachers with in-service training support.

They also ran booster and refresher courses, and carried out research with a view to fostering the development of existing socio-economic activities²⁹.

But these short-term courses were destined to have a very short life: Decree-Law no. 513-T/79, of 26 December put an end to their existence. In their place came the Polytechnic Education system, whose aim was to give the country the professionals it needed for development, and which it lacked.

Higher Education thus came to have a double function, with Polytechnic Education having a clearly vocational emphasis and University education being more conceptual and theoretical, in an effort to embody diversification in Higher Education that is adapted to the socio-economic structure to which it belongs.

This law entrusts the Polytechnic Education system with "training kindergarten, primary and preparatory teachers and technicians qualified in the domains of industrial technology, agriculture, livestock production and forestry, health and the services, with this training being given by Schools of Education and higher technical Schools, respectively"³⁰, while the Schools of Education shall also provide in-service and refresher courses and recycle education professionals. The Schools of Education should also train teachers up to the 6th year of basic education, as well as primary teachers, thereby adapting current teachers. The Higher Normal Schools for Kindergarten Teachers and Primary Teacher Training would be defunct, since the Schools of Education would take their place.

The Schools of Education would be set up throughout the country, one per district capital³¹, in accordance with local needs for this kind of professional. Besides these, Higher Technical Schools would also be created and distributed around the country, according to the circumstances and requirements of each region. These schools would be grouped into Polytechnic Institutes³². It was in the wake of this law that the Schools of Education of Leiria was founded, in 1980³³. But the law does not provide for the creation of a Polytechnic Institute in Leiria³⁴.

In 1985, Decree-Law no. 46/85, of 22nd November, was aware that Polytechnic Education had to expand its Technology and Management areas. In response to these needs, therefore, a number of Schools of Management were set up around the country. The law also established that there should be 14 Polytechnic Institutes in Portugal, of which the Polytechnic Institute of Leiria is one.

In 1986, the pressing need to establish a framework of activities for the Higher Education Schools, whose main aim was the initial training of Basic Education teachers, led the government to legislate on the organisation and functioning of these courses³⁵, which would last for 6 semesters, followed by one year of induction.

In the same year, Portaria no. 351, of 8th July, establishes the general framework for the Schools of Education with respect to the initial training of teachers. They could offer initial training courses for Kindergarten, Primary Education and Basic Education Teachers³⁶. These courses led to the award of Bachelor's degree for the first two and a diploma in Basic Education Teacher in the respective branch, for the last category.

Higher Education, as an inherent part of the education system, is also covered by the Basic Education Law³⁷. This law establishes that Higher Education includes University and Polytechnic Education, aiming to train graduates in various areas of knowledge, rendering them capable of taking up professional positions, and so taking an active part in Portugal's development. This level of education also aims, according to the LBSE, to stimulate research and development work, to provide a better understanding of the environment and, at the same time, to disseminate this knowledge.

²⁹ Dora Escada Ladeira da Cruz, *Formar no Distrito de Leiria - Que Desenvolvimento?*, Edição da Autora, Leiria, 1995.

³⁰ Decree-Law no. 513-T/79, no. 2.

³¹ The districts of Aveiro, Braga and Évora did not get new colleges.

³² Decree-Law no. 513-T/79 created Polytechnic Institutes in Beja, Bragança, Castelo Branco, Coimbra, Faro, Lisbon, Porto, Santarém, Setúbal and Viseu.

³³ Decree-Law no. 513-T/79, Article 18.

³⁴ Higher Education in Leiria is dealt with elsewhere in this work.

³⁵ Decree-Law no. 59/86, of 21st March.

³⁶ Basic Education Teacher training courses offer: Portuguese, History and Social Sciences, Portuguese and French, Portuguese and English, Mathematics and Natural Sciences, Visual Education, Music, Physical Education and Handicrafts.

³⁷ Law no. 46/86, Article 11.



A clear division is also established between university and polytechnic education. The first “aims to provide a solid academic and cultural background and give technical training that qualifies for professional and cultural activities and encourages the development of conception, innovation and critical analysis capacities”³⁸, while the second “aims to provide a solid cultural and technical training at a higher level, developing the capacity for innovation and critical analysis, and offering academic knowledge of a theoretical and practical nature, and its application in relation to the exercise of professional activities”³⁹.

At first, under the LBSE⁴⁰, Polytechnic Education could only confer a Bachelor’s degree. To earn a Licentiate degree, students would have to pursue Specialised Higher Studies, for which the Bachelor’s degree was a precondition. The award of licentiate degrees by Polytechnic Institutes thus followed a two-stage process. But Decree-Law no. 115/97, of 19th September, which contains amendments to the Basic Education Law, states that the Polytechnic Institutes may, through their schools, award the Licentiate degree. Polytechnic Education is carried out in specialist colleges in the spheres of technology, arts and education, among others.

Law no. 54/90 of 5th October, which sets forth the Statutes and Autonomy of Polytechnic Education Establishments, repealing all previous legislation relating to Polytechnic Education, regards Polytechnic Institutes as comprising two or more schools involved in Polytechnic Education in a region, in a concerted effort to optimise resources. Its Article 2 establishes that those schools are higher-level centres of cultural and technical

³⁸ Law no. 46/86, Article 11, no. 3.

³⁹ Law no. 46/86, Article 11, no. 4.

⁴⁰ Law no. 46/86, without the amendments introduced by Decree-Law no. 115/97, of 19 September.

training which may provide appropriate courses leading the exercise of qualified professional activities, aiming to promote the development of the regions to which they belong.

The schools are empowered to run courses leading to the award of a Bachelor's degree and a diploma in Specialised Higher Studies, and to hold short, but accredited, courses. These schools have a legal personality, and enjoy academic, pedagogic, administrative and financial autonomy. Among their specific goals are the initial training, continuous training and refresher courses, supporting regional development and research⁴¹.



⁴¹ Law no. 46/86.

Polytechnic Education in Leiria

The birth of Polytechnic Education in the district of Leiria dates back to 1979, with the creation of School Education in Leiria⁴² to train kindergarten teachers. But the Decree-Law does not establish a Polytechnic Institute in Leiria, and so, by creating only the School of Education, higher education was restricted to teacher training. Nonetheless, the district still needed qualified technical professionals, given the growing economic and industrial development of the district. This situation was dealt with the following year by Decree-Law no. 303/80, of 16th August. The Polytechnic Institute of Leiria (Instituto Politécnico de Leiria - IPL) which started its activities on 20th April 1987, when its first Installation Committee took place. This institution was primarily destined to meet local/regional needs and coincided fully with the spirit that governed the creation of Polytechnic Education. Today there are around 10,000 students enrolled in its various Schools: the School of Education (ESEL) and the School of Technology and Management (ESTG), in Leiria, School of Fine Arts and Design (ESAD), in Caldas da Rainha, School of Maritime Technology (ESTM), in Peniche and the School of Health Sciences also in Leiria. Around 40 courses are taught in these schools leading to the award of the Bachelor's or Licentiate degree, specialisation courses, and further training and postgraduate courses that may or may not lead to a degree. The IPL is a Higher Education institution of national standing with a strong influence in its region: the region of Leiria, the West and Estremadura.

⁴² Decree-Law no. 513-T/79, of 26th December.



In 1985, given the country's need for qualified professionals to work in Technology and Management, Decree-Law no. 46/85 of 22nd November established a number of Schools of Technology and Management all around the country. It was in this context that the School of Technology and Management (ESTG) was founded. This school and the School of Education were the first ones to be incorporated into the Polytechnic Institute of Leiria. The ESTG started its activities in the 1989/90 academic year, and is currently the largest Higher School in Leiria, with over 4,000 students attending around 14 courses. It offers engineering courses that seek to meet market needs of a region that is growing and evolving. Besides the engineering courses, the ESTG has preparatory courses in such areas as Commerce and Marketing, Accounting and Finance, Management and Public Administration, Business Management and Solicitorship.





Caldas da Rainha, a town more linked to the arts thanks to its cultural and artistic heritage in the domains of painting, sculpture and pottery, welcomed a school that fitted in with this setting when the School of Fine Arts and Design was set up there⁴³. It started activity in 1990/91, with the first bachelor's courses starting in Industrial Design, Technology Design for Ceramics and Plastic Arts, aimed at improving quality and competitiveness and providing the skilled technicians that the ceramics industry lacked, especially in the area of Design and Arts. In 1994, it was called the School of Technology, Management, Art and Design (Escola Superior de Tecnologia, Gestão, Arte e Design). In 2003, however, its name was again changed to the one it enjoys today - School of Fine Art and Design (ESAD). This change made it possible to adjust the courses on offer, while remaining loyal to the principles and goals that led to its foundation. In 2002/03 it took another step by creating two courses, Sound and Image, and Cultural Animation, showing that the IPL believes in education in the arts, adding to the scarce vocational resources in this area.

The School of Maritime Technology was established in Peniche in 1999/2000. A scientific school that focuses its attention on the sea. The courses taught were Industrial and Naval Engineering and Tourist Management and Catering. More courses were offered the following year, with the creation of Marine Biology and Biotechnology and Tourism and the Sea courses and, in 2002/2003, the Biological and Food Engineering course was created. Given the kind of courses it offers, the ESTM is closely linked to its environment, paying attention to local problems and trying to discuss and resolve them in a commitment to developing the locality.

The School of Health Sciences of Leiria⁴⁴ (Escola Superior de Saúde de Leiria), despite being one of the first higher education schools in Leiria, was the last to become part of the IPL. Established in 1973 under the name of the School of Nursing (Escola Superior de Enfermagem de Leiria), it functioned for several years in temporary premises that were inadequate for its needs. It moved in 1993 to new premises that were better suited to the courses it taught. It currently offers a Licentiate degree in nursing, complementary training courses for qualified nurses (with a bachelor's degree) and other specialist training. The change of name allowed the school to widen the scope of its training.

⁴³ Decree-Law no. 45/88, of 14th December.

⁴⁴ Portaria no. 207/2005, of 22 February converted the Leiria College of Nursing into the Leiria Health College.

The School of Education of Leiria

On 17th November 1980, the School of Education (Escola Superior de Educação – ESE) in Leiria initiated its activity when its first Installation Committee took office. Its teaching activities commenced in 1985/86, with the in-service training of teachers and, in the following year it began the training of basic education and kindergarten teachers.

In 1987 the School of Education joined the Polytechnic Institute of Leiria. In the same year, a campus of the school was set up in Caldas da Rainha, but this is now extinct.

Established in 1979 to train teachers, the ESE presently offers a variety of courses, exceeding the training goals originally programmed. In addition to the kindergarten and 1st cycle basic education teacher training courses, the school also provides courses in 2nd cycle basic education teacher training⁴⁵, Human Relations and Communication in the Workplace, Tourism, Social Communication and Multimedia Education, Social Service and Social Education and Community Development. But ESE's activity extends beyond initial training. When the notion of continuing training and the need for it was finally accepted, ESE invested (and continues to invest) in Complementary Training and Qualification courses for people already working, so as to keep them up to date in academic and pedagogic terms. In addition, it also offers specialist courses in education related areas, postgraduate and masters courses in partnership with university institutions.

Although ESE has students from all over the country, Chart 1 shows that most of them come from the Leiria district, illustrating the wide influence that ESE and the Polytechnic Institute of Leiria have on the formation of young people in the region and for the region.

Among the students from the Leiria district, the great majority are from the Leiria municipality, as can be seen in Chart 2⁴⁶.

Chart 3 shows the evolution of students registered in ESEL in the academic years from 1999/2000 to 2003/2004⁴⁷. The growth observed is due to the creation of new courses, in particular in Social Communication and Multimedia Education and Social Service, since the 2nd cycle basic education teacher training course has been losing students lately.

Of the students who enrol in ESEL, we have noted a large increase in the number of females compared with males⁴⁸, as seen in Chart 4. Actually, only the 2nd cycle basic education teacher training course (Physical Education branch) has more men than women, and the numbers are closest in the music education branch.

Between the 1998/99 and 2002/2003 academic years, 1,104 students completed their studies here. As Chart 5 shows, more students completed courses after 2000/01, with the first students from some courses, like Tourism, finishing in that year.

⁴⁵ The 2nd Cycle Basic Education Teacher Training Course has branches in: Music; Visual Education and Technology; Physical Education; Portuguese/English, and Mathematics/Natural Sciences, but some of these have now closed.

⁴⁶ Students from the municipality of Ourém are included in this analysis since, being so close to Leiria, they are in the IPL catchment area.

⁴⁷ The data collected only go up to the end of the 2003/04 academic year, and so the recently-created Social Education and Community Development course is not included.

⁴⁸ This situation is by and large applicable to Higher Education in general.

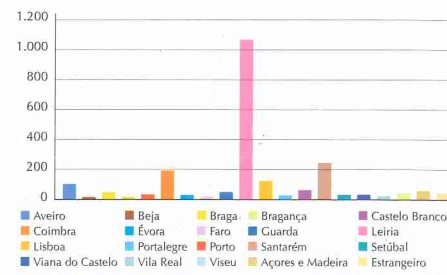


Chart 1 - Students geographical distribution (from the School of Education)

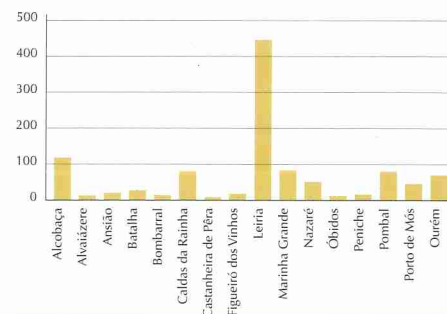


Chart 2 - STUDENTS FROM THE LEIRIA DISTRICT

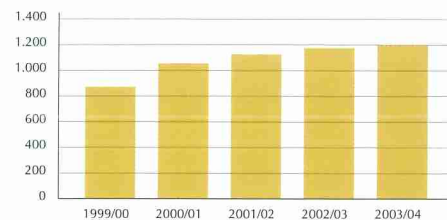


Chart 3 - STUDENTS ATTENDING COURSES IN THE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION entre os anos lectivos de 1999/00 E 2003/04

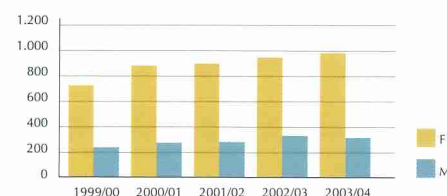


Chart 4 - SEX STUDENTS DISTRIBUTION IN THE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

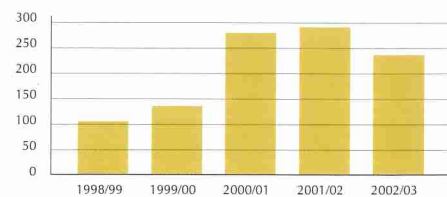


Chart 5 - STUDENTS CONCLUDED COURSES IN THE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION (1998-2003)

Source - Academic Services in the School of Education

IN CONCLUSION ...

We feel that the path taken by the Leiria region has led us to some final thoughts that may be an obvious reading of cause-and-effect relations. The interdisciplinarity of our times affords a convergence of information and analysis that has been raising a whole series of questions, rather than certainties. The complexity of our social situation accurately conveys this "concern" to know more, to be aware that we are looking at a partially-beaten path.

Leiria's geographic setting soon made it a strategic area that was involved in constructing the Portuguese State. The natural conditions it enjoyed attracted people, and caused them to settle here after periods disturbed by war, and they became established and took advantage of what the Earth provided for them. Given the natural resources, religious orders settled down here. They made the Earth productive and people stayed on. They took part in the socio-economic development of a large part of the region. Time passed and the nation's history was built up. The region was also the arena where major decisions on the construction of the modern State were taken.

History definitely gave it a presence in the economic life of the country, when it became an area of investment in the new industrialising concept, as practised by the Marquês de Pombal. Marinha Grande largely initiated a tradition that has survived to the present day. The initiatives taken by the state or by private individuals, of a greater or lesser dimension, left wisdom and will that have shaped generations. But in the second half of the 18th century the national and European situation were to dictate that this entire project of innovation should cease.

The 19th century was born and did not seem auspicious for the region, with the first period of major hardship occurring in 1811, in the wake of the destruction left behind by the French troops. A series of measures was taken locally, against the backdrop of political instability that persisted at least until 1836. Lacking meaningful capital, the economy fell apart, there was little innovation, but there was some determination. To paraphrase Damião Peres, a historian who cast a gloomy eye over the global economy of the country in the second half of the 19th century and the early years of the next one, we can see that, in the Leiria region "economic progress, albeit slow, was perceptible".

With the dawn of the 20th century there was a distinctive change which had been in preparation here since the 1870s, in the industrial sector. Wood had a truly important role in the industrialisation process of this economic area. The firewood gathered in the Leiria Pine Woods had already been important in the choice of Marinha Grande as the site for the first glass-making factories. It justified the establishment of important industries, as a raw material. As a source of energy, it was near at hand and cheap. It was the business basis of the State relative to the Royal Glass Factory and helped to create and maintain most of the local factories and workshops.

Alongside this, a workforce conditioned by the size of the undertakings was trained. Marinha Grande and Alcobaça, were at the forefront of this process with the glass and textile sectors. Their intervention was so hesitant and discreet that, apart from being accounted for in official statistics, their existence was only noticed when they went through periods of particular hardship. We have always been aware of them, but closeness has not often been proportionate. The strong ties to farming, having several activities, the barriers that hampered a systematic division of labour, the corporate leftovers that remained as a basis for hierarchising the workers

all explain the sluggish pace of change in the working world. In spite of all this, they grew in number, keeping up with the rate of creation of factories. But it still became another indicator of industrial growth for this region.

Starting with structural failings, like those felt throughout the country, the Leiria economy was finding its own shape by reacting and overcoming what tradition was sustaining and mentalities were prolonging. It did so quite successfully, as can be easily seen today. As in the rest of the country, progress was slow, and good results were achieved, but they were late in coming. Capital and infrastructure arrived just too late to allow a clearer leap of better quality to be made. It did not happen in the Leiria region, just as it failed to happen nationally.

The industrialisation of the Leiria region was a slow process, and there were no drastic breaches with the past. But it was not a static phenomenon: it exhibited a controlled energy, depending on the time and place, in relation to the introduction of new branches and some technology, the creation of geographic and demographic concentration, the search for financial strategies to acquire capital, the selection of the most capable entrepreneurial leaders.

The language of the maps confronts us with the legibility of a situation that did not always respect the criteria conducive to meeting the closeness felt by the people in their everyday lives. The diverse origins and taking of decisions are perfectly mapped in the area we are looking at. The worrying aging of the population in the hinterland of the Leiria district, plus the inevitable desertification, faces us with scenarios which have, over the years, known other rhythms, other ways whereby Man related with the Earth. Replacement initiatives that could motivate and keep new generations did not keep pace with the decline of the primary sector.

Economic circumstances in the closing decades of the 20th century simply entrenched the need to leave. To go abroad, to go to the city, but to leave. At the same time, the crisis suffered by industry, worse in various sectors at various times, just allowed the jobless to be counted.

At the same time, the region was enhancing itself by creating educational structures compatible with the growing need to qualify workers for the different sectors of the economy. The answer found, arising from the interests of the region and leading to training in higher education, was the creation of the Polytechnic Institute. The installation of training institutions that match the expectations of the younger members of society has been accomplished with some skill.

The socio-economic metamorphoses observed in the Leiria region have been subject to the same rhythm nationally, as we know. We have the closest knowledge of the deprivation arising from being in the interior, with accessibility being the most conspicuous. The layout of the roads, with special reference to the A1 and A8, make it easier to understand the direction of the evolution that Earth and Man have helped to build on the coastal belt.

And finally, we must say that today we are more convinced than ever that this has been a small contribution to the knowledge of the region. There is plenty more to investigate, a lot more curiosity to be satisfied.

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APPENDICES

YEARS	REGION TOTAL (a)	COUNTRY TOTAL (b)	PERCENTAGE (a/b X 100)
1527	33.608	1.122.000	3,0
1864	194.858	4.286.995	4,5
1878	217.195	4.698.984	4,6
1890	242.527	5.102.891	4,8
1900	268.197	5.446.760	4,9
1911	299.676	5.999.146	5,0
1920	314.697	6.080.135	5,2
1930	344.118	6.802.429	5,1
1940	398.765	7.755.423	5,1
1950	442.316	8.510.240	5,2
1960	452.011	8.889.392	5,1
1970	419.685	8.663.252	4,8
1981	461.605	9.833.014	4,7
1991	466.337	9.867.147	4,7
2001	505.642	10.356.117	4,9

Table II - INHABITANTS' OF LEIRIA REGION (1527-2001)

Source - Elaborated, according to the GALEGO and DAVEAU (1986) and INE information (1986) e INE (1964; 1970a, 1981, 1991 and 2002a)

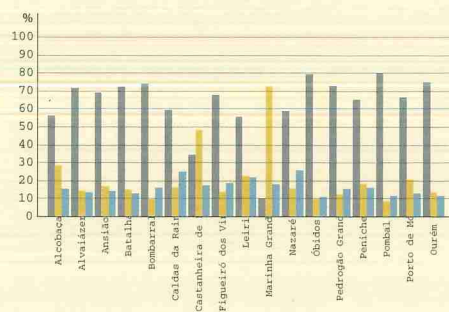


Fig. 31 ACTIVE POPULATION LEIRIA REGION, BY MUNICIPALITY AND SECTOR OF ACTIVITY (1950)

Source- INE (1950).

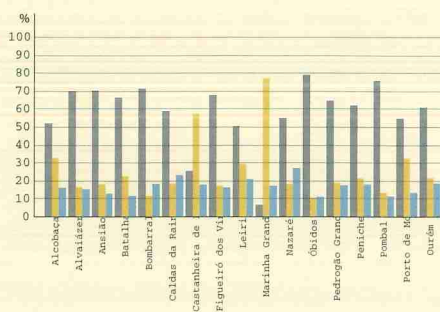


Fig. 32 ACTIVE POPULATION LEIRIA REGION, BY MUNICIPALITY AND SECTOR OF ACTIVITY (1960)

Source- INE (1960).

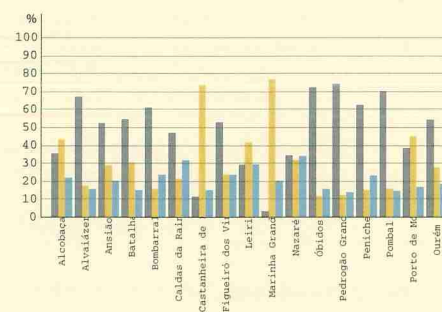


Fig. 33 ACTIVE POPULATION LEIRIA REGION, BY MUNICIPALITY AND SECTOR OF ACTIVITY (1970)

Source- INE (1970).

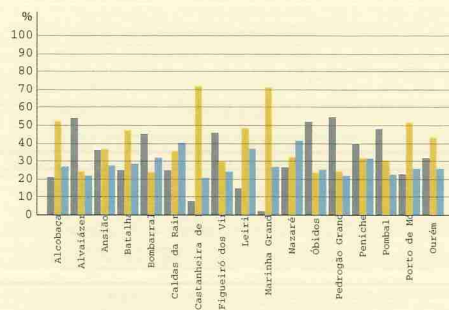


Fig. 34 ACTIVE POPULATION LEIRIA REGION, BY MUNICIPALITY AND SECTOR OF ACTIVITY (1970)

Source- INE (1981).

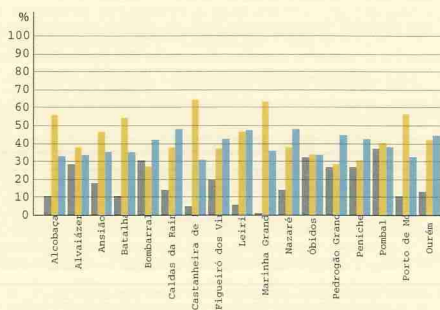


Fig. 35 ACTIVE POPULATION LEIRIA REGION, BY MUNICIPALITY AND SECTOR OF ACTIVITY (1970)

Source- INE (1991).

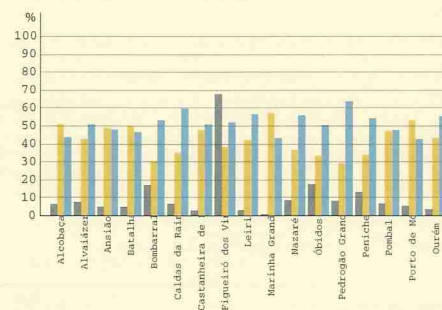
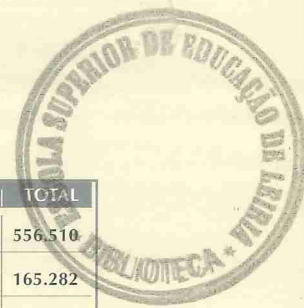


Fig. 36 ACTIVE POPULATION LEIRIA REGION, BY MUNICIPALITY AND SECTOR OF ACTIVITY (1970)

Source- INE (2000a).

■ Primário ■ Secundário ■ Terciário



MUNICIPALITIES	1864	1878	1890	1900	1911	1920	1930	1940	1950	1960	1970	1981	1991	2001	TOTAL
Alcobaça	21.217	23.271	26.140	28.969	33.023	34.583	38.462	43.518	47.905	50.027	47.290	52.347	54.382	55.376	556.510
Alvaiázere	9.802	10.477	10.675	11.936	12.870	13.098	13.290	15.047	14.950	13.583	11.300	10.510	9.306	8.438	165.282
Ansião	12.177	13.096	12.961	13.562	14.601	14.832	15.543	17.391	18.309	17.268	14.900	15.446	14.029	13.719	207.834
Batalha	5.082	6.134	6.634	7.107	7.817	8.350	9.643	11.220	12.817	13.811	11.755	12588	13.329	15.002	141.289
Bombarral	4.730	5.882	7.706	9.024	9.796	11.206	12.669	14.535	15.413	15.209	13.745	13.758	12.727	13.324	159.724
Caldas da Rainha	13.591	15.305	18.889	20.971	24.516	26.027	29.207	33.523	37.165	37.430	35.585	41.018	43.205	48.846	425.278
Castanheira de Pêra	3.972	4.999	5.959	6.213	6.523	5.839	6.116	6.411	6.330	5.739	4.660	5.137	4.442	3.733	76.073
Figueiró dos Vinhos	8.040	9.044	9.127	9.702	10.630	10.686	10.699	12.031	12.300	11.545	8.960	8.754	8.012	7.352	136.882
Leiria	32.252	35.402	41.606	44.811	48.447	51.101	55.234	67.313	77.567	82.988	78.950	96.517	102.762	119.847	934.797
Marinha Grande	6.055	7.469	8.606	9.611	10.677	10.995	11.888	14.708	17.663	20.483	23.350	31.284	32.234	35.571	240.594
Nazaré	5.579	6.512	7.583	8.393	10.341	10.323	10.406	11.614	13.248	13.511	13.260	15.436	15.313	15.060	156.579
Óbidos	6.166	6.541	7.977	8.635	9.467	9.584	9.877	10.799	11.716	11.316	9.465	10.538	11.188	10.875	134.144
Pedrógão Grande	6.230	6.597	7.333	7.944	8.561	8.541	8.877	9.250	8.955	8.239	4.985	5.842	4.643	4.398	100.395
Peniche	6.324	6.775	7.668	8.199	9.692	12.565	16.019	18.009	21.203	22.200	21.555	25.627	25.880	27.315	229.031
Pombal	2.6366	28.888	29.369	34.840	38.596	41.094	45.358	53.850	59.925	59.931	56.890	53.727	51.357	56.299	636.490
Porto de Mós	9.883	10.860	11.834	12.554	14.533	14.604	16.296	18.796	20.524	21.220	20.290	21.700	23.343	24.271	240.708
Ourém	17.392	19.943	22.460	25.726	29.586	31.269	34.534	40.750	46.326	47.511	42.745	41.376	40.185	46.216	486.019
Total	194.858	217.195	242.527	268.197	299.676	314.697	344.118	398.765	442.316	452.011	419.685	461.605	466.337	505.642	-

Table I - INHABITANTS' OF LEIRIA REGION, by municipality (1864)

Source - Elaborated, according to INE information (1964;1970; 1981; 1991 and 2002)

MUNICIPALITIES	1864	1878	1890	1900	1911	1920	1930	1940	1950	1960	1970	1981	1991	2001
Alcobaça	52.9	58	65.2	72.2	82.4	86.3	95.9	108.5	119.5	124.8	116.2	128.7	133.7	139.5
Alvaiázere	61.8	66	67.3	75.2	81.1	82.6	83.8	91.8	91.2	85.6	70.4	65.5	58	52.5
Ansião	71.3	76.7	75.9	79.4	85.5	86.8	91	101.8	107.2	101.1	84.6	87.7	79.6	78
Batalha	44.7	54	58.4	62.5	68.8	73.5	84.7	98.7	112.7	121.5	114.3	122.5	129.7	147.5
Bombarral	52.1	64.8	84.9	99.4	107.9	123.4	139.6	160.1	169.8	167.5	149.9	150.0	138.8	145.2
Caldas da Rainha	54	60.8	75.1	83.3	97.4	103.4	116.1	133.2	147.7	148.7	139.0	160.2	168.8	191.9
Castanheira de Pêra	58.5	73.6	87.8	91.5	96.1	86	90.1	94.4	93.3	84.5	69.8	76.9	66.5	55.4
Figueiró dos Vinhos	43.7	49.2	49.7	52.8	57.8	58.1	58.2	65.5	66.9	62.8	51.6	50.4	46.2	42.2
Leiria	58.7	64.5	75.8	81.6	88.2	93	100.6	122.6	141.2	151.1	138.9	169.8	180.8	213.9
Marinha Grande	32.4	39.9	46	51.4	57.1	58.8	63.6	78.6	94.4	109.5	125.9	168.7	173.9	185.7
Nazaré	58.6	68.4	79.7	88.2	108.6	108.4	109.3	122	139.2	141.9	160.7	187.1	185.6	182
Óbidos	42.2	41.8	51.6	59.1	64.8	65.6	67.7	74	80.2	77.5	66.5	74.0	78.6	76.1
Pedrógão Grande	48.4	51.2	56.9	61.7	66.5	66.3	68.9	71.8	69.5	64.0	38.7	45.4	36	34.2
Peniche	85.7	91.9	104	111.2	131.4	170.3	217.2	244.2	287.5	301	277.4	329.8	333.1	351
Pombal	41.1	45.1	45.8	54.4	60.2	64.1	70.8	84	93.5	93.5	90.9	85.9	82.1	91
Porto de Mós	37.6	41.3	45	47.7	55.2	55.5	61.9	71.4	78	80.7	76.8	82.1	88.3	92.2
Ourém	41.3	47.3	53.3	61	70.2	74.1	81.9	96.6	109.9	112.7	102.7	99.4	96.6	111.8

Table III - POPULATION DENSITY OF THE CUMMUNES THAT COMPOSE THE REGION OF LEIRIA (1864-2001)

Source - Elaborated, according to INE information (1964; 1970a, 1981, 1991 and 2002a) and INE Infoline (www.ine.pt).



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