

# UNIT 2

### NETWORKS OF EXCHANGE, C. 1200-C. 1450

### CONTEXT

Movement and trade became defining characteristics of this period linking distant regions of Afro-Eurasia. While the Bantu migration continued, the period began with migrations of the Hunnic and Germanic peoples. Later movements by the Slavs, Turks, the Tai and Mongols further disrupted Eurasia. Innovations in maritime technologies and developments in some state and commercial practices facilitated the development of trade. While merchants from trade circuits in Western Afro-Eurasia were unlikely to travel to trade circuits in East Asia – the distance was too extreme, travel time too long and cost too prohibitive with returns too small – luxury and exotic trade goods intended for the elite were passed from one trading region or circuit to the other among **trading diasporic communities** – ethnic trading groups geographically dispersed and facilitating trade across the zone – often increasing significantly in price. And with goods came exchanges in culture and technologies but to name just a few.

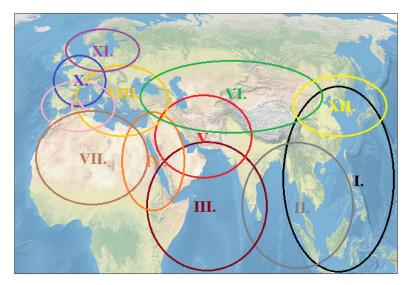


Figure 2.1 Late post-classical trade circuits, c. 1300



	TRADE CIRCUIT	ETHNIC TRADE DIASPORA
I.	East and South China Seas	Fujianese Chinese
II.	Eastern Indian Ocean	Southern Indians
III.	Western Indian Ocean	Swahili, Gujaratis, Persians, Omani, Arabs, Jews
IV.	Red Sea	Arabs, Ethiopians, Jews
V.	Persian Gulf and Strait of Hormuz	Arabs, Persians, Armenians, Jews
VI.	Silk and Steppe Roads	Nestorians, Sogdians
VII.	Trans-Saharan Trade Route	Bedouin Arabs, Berbers, Hausa
VIII.	Eastern Mediterranean and Black Seas	Italians, Armenians, Jews
IX.	Western Mediterranean	Italians, Jews
X.	Western Europe	Italians, Flemish, Jews
XI.	North and Baltic Seas	Hanseatic (German) merchants
XII.	Yellow Sea and East Sea (Sea of Japan)	Initially Koreans but later Japanese

The Mongols even while their wars and conquests devastated and reshaped the political landscape of Eurasia favored and supported increased trade across the steppe while trade across the Sahara, in the Indian Ocean, and in the northern seas of Europe expanded dramatically. Their rule also greatly facilitated exchanges of many types – cultural, technological, populations, and environmental.

### TOPIC 2.3: EXCHANGE IN THE INDIAN OCEAN

OVERARCHING QUESTION: Explain the causes for the growth of networks of exchange after 1200.

### **ECONOMICS**

While there were changes in the political structure of the Indian Ocean during the centuries beginning in the 1200s, there was still great stability and trade expanded. The East African coast was dominated by Swahili city-states including Kilwa, Pemba, Zanzibar and Mogadishu. During the time period, many more city-states arose tapping trade from the interior of Africa including a new empire, Zimbabwe. In South Asia while the Sultanate of Delhi was born and would expand to control the northern river plains of the Indus and Ganges disrupting the region with warfare, its unification of the area had a positive impact on trade out of the interior especially for the region of Gujarat. The later Mongol conquest and destruction of trade cities in Persia and Iraq facilitated the expansion of trade from Gujarat and the Malabar coasts. Gujarati merchants spread their influence throughout the region into the Persian Gulf even journeying to the coasts of Arabia and Africa. Along the Malabar Coast cities such as Calicut remained prosperous and expanded their influence even while the Cholan Empire was in decline. The same was true in Southeast Asia where the Srivijayan Empire was in decline. New states including Majapahit and the Sultanates of Aceh and Malacca arose to fill the void left.

Across the Indian Ocean, **trade diasporic communities** arose. Some examples include the Swahili, a culture and ethnicity mixing Bantu Africans, Arabs, and Persians as well as the Gujaratis. There were even Jewish communities from Cairo who helped ship pepper and other goods between Egypt and India. The story



of Abraham ben Yiju is a good example. A Jew from the Genzia district of Cairo, he had a family in Cairo and one in the Malabar Coast. With his partners and family, he shipped pepper between India, Yemen and Cairo by way of the Red Sea. In the South China Sea and across Southeast Asian ports, a Chinese diasporic community was forming. Originating in the hilly, poor Fukien province of Southern China, the **Fujians** relied on shipbuilding, fishing and trade to make up for lack of arable lands. Their merchants frequented ports in Champa, the Khmer Empire, the Malay Peninsula and the islands of Sumatra, Java and Borneo.

From Africa, Swahili merchants exported gold, ivory, copper, and slaves. The gold and copper came from Zimbabwe which exchanged the metals for products arriving from the Indian Ocean. Indian merchants added cotton, dyed cloth, pepper, gems, pearls and rice from the subcontinent while Southeast Asia added more exotic spices, scented woods, exotic woods such as teak, gold and rice. Merchants journeying from China and from the Middle East added trade goods such as silk, lacquer, porcelain and teas from lands east as well as glass, horses, carpets and medical products from lands to the west.

After the division of the Mongol Empire into rival khanates and increased warfare, the land routes of Central Asia became increasingly dangerous and unreliable. By 1350, trade along the maritime routes of the Indian Ocean intensified. When Marco Polo returned home to Venice, he did so in part by the maritime routes through the South China Sea and Indian Ocean to Persia before continuing westward. One major reason for the stability and success of the Indian Ocean trade networks was the decision by actors, both individual and state to avoid conflicts and ideological divides which might otherwise disrupt trade and imperil the merchants. Whether Muslim, Hindu, Zoroastrian, Jew, Buddhist, or indigenous traditions, rulers of the states practiced policies which fostered cooperation in the pursuit of profits and cultural toleration. Rulers protected merchants, built ports and maintained markets that welcomed trade.

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## UNIT 4

# TRANS-OCEANIC INTERCONNECTIONS, C. 1450–1750

### CONTEXT

The writer Barbara Tuchman in her classic *A Distant Mirror* describes the impact to of the "calamitous 14<sup>th</sup> century" on the Medieval European world. Between plagues, wars, religious disruptions, peasant revolts, new perspectives in the arts, commercial revolutions, social changes and the rise of new governments the old European world collapsed and a new era was born. While Tuchman focused exclusively on Western Europe, had she added the impact of the Mongols the author could easily have been writing about the larger Afro-Eurasian world.

The thirteenth and fourteenth centuries represented roughly two hundred years of challenges to most structures in Afro-Eurasia. Beginning with the Mongol expansion and massive disruptions to existing political entities and commercial activities across the continents, the regions were subjected to the Black Death and its consequences to existing social systems. The warfare and massive deaths were also part of a challenge to traditional religious structures and intellectual processes. And at the end of the period even the Mongol khanates collapsed leaving much of Eurasia in a political vacuum.

Out of these challenges, new structures began to emerge. Two regions emerged more quickly than others – China which had driven the Mongols out to see the establishment of the Ming Dynasty and Western Europe entered the Age of the Renaissance. While the Chinese sought to reestablish the glories of China and Chinese culture prior to the Mongols, the Europeans attempted to revive a classical Greco-Roman culture which many perceived to be better than the intervening "medieval" culture between the two ages of the classic and the mid-fourteenth century. While the Chinese eschewed innovation and change, the Europeans increasingly embraced it and looked further beyond tradition and geographical constraints.

In addition to the Early Modern Age, this period has alternative names – the **Age of Reconnaissance** and the **Age of Exploration** to signify overseas exploration as well as the **First Age of Globalization** when most continents for the first time came into commercial and intellectual contacts. It was an age of empire building as well as colonization.

And while the predominant actors were Western European - Portugal, Spain, France, the Netherlands and England - other nations also participated. The Ming naval expeditions or treasury voyages under Zheng He journeyed seven times between China, Southeast Asia, and the Indian Ocean reaching India, the east coast of Africa and Arabia in the early fifteenth century. Fleets dominated by large Chinese junks reestablished the Chinese tribute system and projected Chinese power after the Ming expelled the Mongols. And while the Ming became the preeminent naval power of the fifteenth century, the Chinese eventually ended the voyages and retreated to semi-isolation as renewed threats from the Mongols arose and costs to build and maintain both the Great Wall and Forbidden City became prohibitive. Confucianism was never favorable to either mercantile interests nor overseas expansion and Confucian influence in the end led to the scrapping of the ships. Other exploratory expeditions included the Ottoman Empire whose navies dominated the Eastern Mediterranean Sea for a period of time. From the Red Sea and Persian Gulf, the Turks did send out expeditions under the command of Admiral Sidi Ali Reis to establish and protect commercial relations between their empire, India, the Indian Ocean and East Africa. Their shipyards built copies of Portuguese galleons but local resources were unable to sustain these fleets. In the face of sustained pressure and constant warfare with Spain and the Italians in the Mediterranean Sea and Portugal in the Indian Ocean, the Ottoman expeditions had limited success and ended. However Sidi Ali Reis left accounts of his journeys and guides on navigation and sailing techniques which influenced the Turkish and Muslim worlds. Additionally the Japanese also sent out commercial and



exploratory missions across the East and South China Seas under the early Tokugawa Shogunate. These "red seal" fleets sought to counter the Spanish and Portuguese influence and visit ports in China, the Philippines and the islands of Southeast Asia to acquire luxuries and spices. Japanese merchant communities arose in places such as Manila protected by paid Japanese samurai. Even the Spanish occasionally hired samurai, too. The subsequent isolationist policies of the Tokugawa ended the red seal fleets as Japan came to rely exclusively on the Dutch yearly visit through Nagasaki.

### TOPIC 4.1: TECHNOLOGICAL INNOVATIONS, 1450-1750

OVERARCHING QUESTION: Explain how cross-cultural interactions resulted in the diffusion of technology and facilitated changes in patterns of trade and travel from 1450 to 1750.

### TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION

The Post-Classical Mediterranean crusades exposed Europeans to a larger Eurasian world for the first time since the collapse of the Roman Empire. And while the initial interest was in trade goods especially the luxuries of East Asia, South Asia and Southeast Asia such as fabrics, porcelains, and spices, continual contacts led to cultural exchanges where Europeans became aware of Eurasian technologies, cultural practices and ideas. At the same time in Iberia and in Italy the Portuguese, Catalan-Aragonese, Castilians and Italo-Normans overran vibrant Muslim states conquering the Muslim successor states in Iberia and a Muslim emirate in Sicily. Conquest led to the acquisition of famous libraries in Cordoba and Palermo. The schools and knowledge in Palermo made Sicily a center of map production and global knowledge frequented not only by Muslim scholars but also increasingly by European mariners and geographers. Through the same venues as well as commercial contacts with Muslim ports, Europeans became familiar with older Middle Eastern and Eurasian technologies such as the **astrolabe** and the **compass**, as well as geographical knowledge, maps and travel journals.

However the Western Europeans began, the physical characteristics of the Atlantic Ocean forced the early mariners of this century to experiment and change. The Atlantic Ocean's weather conditions are particularly dangerous and unpredictable. Mediterranean galleys cannot survive the rough waters of the Atlantic Ocean. Scandinavians (Vikings and their descendants), the Flemish and Dutch of the Netherlands and Germans of the Hanseatic League all developed ships more conducive to travel, trade and warfare in the Atlantic. Frequently these had higher freeboards (sides) so waves would not swamp the ships, higher sterns and bows which acted as stabilizers and aided in sailing, stronger and different sails including fully rigged ships carrying yards of canvas and even enclosed rudders produced technologically advanced ships. While China had developed rudders quite early in history which Muslim mariners used, European rudders differed from their Chinese and Arabic counterparts so it is likely Europeans developed them indigenously. Necessity being the mother of invention, Western European navigators produced a maritime revolution in sailing technologies which by 1750 made Western European nations the master of the seas. Carlo M. Cipolla in his book, Guns, Sails, and Empires: Technological Innovation and the Early Phases of European Expansion, 1400-1700 argued that through the marriage of specialized ships, advances in sails and sailing technologies, the development of lightweight cannons which had considerable firepower at great distances and navigational knowledge, Western European states - Portugal, Spain, France, the Netherlands, England, Denmark and Sweden - create vibrant and large overseas empires.

While the Chinese continued to use junks and the Muslims relied on galleys in the Mediterranean and the dhow in the Indian Ocean, Europeans had to develop new ships. The first new ships were the carracks, caravel, and fluyts. Originally the Portuguese and Spanish relied on caravels which were designed for severe conditions in the Atlantic Ocean but carried lateen sails. Caravels however were unable to navigate in severe winds as their sails could not hold enough wind. The carrack originated in Portugal as an evolution from the Hanseatic cog, a large, inexpensive and easy to operate sea-going vessel with a large cargo capacity. It was needed to carry trade goods from the Baltic and North Seas to Italy but was soon enlarged and adopted for trans-oceanic trade and exploration. Carracks carried more masts and sails as they could not rely on oars for



propulsion. Many of the early carracks carried a mix of square rigged and lateen sails but this soon gave way to totally square rigged sails as square rigging provided more surface to catch winds and push ships. Square rigged ships carry their sails on horizontal spars which means they are perpendicular or "squared" to the mast and ship. The ships were also larger and increasingly carried more masts which also provided a more stable platform to carry more cannons. Eventually the galleon was born. **Galleons** possessed characteristics of the carrack and caravel, were considerably larger, used a mix of sails, carried cannons and had a cargo hold. They became the mainstay of European nations for both commerce and warfare until Europeans began to specially build ships for either warfare – the fully-rigged warship made famous by the epic naval battles during the three Anglo-Dutch Wars – or for commerce.

The larger the ships became the deeper the waters they needed to sail or dock. Additionally in as much as exploration and trade often required firepower and cannons against rivals and pirates, caravels and carracks followed by the large galleons were designed as merchant vessels easily converted into warships. This reduced cargo space and required larger crews to man the guns and additional sails. The Dutch and the English changed ship-design by specially designing ships for war or commerce but not both. The Dutch eventually developed the **fluyt**, an ocean-going trading vessel designed exclusively for trade and not conversion into a warship. Fluyts also drew less water in sailing and could use smaller harbors and sail up many rivers easily. They carried smaller crews and had a larger cargo capacity than previous ships. Both the English and Dutch perfected fully-rigged warships with multiple decks designed to carry many cannons and fire broadsides or volleys of cannons at enemy warships. Some of these warships possessed three gun decks and carried up to 100 cannons. They were called **ships-of-the-line** or battleships.

Beyond ships and sails, the Europeans developed knowledge of the seas and navigation not seen previously in history. Prior to the 15th century, ships generally hugged the coasts and rarely sailed out of sight of land at all or for only short periods of time. Through trial, error, the death of many sailors and just dumb luck, Europeans developed an understanding of wind and water currents which eventually would lead to the famous Portuguese volta do mar. It is a technique alternatively using favorable surface winds and oceanic currents to navigate. The Europeans would catalog their knowledge and protect their books against espionage but the knowledge and techniques spread. At the same time, Europeans using astrolabe, the compass and constant observation created astrological and navigational charts of the waters in which they sailed. Eventually the English, Dutch and French developed the system mariners refer to as longitude and latitude on maps and for determining location on a map or globe out of sight of land.

All these developments gave the European maritime nations enormous tactical and strategic military and commercial advantages where they could project military power and economic resources over great distances of water. Few coasts were safe from European visits and while large land-based states with their vast agricultural resources and large populations could resist the European ships and crews, smaller, coastal and island states were especially vulnerable to European control. From these were born European commercial enterprises, merchants and maritime empires connecting distant lands in an increasingly globalized network of trade ports, factories and resources.



# UNIT 5

### REVOLUTIONS, C. 1750 TO C. 1900

### CONTEXT

In 1968 the rock group Beatles recorded their famous song, *Revolution*. Inspired by events in arguably a year with many characteristics of a world-wide revolutionary movement, John Lennon's lyrics mention the revolutionary's desire to change the world. Yes typically most people recognize that revolutions change politics. But revolutions can occur in many different themes of *AP World History – Modern*: governance, economic structures, technology, cultural systems and social hierarchies.

Many decades ago French historian Crane Brinton created the paradigm frequently used to study the topic of revolutions. His *The Anatomy of Revolution* identified eight stages that he felt all revolutions followed. And while his examples only included the American Revolution, the French Revolution and the Russian Revolution and also only applied the paradigm to political and violent revolutions, Briton's model is applicable to most revolutions between 1750 and the present age. Yes, there are limitations to this model but it is useful to analyze the degree to which later revolutions – even non-political – conformed to or differentiated from the model.

The eight stages of Brinton's revolution include (1) the current government loses control of the country's political and economic situation as new ideas and groups arise to challenge the status quo; and (2) where traditional conservatives attempt to gain control and influence but are opposed by groups seeking reform and change that lead to a conflict. After which (3) moderates come to power and attempt reform; (4) provoking a radical reaction; where (5) the radicals seize control of the government; (6) launching a "reign of terror" where they purge their enemies and rivals within their own movement. This prompts (7) a moderate purge of the radicals and a phase where the moderates simply stop reforms and make an attempt to end the revolution; followed by (8) a prominent group or man seizing power, ending the revolution but trying to blend the best competing ideologies into a new cohesive whole. And while Brinton applies this exclusively to Western political revolutions, the model can be applied to other major political revolutions including with some discussion the Industrial Revolution.

In Brinton's model, students should understand the terms **conservative**, **moderate** (**liberal**) and **radical**. **Conservatives** prefer traditional methods of governance and guidance of society – they oppose change and prefer governance by societal elites especially monarchs, aristocrats, elite landowners, and the clergy. They support a limited and small electorate. **Moderates or liberals** are often interchangeable terms but support the idea that some change is needed but it should be gradual and not socially destabilizing. Moderates and liberals would seek to expand the electorate to include the wealthy and the educated as well as the new managerial class and successful businessmen who pay a specific level of taxes. They do not support however universal suffrage. **Radicals** want to upend the existing political and social system – turn current society in a different direction. Radicals tended to be democratic seeking **popular sovereignty** where the majority of people select their own government and engage in self-rule, having a voice in their governance. At first **democracy** and **nationalism** were radical but by the end of the nineteenth century arguably **socialism** and **Marxism** were far more radical and revolutionary.

The French Revolution espoused popular sovereignty and birthed nationalism. Both were radical but during the "long 19<sup>th</sup> century" from 1789 to 1914 both became relatively moderate views of a majority of society. For instance where once **nationalism** was a radical movement seeking the unification of an ethnic group with a shared culture, language and history under a common government was radical, over time it became a conservative ideology. Prior to 1750, religion (however one conceptualized a faith or belief system) and the monarch (whether king, sultan, emperor, shah or prince) dominated states. Personal allegiance was to God (however one visualized a deity) and the reigning prince, who may have been God's representative. Beginning



in the West around 1750 but spreading across the globe, societies increasingly secularized and allegiance to a religion or a monarch or both was replaced increasingly by loyalty to a **nation-state**, an ethnic group with a shared heritage and the state that the nation dominated.

One context for revolutions between the eighteenth and early twentieth centuries include the **globalization** of trade and contacts and several intellectual or cultural revolutions. By 1750, the educated elite in Europe, the Americas, India, China and even in supposedly isolated Japan had a decent knowledge of and familiarity with the wider world that would have been unheard of in previous centuries. Concepts such as Confucianism, Islam, Buddhism and Hinduism became increasingly well-known to Europeans and elite Americans as commercial, cultural and diplomatic exchanges linked nations and societies across the globe. Ideas circulating among the intellectuals began to filter widely to the moneyed elite as well as many of the more prominent middle class. And unlike the **Scientific Revolution** where ideas spread almost exclusively among mathematicians, astronomers, biologists, chemists and medical doctors rarely impacting the common people, the ideas of the **Enlightenment**, an intellectual revolution in Europe and the Americas seeking to apply laws of nature to produce reform and progress to most aspects of society, impacted even the common and poor as much as it did the middle class and the elites.

Another context was the economic and technological changes called the **Industrial Revolution**. There were technically two industrial revolutions – the first beginning in Great Britain focusing on steam power, mechanization of textiles, and transportation, and the second that spread to Germany, Russia, Japan and elsewhere in steel production, chemicals, electricity and communications. During these revolutions, technology (machines, mechanization of production, mass production and factories, inventions, different types of energy, steel production, transportation including steam ships and railroads, and communication) produced not only a revolution in how humans made products and worked but facilitated a transformation in societies, social classes, and ultimately politics.

Concurrent with the Industrial Revolution large popular migrations occurred. Millions of rural workers migrated to cities to work in the new factories that spread around the world during the Industrial Revolution. Millions of Americans – peoples of North and South America – settled the interior lands whether called plains, prairies, pampas, llanos or the Mato Grosso. Millions of Russians migrated to Siberia for similar reasons. Millions of Europeans migrated to the Americas, Australia, New Zealand and settler colonies such as Algeria and South Africa seeking new opportunities, land, work, escape from horrible social conditions, and political freedom. The Atlantic slave trade continued legally through 1807 and illegally until the 1850s and 1860s. And as it ended millions of Chinese, Indians, Koreans, Filipinos and Japanese arrived as indentured service to replace the slaves' physical labor on English, French and American islands and plantations in the Indian Ocean, the Pacific and their coasts.

A final context was the advent of new political ideologies – nationalism, liberalism, reformism, radicalism, syndicalism, progressivism, positivism, socialism, and communism – and the increasingly political, diplomatic and military rivalry or revolution between the leading European nations for world dominance. Around 1660, the English replaced the Dutch (who had replaced the Portuguese) while the French replaced the Spanish as powerful actors. The Austrians and Russians, who had displaced the Turks around 1689, were themselves challenged by the Prussians in 1740. At the same time, the British and French were locked in a contest for "superpower" status that would last until a final British victory in 1815. The period ended with the widespread independence of colonies in the Americas from Great Britain, France, Spain and Portugal. After the French Revolution and Napoleonic Wars, several European nations gradually replaced China as the most powerful political and economic international actors while the same states together with new rising great powers – the United States, Germany, Italy and Japan – ultimately divided the world into colonial empires.

# TOPIC 5.2: NATIONALISM & REVOLUTIONS IN THE PERIOD FROM 1750 TO 1900

OVERARCHING QUESTION: Explain causes and effects of the various revolutions in the period from 1750 to 1900.



### **IMAGINED COMMUNITIES**

Political scientist Benedict Anderson in his book *Imagined Communities* described how an ethnic community defined itself by esteeming a specific language, shared experiences and shared values above others. These developed through media including literature, music, art, language and a shared or created historical experience and culture. Each of these "imagined" communities had a defined understanding of their territory in which people who had never met felt to be part of a larger community. This nation – an ethnic group – then sought an independent state to represent shared values. Historians call this **nationalism**. And nationalism was one of the bi-products of the Atlantic revolutions. Loyalty to the nation was more important than loyalty to a monarch and the resistance to an oppressive colonial master or outside invaders shared one common ingredient – the will of the people or popular sovereignty.

### THE PHILIPPINES, CUBA AND PUERTO RICO

While the revolutions saw the birth of nationalism in the United States, France, Haiti and Latin America, the end of the Age of Revolution did not satisfy the nationalist aspirations of many peoples either in Europe or around the world. Despite losing the bulk of its colonies, Spain, for instance still retained Cuba, Puerto Rico and the Philippines. And over the remaining years of the nineteenth century, these three colonies increasingly sought autonomy and ultimately independence. Through literary and intellectual movements an increasingly active local elite rallied the people often to support military rebels. The independence of Mexico from which the Philippines had originally been governed ended the Acapulco to Manila silver shipments and forced Spain to administer the colony directly from Madrid. Revolutionary ideas began to circulate in the Philippines during the Napoleonic Age as British commercial interests began to trade in Manila. This resulted in the rise of a Filipino landed and educated elite willing to embrace reform. After Spain's liberation from Napoleon, Spain reasserted control over the Philippines, which saw no reforms until the repressive royal government in Spain fell mid-century. In the meantime a native Filipino elite arose from among the local landed and commercial elements of society. Wealthier families sent their sons to be educated in Europe. It replaced the earlier Spanish, Mexican and clerical administrators. Discussion of reform soon spread widely through the literary effects of writers in the Propaganda Movement such as Jose Rizal, whose novel, Noli Me Tangere (Do Not Touch Me) exposed the abuses of the colonial system and helped ferment rural rebellion. His execution for sedition shocked many Filipinos and was a direct cause of the Philippine Revolution which began in 1896. The United States through developments in Cuba eventually became involved with all three Spanish colonies. In Cuba, Spanish repression of Cuban aspirations angered many Americans who had commercial interests on the island. Americans through terrifying stories in the American press increasingly sympathized with the Cuban population and revolutionary aspirations. To emphasize these concerns, the United States sent the battleship Maine to Havana Harbor where it blew up and sank. The Americans blamed Spain (it was an internal explosion and not a bomb that sank the ship) and the United States declared war in 1898. During the war the United States invaded all three colonies. After the war the United States annexed the Philippines (as well as Puerto Rico), provoking an insurrection by Filipino nationalists against the United States which lasted until 1902. Under mediation by the future American President Taft, The United States ultimately agreed to gradual Filipino independence after negotiations with Emilio Aquinaldo, a leader of the Katipunan, a revolutionary movement seeking the expulsion of the Spanish from the Philippines. For more than fifty years American interests also dominated Cuba, and Puerto Rico. In Puerto Rico, the writings of Lola Rodriquez de Tio served much the same role in the development of Puerto Rican nationalism that Rizal's works had in the Philippines. A feminist, an abolitionist and a nationalist, she popularized Puerto Rican interests and worked closely with Jose Marti, a Cuban writer, publisher and nationalist who helped rouse the Cubans to oppose the Spaniards at the same time before his death in 1895. But she worked with American authorities in Puerto Rico to improve Puerto Rico and despite numerous votes, Puerto Rico has opted to remain an American possession. Cuba however became independent in 1906 and only threw off American influence in 1958 following the Communist victory of Fidel Castro.