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CHAPTER 3

BRAZILIAN FOREIGN
POLICY: CAUSAL
BELIEFS IN
FORMULATION AND
PRAGMATISM IN
PRACTICE

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INTRODUCTION

In general terms, Brazilian foreign policy has been marked by continuity. Behind this continuity lie a number of long-held beliefs that have influenced its evolution: the importance of autonomy, universalist action, and destiny, the idea that the country will one day come to occupy a place of greater distinction in international politics ("the destiny of grandeur"). These beliefs can be clearly identified as long-term aims and are rooted in a structured diplomatic corporation.¹ The means available to achieve these objectives, as will be seen, are not constant, but rather vary according to the specific historical and political context.

The strong tendency toward centralization in the formulation of Brazilian foreign-policy in Itamaraty (the Brazilian Foreign Office) contributed to more stable policies and behavior based on longer-term principles. Indeed, some authors use the organizational behavior model in order to analyze the history and behavior of Brazilian diplomacy.² This concentration makes foreign policy less vulnerable to the direct interference of domestic policy.

1 These beliefs, however, do not necessarily provide a basis for actions
2 based on ideology. On the contrary, in the Brazilian case in general,
3 they orient the organization of behavior, which is in turn inspired by
4 clearly realistic premises of a pragmatic nature. As Pinheiro highlights,
5 within the framework of realism, Brazilian behavior at times assumes a
6 Hobbesian character as a matter of priority, in which a relative increase
7 in power is sought vis-à-vis others, while at other times preference is
8 given to realism of a Grotian nature, emphasizing initiatives that bring
9 absolute gains but may also bring benefits to other states.³ Brazil has fre-
10 quently adopted multifaceted ways of behavior in terms of international
11 policy, seeking to simultaneously benefit from the possibilities of the
12 international system, and also assume a position of leadership, especially
13 of southern hemisphere countries.

14 Nonetheless, change is found alongside continuity. There are alterna-
15 tives regarding the strategy to be adopted based on the tension between a
16 preference for more autonomous action, on the one hand, and the role of
17 leadership of initiatives concerning Southern hemisphere nations, on the
18 other. Both are defined in terms of the international context, the strategy
19 of national development, and certain calculations of foreign-policy
20 experts that vary according to their political vision and their perception
21 of what constitutes the national interest, the international situation, and
22 other more specific variables. In this case, elements of realist pragmatism
23 are found but are occasionally combined with elements of an ideological
24 nature on the part of those formulating policy.

25 In leadership terms, during the administrations of Fernando Henrique
26 Cardoso (1995–2002) and Luiz Inacio Lula da Silva (2003–2010), the
27 above-mentioned principles and the weighting given to pragmatism were
28 consistent, but operated in different contexts and scenarios. However, in
29 general terms, the particular worldview of Lula allowed the features of
30 what is here understood by ideology to be more evident.

31 The aim of this chapter is to analyze Brazilian foreign policy under the
32 administrations of Fernando Henrique Cardoso and Lula da Silva. Two
33 specific variables are taken into account: on the one hand, the degrees
34 of continuity and change between the two administrations and, on the
35 other, the greater or lesser presence of elements inherent in ideology and
36 pragmatism in the formulation and implementation of foreign policy.
37 The first part of the chapter examines traditional beliefs underlying
38 foreign policy (and indeed aspects of domestic policy), which represent
39 what can be termed a “Brazilian ideology.” The second part analyzes
40 different understandings of, and approaches to, foreign policy in Brazil
41 over the past ten years. The third section examines the characteristics of
42 foreign policy implemented under the Cardoso and Lula governments,

1 especially with regard to relations with South America, while the conclu-
2 sion examines trends in continuity and change over this period in terms
3 of ideology and pragmatism.
4

5
6 **UNDERLYING BELIEFS OF**
7 **BRAZILIAN FOREIGN POLICY**

8 The influence of beliefs in Brazilian foreign policy is highly relevant to the
9 debate on pragmatism and ideology. According to Vigevani, Ramanzini
10 Jr., Favaron, and Correia (2008),⁴ Brazil's position on many issues should
11 be seen in light of constitutive factors of foreign policy, rooted in the very
12 nature of Brazilian society and state: namely, autonomy and universalism.
13 Universalism involves a willingness to maintain relations with all coun-
14 tries, regardless of geographical location, type of regime, or economic con-
15 cerns, as well as an independence of action in relation to global powers.
16 Autonomy is defined as the freedom of manoeuvre that a country has in
17 its relations with other states and in its participation in international poli-
18 tics, and is reflected in the historical tendency of Brazilian foreign policy
19 to avoid agreements that may come to limit future alternatives.

20 Underlying the ideas of universalism and autonomy is a historical
21 belief within Brazilian society and among foreign-policy makers of Brazil's
22 destiny. Indeed, since the beginning of the twentieth century, allusions in
23 speeches and publications to the grandeur of Brazil's future are common,
24 contributing to the belief that Brazil should occupy a "special place" on
25 the international scene in politico-strategic terms. At the beginning of
26 the twentieth century, the foreign minister Barão do Rio Branco high-
27 lighted the "similarities" between Brazil and the United States in terms of
28 territory, ethnicity, cultural diversity, as well as its geopolitical position,
29 all of which made it the natural "counterpart" of the United States in
30 Latin America.⁵ In 1926 and in 1945, Brazilian diplomacy made a bid
31 for a permanent seat on the League of Nations/United Nations Security
32 Council, while in the early 1970s, the ex-foreign minister Araújo Castro
33 stated that "few countries in the world have Brazil's potential for diplo-
34 matic reach" and "no country can escape its destiny and, for good or ill,
35 **Brazil is condemned to grandeur.**"⁶ Indeed, this issue has returned to the
36 foreign-policy agenda in the new millennium.

37 Based on these beliefs in its own role and destiny, Brazilian diplomacy
38 has structured its behavior emphasizing policy initiatives with a view
39 to increasing its power on the international scene. As a result, during
40 the 1970s, Brazilian foreign policy became known as "Responsible and
41 Ecumenical Pragmatism," a policy that condensed the above-mentioned
42 ideas of autonomy, universalism, and a destiny of grandeur.

1 **DIVERGENCE IN POLITICAL PERCEPTIONS**
2 **AND STRATEGIES SINCE THE 1990S**

3 The predominance for many years of a paradigm based on the beliefs of
4 autonomy and universalism in Itamaraty gave rise to a convergence and
5 consistency of thinking in Brazilian diplomacy, as well as the presence of
6 important traits of continuity in foreign policy.

7 However, the arrival of Collor de Mello to the presidency in 1990,
8 brought a new liberal-oriented policy, advocated by a minority in
9 Itamaraty, to the forefront of foreign-policy decision making. This pro-
10 posed that Brazilian diplomacy should leave aside the normative prin-
11 ciples outlined above and instead privilege relations with "First World"
12 countries in order to "join the club." This would involve abandoning
13 the discourse of solidarity with developing countries in favor of stronger
14 economic relations with the developed economies. Nevertheless, even
15 during the Collor government, the translation of these ideas into prac-
16 tice abroad was limited. While the attempt to impose such a change in
17 foreign policy did not translate into practice and did not survive much
18 beyond the impeachment of the president,⁷ it did give rise to a crisis of
19 paradigm within Itamaraty, leading to a division within the Brazilian
20 Foreign Office into two main lines of thinking—the autonomist and
21 the pragmatic institutionalist.⁸ Each influences—and struggles for influ-
22 ence in—foreign-policy making today with different views regarding the
23 beliefs outlined earlier.

24 On the one hand, the pragmatic institutionalist current holds a more
25 favorable view of economic liberalization, although without rejecting the
26 policy of industrialization (import substitution industrialization—ISI)
27 adopted in the developmentalist period. In political terms, pragmatic
28 institutionalists, without renouncing the causal beliefs of Brazilian foreign
29 policy such as autonomy, universalism, and a destiny of grandeur, place
30 greater emphasis on Brazil's support of international structures and insti-
31 tutions as a pragmatic way to advance the national agenda. They defend
32 the idea of Brazil's international insertion based on "autonomy through
33 integration," according to which global values must be defended by all.
34 Leadership in South America is sought and pursued discretely.⁹

35 On the other hand, the autonomist current hold a more tradi-
36 tional, nationalist, and developmentalist view, defending a model of
37 development based on the expansion of the infrastructure sectors and
38 an assertive industrial projection abroad. In terms of foreign policy,
39 autonomists defend a more assertive projection of Brazil abroad in terms
40 of leadership in North/South issues, Brazilian participation in the United
41 Nations Security Council, and Brazilian leadership in South America.
42

1 Priority is given to cooperation with southern countries, not through
2 notions of solidarity, but to advance Brazil's regional leadership and
3 hence global standing.

4 Lastly, a more ideologically oriented group, with roots in academic
5 and political groups, emerged during the Lula administration, establish-
6 ing an important dialogue with Itamaraty and exercising some influence
7 over foreign-policy decisions (above all in relation to South American
8 issues). This group prioritizes regional integration with South American
9 countries and, more specifically, within Mercosur, but through the
10 deepening of the process in political, social, and economic terms.¹⁰ For
11 integration to be successful, comparability is needed between values and
12 real common advantages, as well as a degree of common identity.

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15 **THE MAIN FEATURES OF FOREIGN POLICY IN**
16 **THE CARDOSO AND LULA GOVERNMENTS**

17 The emergence of competing orientations led to the emergence of dif-
18 ferent characteristics under the Cardoso and Lula da Silva governments,
19 and hence a break with the consistency of the past. While the most per-
20 manent principles underlying foreign policy were maintained, policy was
21 adapted to different contexts and situations.¹¹

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23
24 (1) 1995–2002: AUTONOMY THROUGH INTEGRATION

25 According to Cardoso's Chancellor, Luiz Felipe Lampreia:

26
27 "We are a great country, with traditions of growth and a long history of par-
28 ticipation, very often as a protagonist, in the construction of international
29 and regional relations. We are committed to international partnerships
30 which increase our presence in the world. . . . We are a "global trader"
31 and a "global player". . . . The pre-eminence on the international scene of
32 values dear to the Brazilian people, such as democracy, individual liberties
33 and respect for human rights and the evidence that . . . the world is com-
34 mitted to a process of growth in civilization . . ."¹²

35 "The strengthening of the pragmatic institutionalist line during the
36 first mandate of the Cardoso government resulted in the adoption of
37 the concept of "shared sovereignty," which differed from the classical
38 concept of sovereignty. This view perceived the world as marked by a
39 "concert" of nations with the same discourse defending universal values.
40 One of the conditions of maintaining this "concert" would be a greater
41 adaptability of the U.S. global leadership to both the demands of the
42

1 emerging powers, and the demands of medium-sized and small nations.¹³
2 This scenario would open spaces for Brazil—in search of mechanisms to
3 enlarge its capability for international action—to adopt a position that
4 meant neither alignment with the United States nor a free-rider posture.
5 This position would be oriented, first, by the perception of the existence
6 in the new scenario of variable alignments, and second, by the adhesion
7 to leading international regimes. It also meant a modification of the con-
8 cept of autonomy with the new idea of “autonomy through integration”
9 replacing previously established concepts of sovereignty, understood as
10 distancing or self-sufficiency.¹⁴

11 The pragmatic institutionalists identified the institutionalization of
12 international relations as favorable to Brazilian economic development,
13 since the rules of the international game would be followed by all coun-
14 tries, including the richest. Brazil’s position vis-à-vis the richest countries
15 should be simultaneously one of convergence in terms of values and one
16 of criticism of the distortions and inequalities of the existing international
17 order.¹⁵ Within this context, Brazil sought an active role in multilateral
18 forums, as a global player, bidding within the UN for a permanent seat
19 on the Security Council. In the area of international security, Brazil chose
20 to support those international regimes that were already in place.

21 At the same time, the government sought to play the role of “global
22 trader,” with participation in different arenas of trade negotiations, the
23 World Trade Organization (WTO) being the privileged forum, since it
24 favored Brazilian interests in terms of its dispute settlement mechanism.¹⁶
25 In relation to the European Union (EU), in 1995 Brazil promoted the
26 Interregional Framework Cooperation Agreement between the EU
27 and Mercosur that encompassed free trade, economic cooperation,
28 and political dialogue. However, despite common interests in terms of
29 political dialogue and common positions in international forums, strong
30 disagreements in terms of commerce hindered further progress.

31 With regard to political relations with other southern countries, the
32 rise of pragmatic institutionalists slowed progress as priority was given
33 to trade. In 1996, the Pretoria Agreement was signed and trade negotia-
34 tions were begun between Mercosur and South Africa, culminating in a
35 framework agreement signed in 2000. In addition, at the beginning of
36 the decade, China became the third largest importer of Brazilian exports.
37 Relations with Portugal and with the countries of the Community of
38 Portuguese Language Countries were also stimulated. Within the frame-
39 work of universalism, emphasis on interactions with new partners was
40 important.

41 In the Americas, Brazilian pragmatism was dominant over ideology in
42 policy formulation. Brazil clashed with the United States over issues of the

1 organization of international trade and of protectionism in industrialized
2 countries, as well as on issues relating to hemispheric integration. While
3 the U.S. government was eager to conclude the Free Trade Area of the
4 Americas (FTAA), the Brazilian government preferred to delay the process,
5 emphasizing subregional initiatives such as Mercosur. However, following
6 the low-profile line of the Itamar Franco administration, Brazilian diplo-
7 macy under Cardoso adopted what it labeled a "de-dramatization" of
8 U.S.-Brazilian relations, lowering the Brazilian profile, and seeking to
9 dispel the image of a Third-World opponent of the United States.¹⁷

10 In relation to neighboring countries, Brazilian diplomacy did not alter
11 its traditional and realist view of national sovereignty. On the contrary,
12 it was careful to avoid the possibility of integration leading to any shared
13 sovereignty in relation to its behavior with other foreign partners. Indeed,
14 the idea of autonomy was in fact reinforced. According to Pinheiro,¹⁸
15 in the case of Brazil's relations with neighboring countries, this desire
16 for autonomy "uses the [Grotian¹⁹] conception to satisfy its search for
17 power." Thus, Brazil's quest for its own sphere of influence regionally and
18 for a protagonistic role on the international stage came to the fore.

19 During Cardoso's second mandate, South American countries came to
20 be seen more clearly as important partners with a view to strengthening
21 Brazil's role as a global player, in the belief that the consolidation of the
22 integration process would strengthen Brazil's bargaining position in mul-
23 tilateral forums as a regional leader. Diplomacy then began a revision of
24 traditional Brazilian behavior in the region based on the principle of non-
25 intervention. It sought to build its leadership in the region on the twin
26 bases of security and democratic stability, establishing strong links with
27 neighboring countries and acting as a mediator in crisis situations when
28 called upon to do so. Acceptance of the idea of democracy as a universal
29 value contributed to the establishment of a consensus around the links
30 between democracy, regional integration, and perspectives of national
31 development.²⁰ In this way, without giving up principles of noninterven-
32 tion, it sought to include in its agenda the defense of democracy, and to
33 act accordingly in cases of crisis.

34 As a parallel strategy, construction of a South American Community
35 of Nations began, with the first meeting of South American countries
36 taking place in Brasília in 2000, where the main ideas discussed were eco-
37 nomic integration and the infrastructure of the region, and support for
38 democratic consolidation. With access to the energy resources of neigh-
39 boring countries a priority, Brazil sought to promote infrastructural inte-
40 gration projects, which opened the way for the formation of the Initiative
41 for the Integration of the Regional Infrastructure of South America
42 (IIRSA). On the domestic political front, however, there was resistance to

1 Brazil's involvement with initiatives that could divert domestic resources
2 to regional integration projects.

3 The pragmatic institutionalists saw Mercosur as a means of increasing
4 the country's economic power, thus prioritizing trade integration. It was
5 seen as important to preserve open regionalism so as not to prejudice
6 possible relations with other partners, and the institutionalization of the
7 block was not seen as necessary or even desirable. Moreover, the most
8 favored vision identified partnerships with industrialized countries as an
9 important element in stimulating Brazilian foreign trade and Mercosur
10 as a space in which to reduce the potentially damaging impact of overseas
11 economic opening. Despite frictions, Mercosur as a bloc conducted the
12 negotiations toward the formation of the FTAA and was able to develop
13 the dialogue previously established with the EU. Politically, Mercosur
14 was seen as a means of reinforcing Brazil's hand, giving it a greater
15 importance on the international stage.

16 The harmonization of relations with Argentina was an important
17 achievement for the universalist current of Brazilian foreign policy. On a
18 regional level, there were efforts to seek common positions with Argentina
19 in relation to issues that, until then, had not been agreed upon, as part of
20 a process of joint initiatives. The main cases involved common positions
21 in the Rio Group and the Organization of American States (OAS). Within
22 Mercosur, Brazilian and Argentine support for democracy was best reflected
23 in response to the political crisis experienced by the Paraguayan government
24 in 1996, which resulted in the democratic clause in Mercosur.

25 By the end of the Cardoso's administration, a number of steps had
26 been taken to increase Brazil's influence and standing on the international
27 scene. Yet autonomists criticized the pragmatic institutionalist preference
28 for moderation and action within the institutional framework of the
29 international order rather than adherence to the beliefs in autonomy,
30 universalism, and destiny of grandeur as the best way to guarantee the
31 success of long-term objectives.

32 33 (II) LULA, REGIONAL LEADERSHIP AND INTERNATIONAL ACTIVISM 34

35 The arrival of Luiz Ignacio da Silva Lula to the Brazilian Presidency rein-
36 vigorated the autonomist line of thought in international politics. The
37 rise of the autonomists diminished the conviction that Brazil's interests
38 were best guaranteed through international institutions, and instead
39 advocated a more active approach in favor of the interests of both Brazil
40 and other Southern countries.²¹ Lula's administration thus saw a shift
41 toward the primacy of beliefs in autonomy, universalism, and, above
42 all, in the view of increasing Brazil's presence in international politics.

1 Regional leadership and ascension toward a role as a global power was a
2 clear aim of Brazilian diplomacy in this period.

3 As a first step, the priority of Brazil's candidature to permanent
4 membership of the UN Security Council was reinforced. As credentials for its
5 candidature, Brazil chose to defend more distributive aspects of international
6 trade, and campaigned to tackle problems of hunger and poverty that would
7 affect international stability (the fight against terrorism was not assumed to
8 be a priority). However, the obstacles presented by the reform project in the
9 UN General Assembly of 2005 slowed the pace of this campaign.

10 In terms of trade, the government adopted an active policy to deal
11 with politico-strategic issues. It undertook a proactive policy in search of
12 markets, which resulted in an increase of exports and the Brazilian eco-
13 nomic surplus, as well as an active role in defense of Brazilian interests in
14 negotiations held in the WTO through joint action with other developing
15 countries. In his acceptance speech, President Lula stated that:

16
17 In relation to the FTAA, in negotiations between Mercosur, the European
18 Union and the World Trade Organization, Brazil will combat protection-
19 ism, fight for the elimination of subsidies and will undertake to obtain
20 trade rules which are more just and appropriate to our condition as a
21 developing country.²²

22
23 To this end, the G-20, composed of Southern nations including India,
24 China, and South Africa, became an important forum for Brazilian
25 diplomacy, linking progress in WTO negotiations to the inclusion of
26 issues such as agricultural subsidies in the discussion agenda.

27 Cooperation framework agreements were signed between Mercosur
28 and India, and with SACU (South African Customs Union) as well as
29 with the United States in terms of formative negotiations on the FTAA.
30 However, in the case of the FTAA, Itamaraty introduced a series of
31 proposed modifications that aimed to block and delay its implementa-
32 tion, resulting in the failure of talks in 2005. This led to an emphasis on
33 establishing an integrative but dominant stance with South American
34 countries, including a series of talks between Mercosur and the EU.
35 However, when these foundered, the Brazilian government signed a
36 strategic bilateral partnership agreement with the EU in a clear show
37 of autonomy in relation to Mercosur, with the aim of increasing the
38 country's international profile and presence.

39 The rise of the more autonomist line in Itamaraty gave new impetus
40 to South-South cooperation, based on the belief that there were not only
41 shared characteristics but also shared interests in reordering the interna-
42 tional system. Thus, in addition to the agreements signed with the G-20,

1 the IBSA Dialogue Forum (India, Brazil, and South Africa) was set up,
2 with a view to discussing issues relating to the international order, the
3 UN, and technology (and maintaining strongly the idea of nonintervention
4 in partners' domestic issues). While Brazil maintains autonomy in
5 such initiatives in relation to Mercosur, it clearly enjoys the benefits of its
6 regional influence and power to enlarge its international projection.

7 During Lula's second term, Itamaraty sought to take advantage of
8 the opportunities available through its membership of BRIC (Brazil,
9 Russia, India, and China), the G7, and other forums such as the Group
10 of 20. Activism aimed at achieving a greater international presence
11 increased significantly. The increasingly accepted identification of Brazil
12 as a "bridge" between developed and underdeveloped nations, a concept
13 that had been talked about since the 1970s, would give the country a
14 powerful position in international relations.

15 In terms of the United States, Brazil sought to maintain its position
16 of nonalignment and autonomy, maintaining a firm distance from U.S.
17 policy in the region. Although Brazil's more autonomous and reformist
18 participation in international politics has created new areas of friction
19 between the two countries, Brazil has also attempted to maintain a low-
20 profile policy, actively seeking to avoid conflict and confrontation with
21 the United States.

22 However, its policy toward South America is markedly opposite with
23 Itamaraty seeing regional integration under Brazilian leadership as a polit-
24 ical priority, as well as the most effective way to promote Brazil's objec-
25 tives to become a world power. To this end, Lula attempted to improve
26 the strategy of the Cardoso administration, and without renouncing the
27 principles of nonintervention, to develop regional leadership and a role
28 as a broker of regional consensus, linking regional integration processes
29 to national development.

30 According to the Chancellor Celso Amorim:

31
32 Brazil has always based its agenda on non-intervention in other states'
33 domestic affairs. . . . But non-intervention cannot mean lack of interest.

34 In other words, the precept of non-intervention must be seen in the light
35 of another precept, based on solidarity: that of non-indifference.²³

36
37 Such a policy included a more vigorous promotion of the South American
38 Community of Nations (SACN) as a priority in regional policy, leading
39 to its creation in 2004 before evolving into the Union of South American
40 Nations (UNASUR) in 2008. A further example was Brazil's leading
41 role in the UN Peacekeeping Forces in Haiti, which can be seen as an
42 attempt to consolidate Brazilian leadership in the region and increase its

1 importance in the international arena, even though this violates traditional
2 principles of noninterventionism.

3 Brazilian initiatives were, however, not without tensions. With the rise
4 of nationalist sentiments, some neighboring countries sought to challenge
5 Brazil's regional power and position, demanding economic concessions.
6 Lula was forced to adopt a low-profile position (much criticized by the
7 Brazilian press) and accede to the nationalization of hydrocarbons imple-
8 mented by the Bolivian government, with Petrobras, the Brazilian oil com-
9 pany shouldering the expense. Likewise, despite pressures from Itamaraty
10 and the Brazilian right, Lula and Celso Amorim have sought to maintain
11 a dialogue with Paraguay over the latter's demand for renegotiation of
12 the 1973 Itaipú hydroelectric dam Treaty, which strongly favors Brazilian
13 interests. Without acceding to all demands, some significant concessions
14 regarding decision making, transparency, and completion of works on
15 the Paraguayan side were made in 2009, although these were not ratified
16 by the Brazilian Congress. Moreover, the Brazilian government has to an
17 extent assumed the role of providing technical and economic support in
18 the region, despite internal resistance, with, for example, the Brazilian
19 Development Bank (BNDES) offering to finance infrastructure works in
20 other South American countries (albeit only if carried out by Brazilian
21 companies). From this point of view, which is strongly influenced ideo-
22 logically by the Workers' Party (PT), Brazilian diplomacy supports the
23 initiatives of anti-liberal, left-leaning governments of the region, and pro-
24 poses some kind of diffuse solidarity with countries of the continent, with
25 Brazil willing to bear the majority costs of regional integration.

26 This new, more ideological, posture was supported by autonomists in
27 the belief that integration would offer greater access to foreign markets
28 and hence greater opportunities for the development of Brazilian indus-
29 try with its competitive advantages in terms of internal production sys-
30 tems. It was also supported and influenced by progressives, from within
31 the PT, as expressed by the President's foreign advisor, Marco Aurélio
32 García:

33
34 Brazil has a greater sense of solidarity towards its neighbors. We do not
35 want the country to be an island of prosperity in the midst of a world of
36 poverty. We do have to help them. This is a pragmatic vision. We have
37 trade surpluses with all of them.²⁴

38
39 This does not mean that the progressive view of the PT does not clash
40 with autonomist visions at times. Indeed, foreign policy toward Mercosur
41 during this period was marked by very different visions from the two
42 orientations within the government. The progressives strongly favored

1 the political and social deepening of the integration process and both
2 the Olivos Protocol and the setting up of the Mercosur Parliament as a
3 step toward greater institutionalization were a direct result of progressive
4 thinking. On the other hand, the autonomist view sees the broadening
5 of South American integration under Brazilian leadership as a priority,
6 and hence adopted a greater focus on UNASUR, while Mercosur is seen
7 more as an instrument to strengthen Brazil's regional position, as well as
8 a mechanism to open the way for a regional free-trade area.

9 Despite patterns of continuity, foreign policy under Lula has shown
10 signs of change and flexibility. The objective of regional leadership has
11 been central to policy, and despite the predominance of the autonomist
12 view, policy was influenced favorably by progressives, pushing for a deep-
13 ening of regional relations and international solidarity. The coexistence of
14 autonomist and progressive orientations reflected a difficult but innova-
15 tive balance between ideological beliefs and pragmatism.

16 17 CONCLUSION

18 The comparison of foreign policies adopted by the two administrations
19 confirms a high level of continuity in the general features of Brazilian
20 behavior based on the causal beliefs of universalism, autonomy, and a
21 greater destiny. These beliefs approximate to what can be understood as
22 ideology, creating a backdrop that guides behavioral patterns in foreign
23 policy. However, it also reveals a pragmatic flexibility in the comparative
24 weightage awarded to these beliefs in terms of implementation of foreign
25 policy.

26 Without doubt the autonomist line, stronger during the Lula
27 government, rested greater importance on beliefs, seeking both the
28 reinforcement of autonomy and the search for a stronger projection of
29 the country as a rising power on the international scene. In this way,
30 the combination of strategic pragmatism and ideological considerations
31 favored a discrete, but definite, reinforcement of autonomist orientation,
32 combined at times with a progressive current, over the institutionalist
33 currents favored by Cardoso. Within this combination, in which the
34 beliefs offer an ideological strategy-orienting framework, both adminis-
35 trations ultimately favored a more pragmatic foreign policy.

36 This combination of ideology and pragmatism can be found in
37 foreign policy from the beginning of the twentieth century. Variations
38 over time reflected the domestic political options of the government in
39 question, the correlation of forces within Itamaraty and the international
40 context. Furthermore, the changing international milieu, in the form of
41 a more multipolar, fragmented international scene, and the election of
42

1 left-leaning governments in South America, strongly influenced Brazilian
 2 foreign policy. Despite the variation experienced and in different mea-
 3 sures, one can say that, both in the Cardoso term and in the Lula govern-
 4 ment, pragmatism prevailed over ideology.

5 This orientation is not just the result of a political choice, but has been
 6 constructed within the autonomist line since the beginning of the 1990s
 7 and represents a specific—and highly pragmatic—form of adapting beliefs
 8 to new configurations and challenges in the international order. Political
 9 change resulting from the presidential elections in 2010 may again favor
 10 a move toward institutionalism as under Cardoso, but the overall orien-
 11 tation toward activism and Brazil's rapid international ascension as an
 12 autonomous global power will almost certainly be retained.

NOTES

- 16 1. In the Brazilian case, it is important to work with the idea of "beliefs" in
 17 addition to ideological features of foreign behavior. Ideologies, by defini-
 18 tion, take as their starting point the agent's option, while beliefs are rooted
 19 in a worldview that appears to the agent not as optional, but as a reality.
 20 Here, the definition of beliefs is based on Goldstein and Keohane (1993),
 21 which points to three types of beliefs: worldviews (which create identi-
 22 cities), principled beliefs (normative ideas), and causal beliefs (capable of
 23 generating cause and effect).
- 24 2. This is the model of organizational behavior proposed by Allison, G., and
 25 P. Zelikow. 1999. *Essence of Decision: Explaining the Cuban Missile Crisis*.
 26 New York: Longman; and used by Silva, Márcia Maro. 2008. "Itamaraty's
 27 Role in the Process of Recognition of the Independence of Angola and of
 28 the MPLA Government." Doctoral thesis, Flacso/Buenos Aires.
- 29 3. See Pinheiro, L. 2000. "Traídos pelo Desejo: um ensaio sobre a teoria
 30 e a prática da política externa brasileira contemporânea," *Contexto*
 31 *Internacional* 22(2), pp. 305–36.
- 32 4. Vigevani, T., H. Ramazini Jr., G. Favaron, R. A. Correia. 2008. "O papel da
 33 integração regional para o Brasil: universalismo, soberania e percepção das
 34 elites," *Revista Brasileira de Política Internacional* Ano 51, n. 1, pp. 5–27.
- 35 5. Cited by Silva, A. de M. 1995. "O Brasil no continente e no mundo:
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 37 *Históricos* 15, pp. 95–118.
- 38 6. Castro, J. A. de A. 1972. "O congelamento do Poder Mundial," *Revista*
 39 *Brasileira de Estudos Políticos*, n. 33, pp. 7–30, 9, 30. Araújo Castro was foreign
 40 secretary in 1963, Brazilian ambassador to the UN at the end of the 1960s,
 41 and ambassador to the United States in the 1970s. (Castro 1972, p. 9, 30).
- 42 7. In countries where diplomatic bureaucracy is more fragile, foreign policy
 is more conditioned by brusque changes in politics, thus taking on a more
 erratic aspect. In Brazil's case, Itamaraty's power favors continuity.

- 1 8. Pinheiro 2000.
- 2 9. Ibid.
- 3 10. See Deutsch, K. 1982. *Análise das Relações Internacionais*. Brasília:
4 Editora UnB.
- 5 11. See Vigevani, T; M. F. Oliveira; R. Cintra. 2003. "A política externa do
6 governo Cardoso: um exercício de autonomia pela integração," *Tempo*
7 *Social*, n. 20, pp. 31–61.
- 8 12. Lampreia, L. F. 1995. "Discurso de posse," *Revista de Política Exterior do*
9 *Brasil*, n. 76. Brasília, Ministério de Relações Exteriores, pp. 17–27, 20.
- 10 13. See Fonseca Jr., G. 1999. "Anotações sobre as condições do sistema inter-
11 nacional no limiar do século XIX: a distribuição dos pólos de poder e a
12 inserção internacional do Brasil," in: Dupas and Vigevani (eds.), *O Brasil*
13 *e as novas dimensões da segurança internacional*. São Paulo: Alfa-Omega/
14 Fapesp. pp. 17–42. Fonseca was Brazilian ambassador to the UN during
15 part of the Cardoso government.
- 16 14. Lampreia, L. F. 1998. "A política exterior de Fernando Henrique
17 Cardoso," *Revista Brasileira de Política Internacional* 41(2), pp. 5–17.
- 18 15. See Vigevani, T, M. F. Oliveira, R. Cintra. 2003. "A política externa do
19 governo Cardoso: um exercício de autonomia pela integração," *Tempo*
20 *Social*, n. 20, pp. 31–61.
- 21 16. See *ibid.*
- 22 17. See Hirst, M., and Pinheiro, L. 1995. "A política externa do Brasil
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24 pp. 5–23.
- 25 18. Pinheiro, L. 2000. "Traídos pelo Desejo: um ensaio sobre a teoria
26 e a prática da política externa brasileira contemporânea," *Contexto*
27 *Internacional* 22(2), pp. 305–36, 323.
- 28 19. "Grotian" is this author's clarification.
- 29 20. See Villa, R. D. 2004. "Brasil: política externa e a agenda democrática na
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31 Jul. 21–24, Rio de Janeiro.
- 32 21. See Lima, M. R. S. dc. 1990. "A economia política da política externa
33 brasileira: uma proposta de análise," *Contexto Internacional* 6. n. 12,
34 pp. 17.
- 35 22. da Silva, Lula. 2003. "Discurso de posse," *Revista de Política Exterior do*
36 *Brasil*, n. 92. Brasília, Ministério de Relações Exteriores, pp. 13–20, 17.
- 37 23. Celso Amorim, 2005, quoted by Oliveira, M. F. de. 2005. *Elites*
38 *econômicas e política externa no Brasil contemporâneo*. São Paulo: IEEI
39 (draft). Author's translation, pp. 21–22.
- 40 24. Interview with Marco Aurélio Garcia made and quoted by Diegues,
41 Consuelo. 2009. "O Formulador Emorivo," *Piauí*, n. 30, March,
42 pp. 20–24.