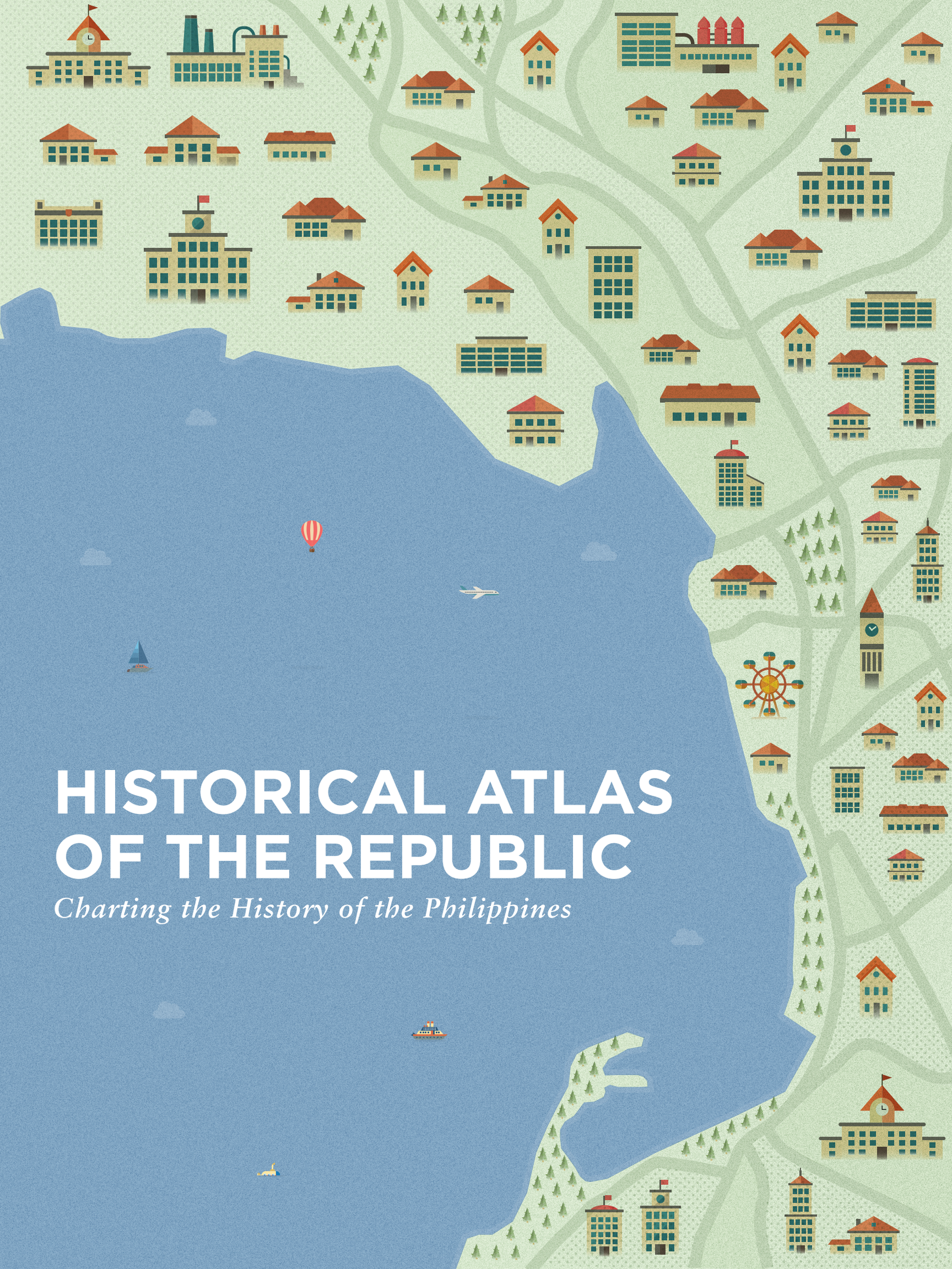

HISTORICAL ATLAS OF THE REPUBLIC

Charting the History of the Philippines

HISTORICAL ATLAS OF THE REPUBLIC

PRESIDENTIAL COMMUNICATIONS DEVELOPMENT
AND STRATEGIC PLANNING OFFICE

2016

Historical Atlas of the Republic

Presidential Communications Development and Strategic Planning Office

ISBN 978-971-95551-6-2

Published exclusively by
The Presidential Communications Development
and Strategic Planning Office
Office of the President of the Philippines
3/F New Executive Building,
Malacañan Palace, San Miguel, Manila
Website: http://www.pcdspo.gov.ph
Email: feedback@pcdspo.gov.ph

Book design by the Presidential Communications
Development and Strategic Planning Office

Published in the Philippines.

The National Library of the Philippines CIP Data

Recommended entry:

Historical atlas of the republic. – Manila : The
Presidential Communications Development
and Strategic Planning Office, c2016.
pages ; cm

ISBN 978-971-95551-6-2

1. Atlases, Philippines. 2. Philippines – Political
conditions – Maps. 3. Philippines – History.

912.599 G2390 2016 P620160112

THE REPUBLIC OF THE PHILIPPINES

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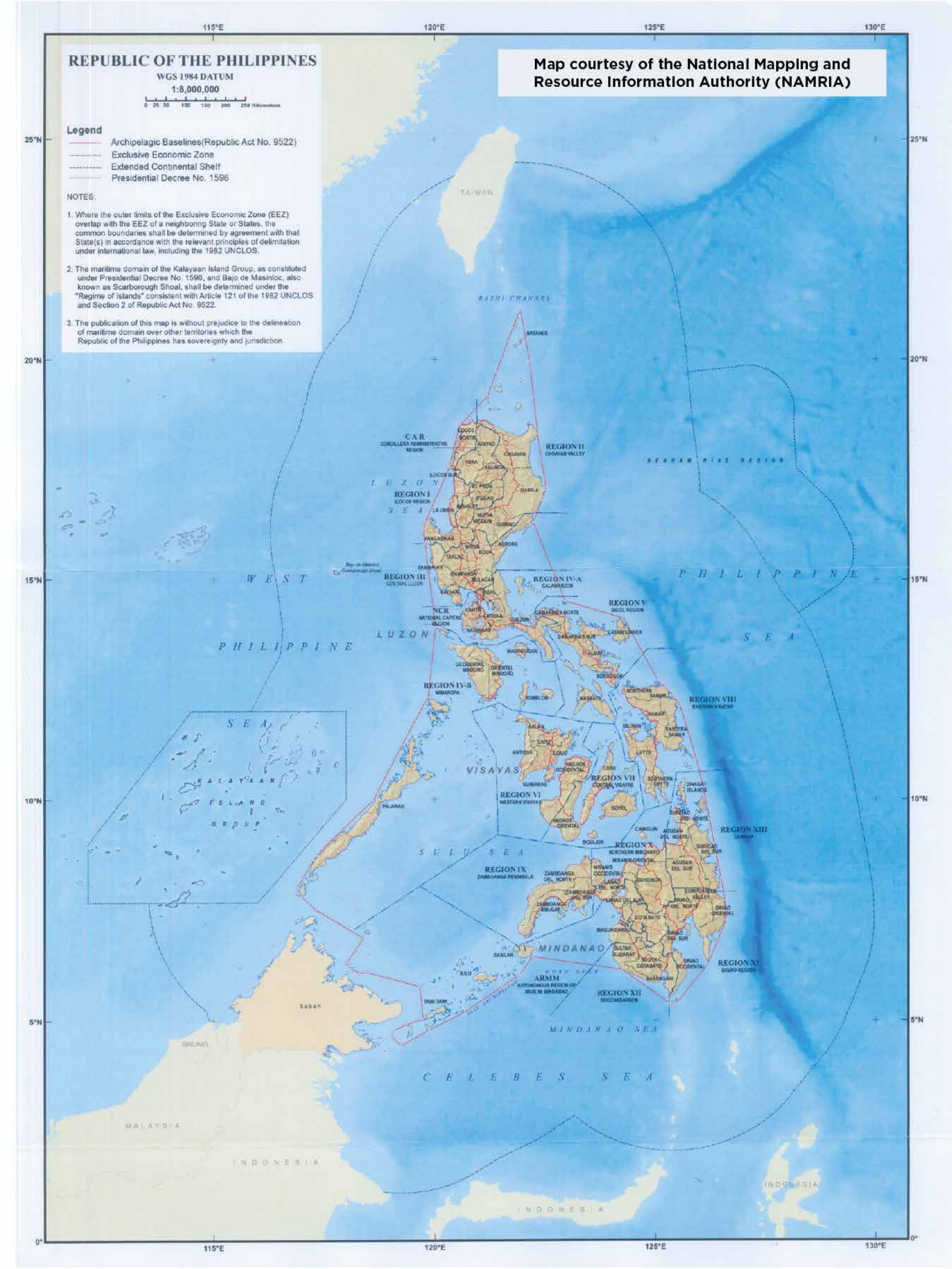
The Presidential Communications Development and Strategic Planning Office would like to thank the following for their invaluable assistance in this project: Presidential Spokesperson Edwin Lacierda, Deputy Presidential Spokesperson Abigail Valte, Mr. Arnaldo Dumindin, Mr. Matthew Westfall, Mr. Jim Richardson, Mr. John Tewell, Mr. Efren P. Carandang, Mr. Jay L. Batongbacal, Office of the Presidential Spokesperson, Department of Budget and Management, National Mapping and Resource Information Authority, University of the Philippines Institute for Maritime Affairs and Law of the Sea, National Museum of the Philippines, Commission on Filipinos Overseas, Mario Feir Filipiniana Collection, and the Lopez Museum and Library.

Table of Contents


REPUBLIC OF THE PHILIPPINES
WGS 1984 DATUM
1:8,000,000
0 25 50 100 150 200 250 Kilometers
Legend
Archipelagic Baselines(Republic Act No. 9522)
Exclusive Economic Zone
Extended Continental Shelf
Presidential Decree No. 1596
NOTES:
1. Where the outer limits of the Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) overlap with the EEZ of a neighboring State or States, the common boundaries shall be determined by agreement with that State(s) in accordance with the relevant principles of delimitation under international law, including the 1982 UNCLOS.
2. The maritime domain of the Kalayaan Island Group, as constituted under Presidential Decree No. 1596, and Bajo de Masinloc, also known as Scarborough Shoal, shall be determined under the "Regime of Islands" consistent with Article 121 of the 1982 UNCLOS and Section 2 of Republic Act No. 9522.
3. The publication of this map is without prejudice to the delineation of maritime domain over other territories which the Republic of the Philippines has sovereignty and jurisdiction.
Map courtesy of the National Mapping and Resource Information Authority (NAMRIA)
115°E
120°E
125°E
130°E
25°N
20°N
15°N
10°N
5°N
0°
TAIWAN
BASHI CHANNEL
BATANES
CAR
CORDILLERA ADMINISTRATIVE REGION
REGION II
CAGAYAN VALLEY
BENHAM RISE REGION
LUZON
REGION I
ILOCOS REGION
SEA
WEST
PHILIPPINE
REGION III
CENTRAL LUZON
REGION IV-A
CALABARZON
NCR
NATIONAL CAPITAL REGION
REGION V
BICOL REGION
REGION IV-B
MIMAROPA
VISAYAS
REGION VI
WESTERN VISAYAS
REGION VII
CENTRAL VISAYAS
REGION VIII
EASTERN VISAYAS
REGION X
NORTHERN MINDANAO
REGION IX
ZAMBOANGA PENINSULA
REGION XI
DAVAO REGION
REGION XII
SOCCSKSARGEN
REGION XIII
CARAGA
ARMM
AUTONOMOUS REGION OF MUSLIM MINDANAO
MINDANAO
KALAYAAN ISLAND GROUP
SULU SEA
MINDANAO SEA
CELEBES SEA
Sabah
BRUNEI
MALAYSIA
INDONESIA

Introduction

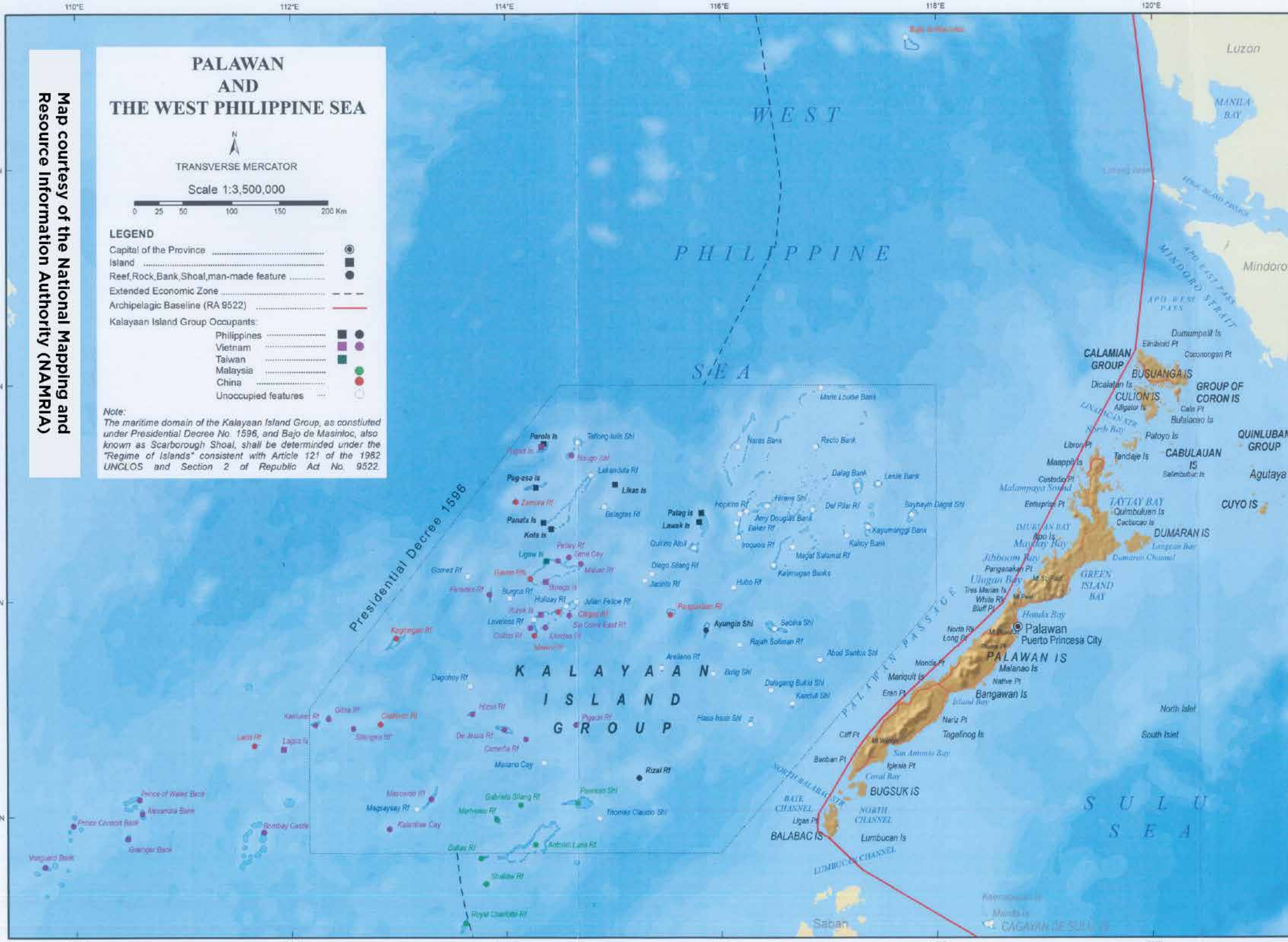
In 2010, the Presidential Communications Development and Strategic Planning Office (PCDSPO) was created by President Benigno S. Aquino III with the task of preserving and curating the institutional memory of the Office of the President. Since then, the PCDSPO has stood at the forefront of promoting interest in and curiosity about the story of the Filipino people. The office combines new information technologies with historical papers, photo collections, audio and video, monographs, articles, and textbooks—in order to create websites, features, and authoritative publications on Philippine history and politics.

The Historical Atlas of the Republic is the first of its kind: presenting (among other things) the development of the Philippine geopolitical landscape, the colonization of the Philippines by different foreign powers, and the expansion of Philippine national sovereignty. The Historical Atlas is useful for summarizing, visualizing, and contextualizing Philippine history. It accomplishes this through a collection of 44, meticulously researched political, demographic, maritime, military, and migration maps.

In approximate geographic terms, unless noted, this atlas encompasses the Philippine archipelago between latitude 4°00' to 21°08'N and longitude 114° to 127°E. Some maps include the countries and islands of Southeast Asia and the Pacific region. Chronologically, the maps cover the periods from the Paleolithic to the present. It should be noted that the place names for every town, city, and region change in the course of its history, and in some instances, within a single historical period. As a disclaimer, to the best of their capacity, the editors have chosen the place names likely used during the historical time period featured. Some maps, due to the dearth of contemporaneous maps, utilize present-day boundaries and place names.

It should also be noted that the atlas was made in consideration of the ongoing arbitration case of the Philippines in the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS). As such, the "West Philippine Sea," that maritime area on the western side of the archipelago which includes the Luzon Sea, as well as the waters around, within and adjacent to the Kalayaan Island Group and Bajo de Masinloc, as declared by virtue of the Administrative Order No. 29, s. 2012, would only appear chronologically on the last featured map of this atlas. All maps are drawn for illustration purposes only and without prejudice to the delineation of other domains over which the Republic of the Philippines exercises sovereignty and claims jurisdiction.

The creation of the Historical Atlas entailed months of dedicated research, study, and analysis of period maps and authoritative documents from a variety of government and private organizations, as well as the consultation of numerous experts in Philippine history. The Historical Atlas is the first of its kind in the Philippines, and the PCDSPO is proud to be the first to attempt such an endeavor. We hope this will prove an invaluable reference and resource for educators, students, journalists, historians, and the public at large.



Map courtesy of the National Mapping and Resource Information Authority (NAMRIA)

Foreword

A map can tell the historian a number of things: it can show the extent of cartographic expertise during a certain period in history; trace the changes of a country's territorial boundaries through the course of war, conquest, and diplomacy; and chart the movements of a trading ship, a religious order, or a revolutionary army in advance or retreat. However, never in this country's history has there ever been an historical atlas that details the scope and scale of the events that have shaped our nation.

Months of painstaking research, fact-checking, writing, and layout have resulted in a valuable resource that is not only easily comprehendible, but also visually appealing. Our researchers exhausted various sources: scholarly books and journal articles, old Spanish maps, newspapers, military action reports, letters, contemporary reports and documents, memoirs, diaries, and photogravures. We consulted experts in archaeology, military history, cartography, maritime history, economics, and other fields. We hope these articles and maps will prove an invaluable resource for all, even and especially those with little to no formal background in Philippine history.

This project has been made possible by the invaluable assistance of experts in their field, by a team of talented young people, and the lively interest of the public, which has seen many of these maps in their initial versions published online in the Official Gazette (www.gov.ph), the Presidential Museum and Library website (www.malacanang.gov.ph).

Manuel L. Quezon III
Editor in Chief
Historical Atlas of the Republic

Prehistory

The archipelago has been inhabited long before recorded history*. The earliest human remains found in the Philippines were in Callao Cave, Cagayan, which date back to 67,000 years BP. Archaeological sites abound in the archipelago demonstrating strong evidence of human activity from the Pleistocene to the arrival of the Spaniards. Early Chinese records show that prior to European contact, most of the major islands in the archipelago had a rich political landscape consisting of chiefdoms of varying economic scale and social hierarchy. These records date back to as early as the tenth century, mentioning traders from Mindoro, Butuan, Sulu, and Maguindanao transacting with other kingdoms and sultanates in Southeast Asia.

This section includes a map tracing the peopling of the Philippines, a map of different archaeological sites in the country, a map of precolonial polities and sultanates in the archipelago, as well as a map showing trade routes in the Philippines, from the 10th to the 16th century.

*Since the Pleistocene—an epoch which spanned from 1.5 million years BP to 11,700 years BP. BP means Before Present, the international standard used for reporting ages in archaeology, where 0 BP is the year 1950 (after Dincauze, 2000). The reference to the year 1950 refers to the date of the first published radiocarbon date in archaeology (after Henson, 2012).

MAP 1: The Peopling of the Philippines and Archaeological Sites in the Philippines

The archipelago had been occupied since the Pleistocene,[1] an epoch which spanned from 1.5 million years BP to 11,700 years BP, and which was characterized by lower sea levels—around 120 to 140 meters below the present level. Hunting and gathering was mode of subsistence, and mammals such as elephas and stegodons existed.[2] Evidence of the period was found in a human metatarsal bone found in Callao Cave in Cagayan Valley, dated to 67,000 years BP.[3] Tabon Cave in Palawan also yielded human remains, including a tibia bone dated 47,000 BP, and stone tools dated to as early as 30,500 BP.[4] These settlers are hypothesized to be from the south, having migrated to the Philippines via Borneo, Palawan,[5] and Mindoro.[6] This migration was attributed to the sea level rise that happened between 15,000 and 7,000 years ago, which drowned Sundaland and inspired a fundamental cause for Paleolithic people to move to nearby regions like the Philippines.[7]

There are several contending models accounting for the present population of the Philippines. In one of the hypotheses, *Mainland Origin of Austronesians*, posited by Peter Bellwood, it is proposed that proto-Austronesians migrated from present-day Taiwan[8] [9] to the northern Philippines,[10] and further dispersed to the southern Philippines, Borneo, Sulawesi, and the Moluccas in 3,000 to 2,000 years BP.[11] [12] The Austronesians were associated with the Neolithic period (9,000 to 4,000 years BP), and were known for their agricultural development, tools such as stone adzes, shell artefacts,[13] and pottery.[14]

Another model was proposed by Wilhelm G. Solheim II. This was known as the *Nusantao Maritime Trading and Communication Network*. The Nusantao were early maritime-oriented inhabitants "in the southeastern islands of Southeast Asia around 5,000 BC or possibly earlier," which were connected to the rest of Southeast Asia.[15] [16] Based on archaeological finds such as pottery and shell tools, it was hypothesized that the Nusantao trading network originated in the Celebes Sea area, and extended northward, crossing the Batanes–Formosa Strait to Taiwan.[17]

Filipino anthropologist F. Landa Jocano disagreed with the diffusionist model and proposed a local and internal development model for the region. The earliest development in Philippine prehistory was termed the Formative phase, which referred to the technological development and cultural adaptation that took place during the Pleistocene.[18] This was followed by the Incipient phase which was characterized by the development of metal tools and pottery[19] and the Emergent phase which was the beginning of trade by local inhabitants to other parts of Asia and the Middle East.[20]

Archaeological Sites in the Philippines

The Paleolithic period in the Philippines spans from approximately 800,000 to 9,000 years BP. Archaeological materials associated with the Paleolithic Philippines include flake-and-pebble-tool technology used by hunter-gatherer groups.[21] Examples of Paleolithic sites in the Philippines are the Early Man Site in Kalinga, dated to 800,000 years BP; the Callao Cave in Cagayan Valley, dated to 67,000 years BP; and the Tabon Cave in Palawan, dated to 47,000 years BP.

The Neolithic phase spans from approximately 9,000 to 4,000 BP, commonly associated with assemblages such as polished stone tools, bone and slate projectile points, and a tradition of pottery,[22] as well as evidence for food production and the domestication of animals.[23] A relevant Neolithic site is the Torongan Cave in Batanes, which yielded red-slipped pottery dating to 4,502 to 3,108 years BP.[24] [25]

The Metal phase spans from 4,000 to 1,000 years BP; it does not have a well-delineated bronze and iron period like in other countries. It is recognized, though, that the bronze objects were made and used earlier than the iron objects.[26] Archaeological finds indicate elaborate decorations in pottery,as well as primary and secondary burial practices. The Maitum Cave in Sarangani, and the Bacong and Magsuhot sites in Negros Oriental are examples of Metal phase sites.[27]

The Age of Contact spans from 1,450 BP to 330 BP, and is associated with materials such as Chinese porcelain, glass beads, metals, and a society divided into chiefdoms. A site in Butuan corresponds with this age, dated to 1150 to 650 years BP.

MAP 2: Polities and Sultanates in the 10th to 16th Century Philippines

Prior to the time of European contact, most of the major islands in the Philippines had a rich political landscape consisting of polities*[28] known as chiefdoms of different economic scale and hierarchical complexity. These societies were integrated into a regional network through local-based trading and raiding activities. The chief, who played a central role in the political and economic well being of the polity, controlled and mobilized the goods to create alliances among and between polities.[29] Early polities in the Philippines put primacy on alliance networking rather than territorial conquest in expanding their political power. These networks derived their legitimacy in three ways: the circulation of prestige goods, marriage, and ritual feasting.

The chiefdoms of P'u-tuan (present-day Butuan), Ma-i (present-day Mindoro), Sulu, and Maguindanao have been well documented by the Chinese as early as the 10th century. *Sung Shih* described P'u-tuan as a small area near the Agusan River in northeastern Mindanao. It was an expanding polity that participated and competed in the Maluku spice trade with the rest of insular Southeast Asia. Some of the archaeological evidence found in the area come in the form of earthenware, Sung porcelain, iron and bronze tools, gold ornaments, and wooden boats dating to approximately 8th to 13th centuries.[30] [31]

Ma-i was described in the 10th century as a maritime polity of at least a thousand inhabitants, located south of Luzon. During the Sung dynasty, Ma-i was a central port for trade shipments along the Kwantung coast. Archaeological sites in Ma-i yielded porcelain items that suggest lucrative foreign trade and settlement in the 11th and 12th century.[32]

Santa Ana (in present-day Manila) is hypothesized to be an organized, complex polity in the 10th century. This conclusion was based on the density of prestige goods excavated from the area. In the Santa Ana Church, archaeologists found a midden deposit of Chinese ceramics, shells, and bones of pig and deer, and water buffalo alongside human burials.[33] [34] Specifically, in the churchyard, 202 burials were uncovered, accompanied by tradeware ceramics from the Sung and Yuan/ early Ming dynasties.[35]

In the late 13th century, Sulu, the precursor of the Islamic sultanate centered in present-day Jolo, was known as one of the important foreign polities that sent trade shipments to south China.[36] The earliest account of Sulu is recorded in *Chu-Fa-Chih* in 1225. Described as small islands off the coast of Borneo, Sulu is described as the source of laka-wood, yellow wax, tortoise shells, pearls, and raw aromatics. Sulu's people are associated to have the same customs as the northern Borneans.[37] The Ming Annals chronicled that the rulers of Sulu and Maguindanao were termed "monarch" or "king," similar to the rulers of Melaka.[38]

In the 15th century, Manila was mentioned in Chinese text as a town with a palisade made of coconut trunks with at least 2,000 residents.[39] There was also an elaborate house compound owned by Rajah Sulayman, the chief of Manila. European accounts described Manila as a chief center that controlled most of southeastern Luzon, including the coastal villages in the Calatagan peninsula and other nearby polities such as Tondo and Santa Ana.[40]

In the 15th to 16th century, Cebu was considered as one of the most important chieftaincies in the Philippines.[41] Spanish accounts chronicled that Magellan and Legazpi have encountered "chiefs, kings, and rajas" in Cebu.[42] Excavations in Cebu yielded porcelain, mostly in the form of dishes, plates, and bowls, most likely used to serve food in elite-sponsored feasts. There were also locally made materials such as jewelry, iron knives and daggers, copper rings, clay and glass beads, and bracelets made of glass and shell.[43]

In the early to mid-16th century, Maguindanao was the other sultanate in Mindanao, described as the "most powerful and best known polity [...] strong enough to dominate its neighbors [...] that the Portuguese, Spanish, and Dutch applied its name to the whole of Mindanao island."[44] Its influence reached to Zamboanga peninsula, Cagayan de Oro, Sarangani Bay, and Davao.[45]

*Archaeologist Colin Renfrew defines a polity as a political organization, a self- governing group of people, generally occupying a well-defined area. Laura Lee Junker emphasizes that Philippine polities lack the scale, complexity, bureaucracies, institutionalization, and economy systems similar to Southeast Asian kingdoms and states. Their structures are more consistent with the characteristics of a complex chiefdom or paramount chiefdom.

MAP 3: Trade Routes in the 10th to 16th Century Philippines

As early as the 10th century, there were already traders from Ma-i (present-day Mindoro) who came to Canton in China. Within the same period, P'u-tuan (present-day Butuan) and Sanmalan (present-day Zamboanga) also took part in the trade.[46] Butuan was reported to have sent three trade missions to China from 10th to 11th century.[47] The Bureau of Maritime Trade in Fujian, China reported other merchants from various Philippine islands: Ma-i; Baipuer (present-day Babuyan Islands); and Sandao or Sanyu, a term used collectively to refer to the following areas: Jamayan (present-day Calamian), Balaoyou (present-day Palawan), and Pulihuan (near present-day Manila). Trade continued until the Yuan dynasty (13th to 14th centuries).[48]

In the 13th to 14th century, the so-called eastern trade route, composed of Quanzhou, the Sulu zone, northern Borneo, Celebes, and the Moluccas prospered. During this time, ceramics from Fujian were distributed in the Philippines and Borneo.[49] Furthermore, archaeologists made a case that Chinese traders established bases in Laguna, Mindoro, and Manila. Archaeological evidence points to urban settlements of over 500 households in these regions, including Cebu.[50]

Around 9th to 12th century, Chinese texts highlighted the rise of Champa (present-day Vietnam) as an important entrepot within the network. From there, there were routes going to Mindoro and northern Mindoro. These routes converge in the Sulu Zone.[51]

In the 14th century, the *Song Huiyao* cites that Butuan paid regular tributes to China.[52] Yuan and Song dynasty sources also indicated the existence of trade links between continental Southeast Asia, northern Borneo, and the Philippines. It was assumed that once a ship went to Brunei, or arrived in the Sulu Sea, it either continued its way into the Celebes Sea or its cargo was in part transferred to other vessels sailing in that direction. Sulu existed as a trading zone through which the Moluccas was supplied with goods such as Indian textiles or ivory from Champa, while China and Southeast Asia received eastern Indonesian produce.[53]

In the 15th century, Portuguese sources chronicled a trade route connecting Malacca, Borneo, and the Philippines. Tomé Pires, a Portuguese conqueror, recounted that the Lucoes (present-day Luzon) merchants have at least two of three Chinese junks and took their merchandise to Borneo and Malacca. Gold brought by the Borneans to Malacca came from Luzon and the surrounding islands of the Philippines. Together with other Filipinos, they operated their own network of trade routes, which can be inferred from the 16th century accounts by the Spaniards.[54]

This trade network, commonly known as the Brunei network, spread to the northern Philippines in the late 15th to early and mid-16th century. Bruneian traders regularly visited Manila at this time. A second network was observed to be in Sulu, southern Mindanao, and the Moluccas. There was a clear-cut division between these two networks: there were no Brunei traders reported in the Moluccas and no Sulu merchants in Malacca.[55]

Beginning in the 16th century, with Southeast Asia participating in a new pattern of world trade involving Asia and Europe, the Philippines participated in three of the seven major trade routes during this time. The first moved from east to west, with southern China as the center; trade goods passed through the ports in northern Philippines, and along the Vietnam coast and the Gulf of Thailand, down the east coast of the Malay peninsula. In the second, ports extended eastward to the Spice Islands, and the southwestern ports of Sulawesi were connected northward along the south and east coast of Borneo, to the island of Mindanao, and westward to the ports of the east coast of Sumatra.[56] The third, the backdoor passageway to the Spice Islands from the China and Vietnam coastlines, was centered in the Sulu Sea region, and included the Philippine coasts of Luzon, Mindoro, Cebu, and Mindanao; the Brunei region of Borneo's northern coast; the eastern Indonesian archipelago's Spice Islands; and south China's ports.[57]

Spanish Colonial Period

In an attempt to chart a westward route from Spain to the Spice Islands (Moluccas), Portuguese explorer Ferdinand Magellan reached the Philippines in 1521. Although Magellan was killed in the Battle of Mactan, Juan Sebastián del Cano, one of the expedition's pilots, led the remaining men back to Spain, completing the first circumnavigation of the world. It took four more expeditions before Spain took a foothold in the Philipiines. Fifty years after Magellan's expedition, Miguel López de Legazpi established the Spanish city of Manila. Spain retained its foothold in Asia for more than three hundred years, until the outbreak of the Philippine Revolution and the Spanish–American War.

This section includes a map charting initial Spanish expeditions to the islands: a map showing the growth of the Spanish colony, a map charting the foreign invasions of Spanish Philippines, a map of the Manila-Acapulco Galleon Trade, a map tracing ecclesiastical growth within the Philippines, a map charting the rebellions prior to the Philippine Revolution, and a map of Southeast Asia during the height of western colonialism.

MAP 4: Initial Spanish Expeditions

In the early 16th century, Spain launched expeditions to access the Asian spice trade, which led to the Spanish discovery of the Philippines. Ferdinand Magellan, a Portuguese navigator who swore fealty to Spain, embarked on a voyage to discover a western route to the Spice Islands (Moluccas).[58] Reaching Malacca through India in an earlier expedition in 1511, Magellan sailed from Spain on September 20, 1519.[59] Magellan's fleet then entered the southern end of South America, now known as the Strait of Magellan. Upon crossing the strait in 1520, Magellan entered an ocean he named *El Mar Pacifico*.[60] A few months later, on March 17, 1521, the fleet reached Homonhon, an island in the archipelago he named *Islas de San Lazaro*. Magellan was killed by warriors of the chieftain Lapu-Lapu, during the Battle of Mactan on April 27, 1521. Juan Sebastián del Cano led what was left of fleet and reached Seville, Spain on September 8, 1522; completing the first circumnavigation of the world.

Two unsuccessful attempts followed. Garcia Jofre de Loaísa's expedition, piloted by del Cano, left La Coruña, Spain, on July 24, 1525. On July 30, 1526, upon crossing the Strait of Magellan, Loaísa died of sickness. Del Cano soon followed; he died on August 4. Sailing past the Caroline Islands, the remaining crew landed in Moluccas and were captured by the Portuguese. On October 31, 1527, Álvaro de Saavedra set sail from New Spain (Mexico) to gather news of what has become of the Loaísa expedition. Upon discovering the correct route to cross the Pacific from Mexico, Saavedra reached Surigao and headed to Moluccas. Unable to find the return route to Mexico, Saavedra surrendered to the Portuguese.

On November 1, 1542, Ruy López de Villalobos began his expedition and reached Mindanao on February 2, 1543. Villalobos eventually landed in Leyte. He named it *Felipinas* in honor of Philip II of Spain. Unable to discover the return route, Villalobos surrendered to the Portuguese. He died in Moluccas on April 25, 1546. On November 21, 1564, Miguel López de Legazpi departed from New Spain with Fray Andrés de Urdaneta, a survivor of the Loaísa expedition. Legazpi reached Samar on February 13, 1565. In the same year, Urdaneta discovered the Tornaviaje, the return route to New Spain. Legazpi established the Spanish City of Manila on June 24, 1571.

MAP 5: Growth of the Colony

In 1569, the Spanish crown conferred Miguel López de Legazpi the titles "Governor and Captain-General" and *Adelantado* of the islands that comprised the Philippine archipelago. He was commissioned to further explore and colonize the territory.[61] Upon establishing the Spanish settlement of Manila in 1571, Legazpi ordered several expeditions to Christianize the indigenous population and to survey the archipelago. He also imposed the encomienda system, which apportioned the conquered territories and its population among distinguished colonists known as encomenderos.[62] The encomenderos were granted tax collecting privileges in return for spreading the Catholic faith and administering justice within their lands. The religious orders tasked with the conversion of the inhabitants proved vital in the colonization efforts. The missionaries studied the customs of the population and established missionary settlements and parishes throughout the islands. These churches would later become centers of Spanish towns and the foundation of the pueblos.

With Legazpi's death on August 20, 1572, his successors, beginning with Guido de Lavezares, continued the colonization. He sent Juan de Salcedo on a campaign to the northern coast of Luzon, while Martin de Goiti conquered the areas of Zambales, Pangasinan, and Ilocos. By 1573, Salcedo explored the gold mines of Paracale in the Bicol region,[63] which led to the conquest of Albay[64] and Camarines.[65] By the end of the 16th century, most of Cagayan Valley was under Spanish administration.[66]

Provinces and cities were created with an administrative organization that incorporated indigenous elements into the imperial framework, such as Cebu, Manila, Nueva Cáceres (Naga), Villa Fernandina (Vigan), and Nueva Segovia (Lal-lo). However, the colonial government was unable to completely control the entire archipelago up until the end of its rule. Areas in Mindanao and the Cordilleras proved to be difficult to administer. With the unsuccessful expeditions beginning in 1578 and the prevailing Moro raids, the Spanish authorities only managed to put up garrisons in strategic locations in Mindanao such as Zamboanga, Jolo, Basilan, and Iligan.[67] In the Cordillera, it was only in 1829 that the Spaniards were able to establish a foothold in the area.[68]

MAP 6: Ecclesiastical Establishment for the First Hundred Years of the Spanish Colonial Rule

In the early 15th century, the Papacy entrusted the Spanish Crown with the administration of new churches on newly acquired lands by virtue of Royal Patronage.[69] Thus, upon the acquisition of the Philippines, the Spanish Crown delegated various religious orders to the islands to perform the specific task of Christianizing its population.

On April 27, 1594, the Council of the Indies in Spain issued a royal cedula[70] which divided the Philippines among the religious orders at the time, until a Filipino secular clergy could be appointed. The majority of the Tagalog area was administered by the Augustinians (who arrived in 1565) and the Franciscans (who arrived in 1578). The Augustinians also assumed responsibilities in Pampanga and Ilocos. The Franciscans established missions in the Bicol area, while the Dominicans (who arrived in 1587) administered in the areas of Pangasinan and the Cagayan Valley. The islands of Visayas were divided between the Jesuits (who arrived in 1581) and the Augustinians.[71] The Jesuits also opened missions in Mindanao, Dapitan, Zamboanga, and Jolo.[72] The Augustinian Recollects, the last order to arrive in the archipelago, were entrusted with the remaining parishes in the Philippines. By 1768, the Jesuits were expelled from the islands, returning in 1859, when they resumed their efforts in Mindanao.[73]

To adequately indoctrinate the inhabitants to Christianity, the Spanish authorities relocated the residents of scattered settlements (barrios) into compact villages in the capitals (cabeceras or poblacions).[74] Visita chapels were built, located upvalley and in the foothills, to reach the residents of the barrios, as the cabecera churches became the capital of the parishes.[75]

Initially, the first bishop of Manila, Domingo de Salazar, petitioned King Philip II of Spain to establish a seminary where a "native priesthood" could receive proper training. This was approved in 1585, but nothing was done due to lack of funds.[76] Eventually, due to a shortage of ordained priests, Filipinos began to be ordained as secular priests beginning in 1621.[77] The expulsion of the Jesuits in 1768 also brought about increased indigenization of parishes, specifically those in Manila, Cebu, Naga, Lal-lo, Lubang, Negros, and Siquijor.

MAP 7: Manila - Acapulco Galleon Trade

Lasting two and a half centuries (1568–1815), the Manila - Acapulco galleon trade transformed the Philippine colony into a Spanish regional center of trade in Southeast Asia. The Philippines was opened up for world commerce as the galleon trade attracted products from different parts of the world. The galleons bound for Mexico transported trade goods such as spices from the Moluccas, pepper from Java and Sumatra, carpets from Persia, cinnamon from Ceylon, ivory from Cambodia, silverware from Japan, silk from China, and cotton textiles from India. Philippine exports included gold, wax, cordage and cotton textiles from Cebu, Lubang, Manila, and Ilocos.[78]

By the early 17th century, the galleon trade made Manila the first premiere city in the region in terms of social complexity and economic prosperity. However, the fortune from the trade benefitted only a portion of privileged Spaniards. Filipinos, on the other hand, were exposed to exploitation—the great majority of the galleons used for trading were made in Cavite, Albay, Masbate, Mindoro, Pangasinan, and Bagatao in Sorsogon Bay, where laborers were pressed to work in the shipyards under *polo y servicio*. They were given the hard task of cutting and transporting timber to the coast and the construction of the galleons in the shipyards and were paid less than the Spanish sailors. These conditions led to the Pampanga revolt in 1660.[79]

During the 1790s, the galleon trade declined due to competition with European commerce, especially in the demand for textile.[80] In 1810, the Mexican Revolution broke out, and by 1813, the suspension of the galleon trade was proposed. The Manila - Acapulco galleon trade was formally abolished on September 14, 1815. Throughout the history of the longest shipping line, the galleon trade used 108 galleons; 30 of these were lost by shipwreck or capture.[81] The last galleon to head back to Manila in 1815 was the *Magallanes*. As the Spaniards were drawn to the profits of the trade, they largely neglected the agricultural and industrial development in the Philippines. By doing so, the Philippines was unintentionally exempted from the harsh conditions of the plantation system and slave trade common to other Spanish colonies.[82]

MAP 8: British Occupation of Manila and Other Security Threats from 1600 to 1764

The Philippines became an important colony of Spain—it was its entrepot and Catholic outpost in Asia. Such importance became the cause of threats from within and without, which challenged the Spanish dominion over the archipelago.

Pirate Raids

From the late 16th to the early 19th century, provinces in the archipelago were frequently raided by groups from Maguindanao, Sulu and Palawan.[83] A practice existing from the precolonial era, Moro raids acquired captives to be traded in Southeast Asia.[84] The raids were mainly in response to drastic economic and political changes in the region. Major Moro raids in the Visayas from 1599 to 1604 were in response to Spanish attempts to subdue Maguindanao and Sulu, such as the Esteban de Rodriguez expedition in 1596.[85] In 1609, the Fort of Tandag[86] was established in Caraga,[87] resulting in the decline of the raids from 1604 to 1635.[88] In 1617, the Dutch threat in the Philippines led the Moros to attack Cavite. It resulted in the deaths of 200 people and the capture of 400 workers.[89] Up until its decline in the mid-19th century, Moro raids disrupted trade and inflicted heavy casualties in the archipelago.

Limahong Attacks Manila

On November 23, 1574, the Chinese pirate Limahong (Lin Feng or Lim Hong)[90] landed and pillaged the town of Sinait (now in Ilocos Sur). His forces then attempted to occupy Manila on the 30th of November. Although greatly outnumbered, the Spanish forces were able to defend the city. Limahong attacked again on December 2 of the same year, but was forced to a northern retreat by the forces of Juan de Salcedo. Limahong took refuge in Lingayen for eight months before escaping on August 4, 1575.

Chinese Uprisings

Due to the ill treatment and the imposition of heavy taxes by the Spaniards, the Chinese residents of Manila led the first Chinese uprising in 1603. This was suppressed by Spanish forces, leading to the massacre of approximately 20,000 Chinese.[91] In 1639, a group of Chinese in the southern coast of Laguna launched a rebellion against forced labor. The revolt quickly spread to the neighboring towns of the then province of Tondo (area of present-day Rizal), Cavite, and Manila, but was quelled by Spanish forces, resulting in another massacre of the Chinese population. Discrimination, heavy taxation, and forced labor pushed the Chinese to revolt again in 1662, 1686, and 1762.

Dutch Invasion Attempts

In the late 16th century the Dutch increased their interest in the East Indies. In 1598, Dutch troops defeated the combined forces of Spain and Portugal, leading to the establishment of trading settlements in Java and Johore. On December 14, 1600, the Spanish fleet led by Antonio de Morga engaged the Dutch forces led by Olivier van Noort in the first major naval battle in Manila Bay. The Dutch launched numerous attempts to invade the archipelago from 1609 to 1647. From March 15 to October 4, 1646, the Spanish fleet defended the archipelago in a series of major Dutch offensives, known as the battles of La Naval de Manila. In 1648, as Spain recognized Dutch independence by virtue of the Treaty of Westphalia, Dutch aggression over the archipelago ceased.[92]

British Occupation of Manila

During the Seven Years War between France and Great Britain (1756-1763), the British fleet under the command of Rear Admiral Samuel Cornish and Brigadier General William Draper was dispatched from the British colony in India to conquer the colonies of Spain, a French ally, in Southeast Asia. On September 23, 1762, the British arrived in Manila and commenced the invasion of the city the following day. The Spanish forces, led by the Archbishop of Manila and acting Governor General Miguel Rojo, ordered the defense of the city. The Spanish resistance proved futile as British forces took over the fort of Polvorista and the whole of Malate. On October 6, 1762, British troops advanced to Intramuros, forcing the surrender of Manila. On February 10, 1763, the Treaty of Paris was signed between France, Great Britain, and Spain marking the end of the war. In May 31, 1764,[93] the British troops left Manila and returned the authority of the capital to Spain.[94]

MAP 9: Height of Western Colonialism in Southeast Asia

In the late 19th century to early 20th century, western colonialism spread and intensified in Southeast Asia, greatly affecting the region's economy, politics, territories, and its people.[95] It was motivated by the search for raw materials and the desire to establish strategic entrepots for trade. With Spain and Portugal's colonial dominion in decline, the major colonizers of the so-called age of "High Imperialism" were the Netherlands, Great Britain, France, and the United States.[96] Although expansion and control varied from one colony to another, some of the colonial administrations became involved in public instruction, healthcare, and agriculture in varying degrees.[97]

The process was episodic and was heavily directed at major cities and capitals[98] of Southeast Asia, such as Manila, Cebu, Makassar, Surabaya, Batavia, Medan, Singapore, Saigon, Hanoi, Bangkok, and Rangoon. They became centers of finance, trade, and colonial administration as well as centers for western education, exchange of ideas and concepts on politics, science, and technology.[99] The French colonized northern Vietnam, including the people of Laos, Cambodia, and the rest of Indochina. The British instituted an indirect way of controlling Burma by turning it into a province of India.[100] They expanded their control of the Malay Peninsula; they acquired Penang in 1786, Singapore in 1819, and Malacca in 1824.[101] The Netherlands controlled parts of Indonesia, demolishing the kingdoms of Bali and Aceh in the archipelago. The United States of America replaced Spain in the Philippines, demolished the First Philippine Republic, and conquered Mindanao and Sulu.[102]

The height of western colonialism came about due to a number of factors. Europe's economic power had solidified at this time because of the increase in industrialization in its nations. Western technology has improved transcontinental transportation and communications. Western states have also allowed for the rise of private entities that have bolstered technology and enterprise, helping the West grow more powerful in comparison to Asian powerhouses such as India and China, while the modernization of Japan, and its annexation of Taiwan in 1895, both threatened and inspired the West out of complacency.[103]

MAP 10: Rebellions prior to the Philippine Revolution

Throughout Spanish colonial rule, several revolts were launched in opposition to Spain. Racial discrimination, the collection of tribute, and corvée labor (statutory labor) were some of the conditions that led Filipinos to arms against the colonizers.

In 1574, Rajah Sulayman and Lakandula, dissatisfied with the ill-kept promise of the Spaniards to exempt their families and descendants from taxes, attacked the Spanish citadel in Manila. The rebellion was suppressed through the intervention of Juan de Salcedo, who assured the leaders that the Spanish promises would be kept. In 1621, motivated by a desire to return to the ancient religion, the native priest Tamblot influenced Boholanos to abandon Christianity. A Spanish expeditionary force later subdued the revolt.[104]

In the 17th to 18th centuries, the growing opposition to Spanish impositions, such as the collection of tributes, the provincial commodity quota known as *bandala*, and *polo y servicio*, which required male Filipinos from 16 to 60 years of age to render services for 40 days, led to several revolts. In 1660, Francisco Maniago led an uprising against the *polo* and *bandala* systems in Pampanga. An agreement was reached between the Spaniards and Maniago which suppressed the uprising. In Bohol, angered by the refusal of a priest to administer a Christian burial to his brother who was killed in a duel, Francisco Dagohoy led an uprising in 1744. Dagohoy and his followers moved into the mountains as an act of defiance. The Dagohoy revolt lasted for 85 years before being suppressed in 1829.[105]

Around the time of the British Occupation of Manila in 1762, Diego Silang, seeing the opportunity, led a revolt in Ilocos against forced labor and tribute. Upon Silang's assassination, the revolt was continued by his wife, Gabriela Silang, until it was subdued in 1763.[106]

In 1872, arsenal workers in Cavite launched a mutiny and seized Fort San Felipe. The mutiny was swiftly subdued and the alleged leaders were executed. Secular priests José Burgos, Mariano Gómez, and Jacinto Zamora were unjustly accused as mutiny leaders and were executed on February 17, 1872. Their martyrdom contributed to the formation of a nationalist consciousness that would ultimately erupt as the Philippine Revolution.[107]

The Philippine Revolution

After the Spanish authorities discovered the Katipunan, the first phase of the Philippine Revolution commenced with the Cry of the Revolution in August 1896. It was the first nationalist revolution in Asia. In its early stages, the Revolution was led by Katipunan founder Andres Bonifacio. Following Bonifacio's execution in 1897, the leadership of the Revolution passed to General Emilio Aguinaldo. The first phase ended in a truce, resulting in Aguinaldo's temporary exile to Hong Kong. In 1898, the United States declared war against Spain, and Aguinaldo returned with American assistance, marking the beginning of the second phase of the Revolution.

This section includes a map charting the outbreak of the Philippine Revolution, a map tracing General Emilio Aguinaldo's journey to and from Hong Kong, and a map of the American capture of Manila and its subsequent movements.

MAP 11: Outbreak of the Philippine Revolution

With the Spanish discovery of the existence of the Katipunan, the secret society which aimed for Philippine independence from Spain through armed revolution, its members in Manila and in the nearby provinces of Cavite, Rizal, Batangas, Bulacan, Bataan, Laguna, Pampanga, and Nueva Ecija immediately rose up in arms against the Spanish authorities. Andrés Bonifacio, in the presence of many Katipuneros, tore his cedula as a sign of defiance and independence from Spanish colonial authorities. The place and the date of this event remains debatable, as some, like Pio Valenzuela, testified that it happened on August 23, 1896. Recent scholarship, however, suggests that the Cry happened on August 24.[108] [109] This event, known in official history as the Cry of Pugad Lawin, signalled the beginning of the Revolution.

From August 29 to 30, 1896, simultaneous uprisings began in towns surrounding Manila and in the province of Cavite. Although the assault by Bonifacio against a Spanish powder magazine at San Juan del Monte failed, other actions taken against the Spaniards, especially in Cavite, were successful. When it was launched, the Philippine Revolution became the first nationalist revolution in Asia. On August 30, 1896, Spanish Governor General Ramon Blanco issued an order placing the revolting provinces in a state of war and under martial law. By August 31, 1896, as Bonifacio was regrouping in Marikina following his setback, Emilio Aguinaldo, a Katipunan leader in Cavite, managed to defeat the local Spanish garrison at Kawit wherein the enemy commander of the Guardia Civil was killed.

The following months were used by Bonifacio to reorganize his forces at bases on the foothills east of Manila, while Mariano Llanera attacked Spanish outposts in the province of Nueva Ecija and the forces of Aguinaldo continued to expand their control over the province of Cavite. On September 5, 1896, Aguinaldo won a great victory over Spanish General Ernesto Aguirre in the Battle of Imus; he was then proclaimed a general of the revolution. In contrast, Bonifacio suffered another defeat at the hands of the Spanish defenders of San Mateo, wherein he was almost killed by a bullet that grazed his collar while shielding Emilio Jacinto, Katipunan's Secretary of State. The combat record of both Bonifacio and Aguinaldo would set the stage for the eventual showdown between the two a few months later at the Tejeros Convention.

Cavite was seen by the Spaniards as a major front of operations, it being adjacent to Manila. A great effort was exerted to wrest it away from the revolutionaries. On November 8, 1896, Spanish warships bombarded the towns of Cavite El Viejo (Kawit), Bacoor, and Noveleta. The following day, the Spaniards mounted an offensive led by General Diego de los Ríos, and one of its columns, led by Colonel Jose Marina, advanced to Binakayan. The Spanish offensive experienced fierce resistance from the Filipinos and a Spanish column coming from Cavite El Viejo was pushed back almost to its starting point at the town of Caridad.

On December 30, 1896, José Rizal was executed by firing squad on trumped up charges of rebellion as part of a reign of terror to quell the revolution. This injustice further fanned the flames of unrest.

Meanwhile in Cavite, tensions arose between the Katipunan factions Magdalo and Magdiwang. In order to address the issue, Bonifacio withdrew from Manila, which was heavily defended by the Spaniards, and proceeded to Cavite, accepting the invitation of the Magdiwang. On March 22, 1897, in the presence of Bonifacio, the Tejeros Convention was assembled to establish a Revolutionary Government. An election was held where Aguinaldo was elected President, and Bonifacio as Minister of the Interior. However, Bonifacio was provoked by Daniel Tirona, who challenged his credentials for the position, leading Bonifacio to call off the convention. He decried the assembly as disorderly and tarnished by chicanery. This declaration and the intention of starting a government anew would later cost Bonifacio his life. He would be tried for treason by a kangaroo court and sentenced to death at Maragondon, Cavite, on May 10, 1897. With the defeat of the revolutionary forces on several fronts, they retreated to Biak-na-Bato, where the Spanish authorities and revolutionary forces would reach a settlement, ending the first phase of the Philippine Revolution.

MAP 12: General Emilio Aguinaldo's Journey

The first phase of the Philippine Revolution ended with the Pact of Biak-na-Bato on December 15, 1897. The truce between the Spanish authorities under Governor General Primo de Rivera and the Filipino revolutionaries represented by Pedro Paterno, demanded the voluntary exile of General Emilio Aguinaldo and his companions; in turn, Spanish authorities would pay 800,000 pesos to the revolutionaries in three installments, and provide another 900,000 pesos as indemnity to the families of civilian casualties.

In accordance with the pact, Aguinaldo and his companions began their journey, traveling to Calumpit, Bulacan on December 23, 1897. The group then passed through Dagupan before reaching the port of Sual in Pangasinan on December 27, 1897. On the same day, they sailed to Hong Kong, arriving on December 31.[110]

Two days after the United States declared war on Spain, on April 21, 1898,[111] American Consul-General E. Spencer Pratt met with Aguinaldo in Singapore. In this meeting, Pratt sought the support of Aguinaldo against Spain, as Aguinaldo expressed his eagerness to return to the Philippines. Pratt then cabled Commodore George Dewey in Hong Kong and arranged for the return of Aguinaldo to the Philippines.

Aguinaldo left Singapore on April 26, 1898, and arrived in Hong Kong on May 1, 1898,[112] but failed to meet Dewey, who had sailed for Manila on April 25. The American Consul at Hong Kong, Rounsevelle Wildman, met Aguinaldo and informed him about Dewey's instructions to make arrangements for his return to the Philippines. On May 17, 1898, Aguinaldo sailed from Hong Kong to the Philippines on board the *USS McCulloch*. He arrived in Cavite on May 19, 1898. The return of Aguinaldo signalled the resumption of the Philippine Revolution against Spain.

MAP 13: The American Capture of Manila and Subsequent Movements (August 13, 1898)

Battle of Manila Bay

On April 27, 1898, the U.S. Asiatic Squadron led by Commodore George Dewey sailed from Mirs Bay near Hong Kong to launch an attack against the Spanish fleet in the Philippines. On May 1, 1898, at 5:15 a.m., Dewey and his fleet entered Manila Bay as the Spanish fleet of Admiral Patricio Montojo lay at anchor near Sangley Point, Cavite. The Spanish navy in Cavite outnumbered the American fleet, however, the Spaniards were heavily outgunned by the more advanced American ships.

At 5:41 a.m., the U.S. squadron began the offensive, sinking eight Spanish ships. These ships were: the *Reina Cristina, Don Antonio de Ulloa, Don Juan de Austria, Isla de Luzón, Isla de Cuba, Velasco,* and *Argos*. By 12:40 p.m., the destruction of the Spanish fleet was completed, resulting to the surrender of the Spanish navy.

Mock Battle of Manila

On August 13, 1898, the so-called Mock Battle of Manila between American and Spanish forces was staged. It was called a mock battle because the engagements had already been planned—from the shot to the last, to the theatrical surrender of the Spanish to the Americans.

At 9:45 a.m., the American cruiser *Olympia* and the gunboat *Petrel* commenced the attack on Fort San Antonio Abad. Dewey ordered his captains to spare Manila any serious damage, yet gunners from American ships destroyed several districts before being ordered to cease fire.

The Filipino forces under General Emilio Aguinaldo were barred from entering Intramuros by request of Dewey. As American forces led by Brigadier General Francis Vinton Greene entered Malate, the Spaniards displayed the white flag of surrender over the walls of Intramuros. General Wesley Merritt then met with Spanish Governor General Fermin Jaudenes, thus concluding a preliminary agreement in the terms of surrender of the Spaniards.[113]

The First Republic

The United States declared war on Spain on February 15, 1898. Emilio Aguinaldo returned to the Philippines from exile in Hong Kong with American assistance and resumed the revolution on May 19, 1898. Philippine Independence was formally proclaimed a month later, on June 12, 1898 in Kawit, Cavite. This was the beginning of the establishment of a Philippine republic and its government bureaucracy. Aguinaldo declared himself dictator six days later, then President of the Revolutionary Government five days after. The Proclamation of Philippine Independence was ratified twice: first in August, 1898, then again in November of the same year. The second ratification commenced when the Revolutionary Congress was first convened in Malolos, Bulacan, on September 15, 1898, to draft a constitution for the fledgling republic. However, despite all this, neither Spain nor the United States recognized the legitimacy of the First Republic. The Republic was finally inaugurated on January 23, 1899, with the full attributes of a state: three branches of government, a constitution, and territory under the authority of a government with an army. The First Republic, henceforth, became the first independent republic to be established in Asia.

The maps in this section show the provinces that were represented in the first and second ratifications of the Proclamation of Independence, as well as the full extent of the territories of the First Republic.

MAP 14: Establishment of the First Republic

With the outbreak of the Spanish–American War, Emilio Aguinaldo, with some of the members of the Hong Kong Junta, returned to the Philippines on May 19, 1898, aboard the American cutter *McCulloch*, with the assistance of Commodore George Dewey. As soon as he arrived, Aguinaldo issued a proclamation resuming the revolution. On May 28, 1898, the Philippine flag was unfurled for the first time at the Battle of Alapan (present-day Bacoor). Philippine Independence was formally proclaimed on June 12, 1898, when Aguinaldo waved the Philippine flag in Kawit, Cavite, and was declared dictator. There, the Philippine National Anthem was also played for the first time.

Six days after the Proclamation of Independence, Aguinaldo issued a proclamation formalizing the creation of a dictatorial government responsible for assessing the needs of the country. This government would last for only five days.[114] Upon the advice of Apolinario Mabini, Aguinaldo issued a subsequent proclamation abolishing it and establishing a Revolutionary Government instead. Aguinaldo's title was changed from Dictator to the President of the Revolutionary Government and Captain-General of its army. According to Mabini, this was done in order to prevent other provinces from viewing Aguinaldo's dictatorial authority with suspicion. The proclamation also created a Revolutionary Congress to draft a constitution for the government.[115] On August 1, 1898, the Proclamation of Independence was ratified by 150 municipal presidents in order to legitimize the Revolutionary Government.[116] Around the same time, Filipino troops refrained from attacking Intramuros (referred to at the time as Manila) where one of the last vestiges of the Spanish government were besieged. This was under the request of Dewey, who suggested that as allies, Filipino and American troops should participate in the final conquest of the city. Hence, the capital remained in Malolos, Bulacan.

On September 15, 1898, the Revolutionary Congress was convened in Malolos, tasked with drafting a constitution for the Philippines.[117] The Congress was composed of both appointed and elected delegates representing all provinces of the Philippines (including the island of Palau). Representatives of the Cantonal Government of Negros, the Cantonal Government of Bohol, and the Provisional Government of the District of Visayas in Panay were also present. In the inaugural session of Congress, Aguinaldo spoke and congratulated the delegates in his capacity as President of the Revolutionary Government. One of its first actions was to ratify the June 12 Proclamation of Independence yet again. The Malolos Congress approved the draft Constitution on November 29, 1898. It was returned by President Aguinaldo on December 1, 1898, for amendments, which were refused. Aguinaldo finally approved the draft constitution on December 23, 1898. It was formally adopted by the Malolos Congress on January 20, 1899 and promulgated by Aguinaldo on January 21, 1899.

The constitution provided for three branches of government: an Executive, headed by the President and composed of department secretaries; a Legislature, headed by a President of the Assembly composed of assemblymen from the represented provinces; and a Judiciary, headed by the President of the Supreme Court and its justices. The Congress, as representatives of the different provinces of the Philippines, then elected Aguinaldo as President of the Philippines. He was inaugurated on January 23, 1899, and on the same date the First Republic of the Philippines was formally established: with the full attributes of a state: three branches of government, a constitution, and territory under the authority of a government with an army. The First Republic, henceforth, became the first independent Asian republic to be established.

When the Philippine–American War broke out on February 4, 1899, the Army of the Republic, called *Ejercito Filipino*, assumed their positions defending the government. On November 12, 1899, President Aguinaldo dissolved the republic's army by dividing it into guerrilla units that would engage the overwhelming American forces via ambush and skirmishes.[118] The First Philippine Republic capitulated upon President Aguinaldo's capture by the Americans on March 23, 1901.[119]

The Philippine-American War (1899-1902)

The Treaty of Paris of 1898 ended the war between Spain and the United States, with the latter paying the former $20,000,000 in exchange for sovereignty over the Philippines, thus emerging as a superpower in the Pacific. This caused the First Philippine Republic to file a diplomatic protest. One war ended, but another followed closely at its heels. Barely two months after the signing of the Treaty of Paris, hostilities broke out between the United States and the First Philippine Republic when an American soldier fired the first shot against three Filipino sentries. The U.S. military contemporaneously referred to it as a mere "insurrection," yet the war encompassed the entire archipelago. The Republic capitulated when President Emilio Aguinaldo was captured on March 23, 1901, although pockets of resistance remained for a decade. By July 4, 1902, U.S. President Theodore Roosevelt proclaimed the cessation of hostilities, granting pardon and amnesty to all involved.

The maps in this section show the changes in territory that resulted from the Treaty of Paris, Philippine and American dispositions before the outbreak of the war, the battles between Filipino and American forces, the U.S. military's three-pronged attack to capture Aguinaldo in northern Luzon, and the American campaign in Mindanao.

MAP 15: Treaty of Paris of 1898

On December 10, 1898, the Treaty of Paris was signed between the United States and Spain. The treaty of peace ended the Spanish–American War that began with the sinking of *U.S.S. Maine* in Havana, Cuba, on February 15, 1898.[120] In accordance to the provisions of the agreement, Spain relinquished all claims of sovereignty over Cuba; it became a U.S. protectorate, and ceded Guam in the Marianas. The Spanish crown received $20,000,000 from the United States in exchange for possession of the Philippines. At the conclusion of the Treaty of Paris, Spain again signed an agreement with Germany and received $4,200,000 in exchange for possession of the Marshall and Caroline islands.[121]

By the end of the 19th century, the control of Spain over its colonies was challenged by revolts for independence launched by Cuba (1895),[122] the Philippines (1896), and Puerto Rico (1897). On December 16, 1897, the Pact of Biak-na-Bato was signed by the Filipino revolutionary leaders and the Spanish authorities resulting to a temporary end to the Philippine Revolution. On May 1, 1898, as the Philippine Revolution continued unabated in the Visayan provinces, the American fleet, led by Commodore George Dewey, destroyed the Spanish fleet under the command of Admiral Patricio Montojo at the Battle of Manila Bay. On May 19, 1898, General Emilio Aguinaldo returned from his exile in Hong Kong and proclaimed the resumption of the revolutionary movement against Spain. On June 12, 1898, in Kawit, Cavite, Philippine independence from Spain was proclaimed and a dictatorial government led by Aguinaldo was established. On November 7, 1900, the United States and Spain amended the Treaty of Paris through the Treaty of Washington.[123] This amendment included the islands of Cagayan, Sulu, Sibutu and and their dependencies in the cession of the archipelago.

With the signing of the Treaty of Paris, the Spanish Empire was virtually dissolved and the United States suddenly transformed itself into a new colonial power. Philippine independence, achieved by a long-fought revolution, was challenged by the emergence of the United States as a superpower in the Pacific.

MAP 16: Philippine and American Dispositions on the Eve of War 1899

Before hostilities broke out between the First Philippine Republic and the United States, Filipino troops, referred to as *Ejercito Filipino* by the republic's Decree of November 25, 1898,[124] numbered roughly at around 15,000 to 40,000 men. The breakdown of diplomatic relations between the Philippine and American governments was forthcoming, beginning with the signing of the 1898 Treaty of Paris. As such, Filipino forces positioned themselves around Intramuros eastward, and divided the command into four defensive zones, as noted on the map, with corresponding commanders and officers, in case of an escalation of tensions.[125]

From February 1 to 3, 1899, the U.S. Army in the Philippines numbered to around 800 officers and 20,000 troops under the command of Major General Elwell Otis. Of these, 77 officers and 2,338 troops were in Cavite, or in transports off the coast of Iloilo; another 8,000 were on duty within Intramuros; and 11,000 troops were spread out around Intramuros' environs, in lines up along the blockhouses in the *Provincia de Manila* extending 26 kilometers.[126] Two brigades of the 2nd Division, under the command of Major General Arthur MacArthur; were situated across the Pasig River facing north, while Brigadier General Harrison Otis' 1st Brigade was situated in Manila Bay, composed of the 20th Kansas, 3rd U.S. Artillery, the 1st Montana and the 10th Pennsylvania regiments. From Intramuros, the 1st Brigade extended further east and southeast, composed of the 1st Nebraska (at Santa Mesa), 1st South Dakota (stationed at San Miguel), and 1st Colorado (at Sampaloc).[127]

Filipino forces were pushed back behind the blockhouses, which ran from blockhouse 5 to 14. The most volatile position was the northeast end of the line, where the San Juan tributary river loops back. This was high ground, where some of the Filipino troops were stationed. To remedy the exposed position of the Americans, the Nebraskans were stationed there, making the relations with Filipino sentries "exceptionally tense" due to the high probability of an encounter. However, at this time, the commanders of the Filipino zones were on a weekend rest. Only General Pantaleon Garcia was at his post. The next day, at 8:00 p.m., near Blockhouse 7, Private William Grayson fired at Corporal Anastacio Felix, igniting the Philippine–American War.[128]

MAP 17: Battles of the Philippine–American War

The Philippine–American War broke out when, on February 4, 1899, at 8:00 p.m., U.S. Private William Grayson and Private Orville Miller of Company D, 1st Nebraska, fired the first shot at three Filipino sentries passing through towards Blockhouse 7 (see previous map).[129] According to American accounts, Private Grayson shouted for them to stop. The Filipinos, not understanding English, continued on. Grayson then fired at them, killing Corporal Anastacio Felix of the 4th Company of the Morong Battalion under Captain Serapio Narvaez. Filipino forces under Captain Narvaez and Vicente Ramos attacked the American positions, sending Grayson's unit to a temporary retreat. By 10:00 p.m., the fighting had extended around three kilometers north and west of Pasig River.[130]

From Manila, the battle spread out to the north and south of the city. The northward push to Caloocan on February 5 was an American effort to block the main road to Malolos, the capital of the First Republic. On February 10, 1899, General Antonio Luna and engineer Jose Alejandrino constructed trenches to defend Caloocan, but they suffered heavy casualties, leading to its capitulation. The offensive proceeded until the fall of Malolos on March 31, 1899. Meanwhile, American warships on standby in Panay, under the command of Brigadier General Marcus Miller, invaded the city of Iloilo causing the Filipino forces led by General Martin Delgado and Teresa Magbanua to retreat.[131] The American offensive in Iloilo led to the fall of Iloilo on February 11, 1899, followed by important towns in Panay Island.[132] The war carried on for two years until President Emilio Aguinaldo's capture in Palanan, Isabela, on March 23, 1901. However, resistance continued elsewhere.

At the time, despite the American military's insistence to the media that the hostilities in the Philippines were just an "insurrection," the war actually encompassed the entire archipelago, making it a national effort for independence. This led to an increasing recognition of both Filipino and American historians to change the term "Philippine Insurrection" to "Philippine–American War." By 1999, the U.S. Library of Congress reclassified their records on that period as such.[133]

MAP 18: The American Campaign in Northern Luzon to Capture President Emilio Aguinaldo

In October 1899, the American forces launched a three-pronged advance to trap President Emilio Aguinaldo. The advance consisted of Major General Henry Lawton's command in the northeast of Pangasinan to prevent President Aguinaldo from taking refuge in the mountains; Major General Loyd Wheaton's command in Pangasinan to block the roads heading north; and Lieutenant General Arthur MacArthur's command along the Manila–Dagupan railroad from Angeles to Dagupan, to push Aguinaldo into the forces of Lawton and Wheaton.[134]

As Filipino troops suffered heavy losses in the ensuing war, President Aguinaldo shifted to guerrilla warfare on November 12, 1899.[135] The following day, Aguinaldo left Bayambang, Pangasinan, and began his retreat to the mountainous region of northern Luzon. On December 2, 1899, General Gregorio del Pilar took charge of defending Tirad Pass on the slopes of the Cordillera Mountains against American troops pursuing Aguinaldo. In the encounter, known as the Battle of Tirad Pass, del Pilar lost his life.[136] His sacrifice in Tirad Pass allowed Aguinaldo to get to safety; he found refuge in Palanan, Isabela.

On February 8, 1901, a group of six guerrillas led by Cecilio Segismundo, messenger of President Aguinaldo, surrendered to Lieutenant James Taylor Jr. at Pantabangan, Nueva Ecija. The coded messages carried by Segismundo led the Americans, under Brigadier General Frederick Funston, to locate the headquarters of Aguinaldo at Palanan. Funston employed two former Filipino officers, Lazaro Segovia and Hilario Tal Placido, along with the Kapampangan Macabebe soldiers to capture Aguinaldo. Funston forged the signature of General Urbano Lacuna—to whom Aguinaldo wrote for reinforcements—and made it appear that the Macabebe soldiers were the requested reinforcements. Funston and his men then boarded the *USS Vicksburg* and headed to Palanan on March 6, 1901.[137]

On March 23, 1901, Funston and his men, pretending to be the captives of the Macabebes, arrested President Aguinaldo, leading to the capitulation of the First Philippine Republic. Nine days after his capture, Aguinaldo swore allegiance to the United States.[138]

MAP 19: The American Campaign in Mindanao

In the late 19th century, while the sultanates of Sulu and Maguindanao existed, both did not recognize the authority of the First Republic.[139] However, Jolo was represented by Benito Legarda by presidential appointment in the Malolos Congress. With the outbreak of the Philippine–American War on February 4, 1899, American forces were thinly spread out as they were preoccupied with the war in Luzon and Visayas against the First Republic. In order to gain more time before a full force could assert the claim on Mindanao, U.S. Brigadier General John Bates signed a treaty on August 20, 1899, with the sultan of Sulu, Jamal ul-Kiram II, to quell a possible armed resistance to American hegemony in the island. The said treaty, known as the Bates Treaty, was a fifteen-point proposal that included recognition of U.S. sovereignty over Sulu and its dependencies, the guarantee of non-interference with the religion of the people, and the American pledge that it "will not sell the island of Jolo or any other island of the Sulu archipelago to any foreign nation without the consent of the Sultan." However, in the Tausug translation of the treaty (Sulu's vernacular), the words "the sovereignty of the United States" were omitted, while being clearly stated in the American version. Due to pressure from his Prime Minister, the Sultan conceded to the treaty.

Even with the Bates Treaty in force, this did not stop conflict between American and Moro forces, especially in areas where the Sulu Sultanate had no influence. Initial American incursions in Mindanao were made, the majority of which were navy incursions. The U.S. 23rd companies occupied Zamboanga on November 1899, and by December, the 31st Infantry relieved the 23rd, who was charged with garrisoning Davao and Cotabato along the southern coast.[140]

On May 2, 1902, the Battle of Bayan at Lanao ensued, wherein a large punitive action was launched by Colonel Frank D. Baldwin's U.S. 27th Infantry Regiment against the Maranaos holed up at Bayan. Although it was a victory, the superiors of Baldwin were furious that this action almost upset the negotiations between the Americans and the Moros. Captain John Pershing was charged with negotiating with the other Lanao datus not to join the defense of Bayan. Thus, the damage was contained. From 1902 to 1903, Pershing's forces conducted operations to neutralize datus who were resistant to American rule around Lake Lanao. Playing on the divisions existing among datus, Pershing was successful in preventing unified Maranao resistance to the Americans. One of the largest operations mounted in this period was the Battle of Bacolod, which waged on April 6 to 8, 1903. The large cotta was assaulted by Pershing and taken after a hard fight.

With the armies of the First Republic defeated by 1903, the Americans turned its full attention to Mindanao. The conflicts that followed were used by the Americans as pretext for the Bates Treaty's abrogation on March 21, 1904,[141] and demanded for Moros' complete submission to American rule. Although the Sulu Sultanate was allowed to exist as a political authority, its powers were severely curtailed.

From 1904 to 1905, General Leonard Wood commenced operations to suppress and defeat the forces of Datu Ali, the strongest military leader of the Maguindanaons at the area of the Cotabato River. Indiscriminate killings in so-called free-fire zones, the burning of villages, destruction of crops, and many other atrocities were committed to cow the population to prevent support for Datu Ali. After inflicting great losses on the Americans for two years, Datu Ali was killed by the Americans on October 22, 1903.[142]

One of the largest battles between Sulu and the Americans was the Battle of Bud Dajo, fought in the island of Jolo on March 5 to 8, 1906. Tausugs who resisted the Americans made a stand at Bud Dajo, a dormant volcano. Around 700 to 850 Tausugs—many of them non-combatants—mainly women and children were indiscriminately killed.[143] The scale of the massacre did not go unnoticed in the American media. However, these were not enough to derail Moro subjugation in Mindanao. Other battles and encounters occurred and steadily the resistance to American rule was overcome.

American Colonial Period

When Spain surrendered Intramuros to the United States in August 1898, the Americans established a temporary military government to administer the archipelago. Shortly after the capture of President Emilio Aguinaldo in March 1901, the Taft Commission replaced the military government and began organizing local governments. However, the offices of the Civil Governor and Military Governor coexisted until 1902, with the latter tasked to administer unpacified areas. By 1902, the U.S. Congress established the Insular Government of the Philippine Islands through the Philippine Organic Act, thereby putting the Philippines under American sovereignty, and changing the archipelago's official name to the *Philippine Islands*.

The maps in this section include a political map of the Philippines in the first decade of American rule, as well as maps of Manila and Baguio in the 1900s. The former became an American colonial cosmopolitan city, while the latter was established as a colonial hill station.

MAP 20: Political Map of the Philippines in the First Decade of American Colonial Rule

When the Treaty of Paris was ratified in 1898 and amended in 1900, it delineated the territorial boundaries of the Philippines. While the Americans established their control of the islands one town at the time, the Schurman Commission was sent to the Philippines by U.S. President William McKinley on March 4, 1899,[144] to survey the islands and report the country's condition back to the United States.[145]

Initially, the United States established a military government on August 14, 1898, headed by Major General Elwell Otis.[146] On July 4, 1901, the Taft Commission took over the reins of government with the presidential mandate of "organizing and establishing civil government already commenced by the military authorities." Hence, the commission began establishing municipal and departmental governments, using the former local government structures under the Spanish colonial period. The Philippine Islands became its official name under American sovereignty. It was transferred to the Bureau of Insular Affairs, which established a civilian government called the Insular Government of the Philippine Islands. The Bureau of Insular Affairs was under the U.S. War Department.

From 1901 to 1902, both offices of the American civil governor and the military governor coexisted, with the latter ruling over areas still in conflict. By 1902, U.S. Congress formally established the Insular Government through the enactment of the Philippine Organic Act, abolishing the office of the military governor, making the Philippine Commission (Taft Commission) the upper house, and creating the Philippine Assembly (composed of elected Filipino leaders) as the lower house of what was to be the Philippine Legislature. The Organic Act served as the Philippines' basic law until it was replaced by the 1935 Constitution. During this period, provincial borders, as set under the Spanish Colonial Period, were followed, with some exceptions. Some of the provinces deemed not productive enough were merged into other provinces, such as Romblon, annexed to the province of Capiz.[147] Some provincial borders were also reconfigured by the Insular Government, such as the provincial borders of Abra, Bontoc, and Lepanto - Bontoc.[148]

MAP 21: Manila and Baguio in the 1900s

Through the initial years of American rule in the Philippines, Manila and Baguio were developed into urban centers: Manila as a seat of the government, and Baguio as a multifunctional colonial hill station. The evolution of Manila can be traced as far back as the precolonial period. Manila, prior to Spanish colonization, was described as a land around the bay that was "tilled and cultivated," with a palisade made of coconut trunks defending the town along its front.[149] [150] It was ruled by blood-related chiefs, such as Rajah Matanda and his nephew and heir Rajah Sulayman.

Manila was established as a city by Miguel López de Legaspi in 1571, and was made the capital in 1595.[151] By the 18th century, a portion was completely enclosed in walls, hence the Latin name, *Intramuros*. In the next three hundred years, Manila became the "political, administrative, and social center of the country." As the Spaniards expanded their colonization, Intramuros became part of a large province that encompassed the surrounding suburbs, known as *Provincia de Manila*, and 28 other towns.[152] Its boundary to the north was the province of Bulacan; to the east, the district of Morong and Laguna de Bay; to the south, the provinces of Laguna and Cavite; and to the west, Manila Bay.[153]

When the City Charter of Manila was enacted in 1901, Intramuros became one of the eleven districts of Manila.[154] These districts were Paco, Malate, Ermita, Intramuros, San Miguel, Sampaloc, Quiapo, Santa Cruz, Binondo, San Nicolas, and Tondo; Santa Ana and Pandacan were added in 1902.[155] When the Commonwealth of the Philippines was inaugurated in 1935, Manila became the official capital.

Baguio, on the other hand, was first designed by Daniel Burnham on October 5, 1905,[156] with the objective of developing an official summer capital.[157] The preliminary blueprint envisioned a public park at the center, commercial establishments at the northwest, and the municipal and national buildings at the opposite poles. Most of the major government and commercial buildings were built from 1908 to 1913. The city was established by the end of Cameron Forbes' tenure.[158] By the end of World War I, it became the regional capital of highland Luzon.[159]

The Commonwealth of the Philippines

With the passage of the Tydings-McDuffie Law, the Commonwealth of the Philippines was inaugurated in 1935, after more than a decade-long campaign to secure a definitive timeline for Philippine independence. The period of 1935 to 1941 was marked by considerable progress: there was a surge in public infrastructure, transforming the cityscape of the capital and other cities. However, the preparations for independence were cut short when the Second World War broke out in the Pacific in 1941. President Manuel L. Quezon and his War Cabinet evacuated to Corregidor, then to the United States, where the Commonwealth Government continued in exile. After the war, in 1945, the Commonwealth was restored in Manila under President Sergio Osmeña. The Commonwealth ended a year later with the inauguration of the Third Republic.

The maps in this section include a political map of the Philippines during this period, as well as a map describing the city planning of Quezon City and Manila.

MAP 22: Political Map of the Philippines under the Commonwealth

The Commonwealth of the Philippines was inaugurated on November 15, 1935, the culmination of efforts to secure a definitive timetable for the withdrawal of American sovereignty over the Philippines. This began with the enactment of the Jones Law in 1916, in which the United States pledged eventual independence.[160] Missions were sent to the United States to lobby for independence. The Tydings-McDuffie Act enacted by the U.S. Congress established parameters for a preparatory period. The Constitution of the Commonwealth of the Philippines provided for a presidential system of government with a unicameral legislature, which was later amended to a bicameral legislature in 1940.[161]

From 1935 to 1941, the Commonwealth Period was marked by significant progress. The government transformed the cityscape of the capital and regional cities as public infrastructure was built. The city planning of Quezon City, slated to be the new capital, also began. The most important infrastructural achievement of the government during this period was the construction of the Bicol Express line, which connected Manila to Legazpi. It was inaugurated on May 8, 1938, and was managed by the Manila Railroad Company.[162]

The preparation for independence was interrupted as the Second World War broke out on December 8, 1941, followed by the Japanese invasion of the Philippines. On December 24, President Manuel L. Quezon and his War Cabinet evacuated to Corregidor; two months later they left for the United States. The Commonwealth government continued to function in exile, gaining recognition from the world community. Quezon continued to represent the Commonwealth of the Philippines in Washington, D.C., until his death on August 1, 1944. The Commonwealth government in Manila was restored on February 27, 1945, after the successful campaign for the liberation of the Philippines led by General Douglas MacArthur.[163] The Commonwealth government ceased to exist upon the inauguration of the new Philippine Republic on July 4, 1946.

MAP 23: Initial City Planning of Quezon City and Manila during the Commonwealth

President Manuel L. Quezon dreamt of a "capital city that, politically shall be the seat of the national government; aesthetically the showplace of the nation—a place that thousands of people will come and visit as the epitome of culture and spirit of the country."[164] Ramon P. Mitra, Assemblyman of the 2nd District of the Mountain Province, created the bill to create and name the new city Balintawak. On October 12, 1939, the bill was approved as the Charter of Quezon City (Commonwealth Act No. 502), which outlined boundaries and city limits.[165] It comprised of 7,355 hectares composed of barrios carved out from the surrounding towns of Galas, La Loma, Santa Mesa Heights, San Jose, Balintawak, Kaingin, Baesa, Talipapa, San Bartolome, Pasong Tamo, Novaliches, Banlat, Kabuyao, Pugad Lawin, Bagbag, Pasong Putik, and others were taken from Caloocan; New Manila, Cubao, San Francisco del Monte, Kamuning, Roxas, and Camp Crame were taken from San Juan; the University of the Philippines in Diliman, Cruz na Ligas, Balara, and Varsity Hills were taken from Marikina; and Ugong Norte, Santolan, and Libis were taken from Mandaluyong.[166]

Architect Harry T. Frost prepared the master plan for the new capital city. The plan proposed seven rotundas along Quezon Boulevard and Highway 54 (present-day EDSA) that would converge in the Capitol Hill site: the intersection of Highway 54 with North and West Avenues; West and South Avenue; the intersection of South and East Avenues with Highway 54; Highway 54 and Balintawak Road; South and Sampaloc Avenues; España and Quezon avenues.[167]

The proposed Capitol Building was to have a neo-classical edifice and a 52-meter high dome. Its front portico was oriented to face Manila. The Senate and House of Representatives chambers were situated at the opposite ends of the building. The capitol building would also have a President's office, conference and committee rooms, a library, a restaurant, and a barber shop. The plan also provided for a city hospital, schools, parks, a 1,200 acre area for the University of the Philippines, a National Exposition, an arboretum, and a nursery. The first city hall was erected at the northeast corner of EDSA and Aurora Boulevard.[168]

The Japanese Occupation

The Second World War broke out in the Pacific on December 8, 1941 (2:30 a.m. local time), when Imperial Japan bombed the headquarters of the United States Pacific Fleet in Pearl Harbor, Hawaii. Just a few hours later, war entered the Philippines when Japanese planes from Formosa attacked Clark Air Base. By 1942, Japanese Imperial forces successfully invaded the entire archipelago. However, they failed to garrison every island, and not all soldiers of the United States Army Forces in the Far East (USAFFE) were captured. As such, several resistance groups formed in several regions. The campaign for liberation began in September 1944 and ended with the month-long Battle of Manila in February 1945. At the end of the war, Manila was the second-most devastated city in the world, after Warsaw, Poland.

This section maps of the Japanese invasion of the Philippines; the evacuation routes taken by Filipino leaders; the Battle of Bataan; the Bataan Death March; the Japanese capture of Corregidor; major guerrilla forces in the Philippines; the liberation campaigns of 1944–1945; the 1945 Battle of Manila; and the demographics of the Philippines after the war.

MAP 24: The Japanese Invasion of the Philippines

Following the December 8, 1941 attack on Clark Air Base and other strategic locations, Imperial Japanese forces commenced their invasion of the Philippines. On December 10, the Japanese began a three-pincer advance as detachments from Formosa landed in Aparri and Vigan, while a detachment from Palau landed in Legazpi, Albay; all three headed towards Manila. On December 20, another force landed in Davao to set up bases for a planned advance to Borneo.[169]

On December 22, the 14th Army, led by General Masaharu Homma, landed at Lingayen, Pangasinan. Elements of the Philippine Army, even with the 26th Cavalry Regiment (Philippine Scouts), were outmatched by Imperial forces and failed to prevent the Japanese advance. Air attacks launched by the Far East Air Force on Japanese warships and transports proved to be insufficient to derail the invasion. On December 24, the Japanese made another landing at Lamon Bay, further aiding the northward advance of the Japanese detachment in the Bicol area. On the same day, General Homma moved ashore and established the headquarters of the 14th Army at Bauang, La Union. The Japanese were advancing from the north and the south. Two days later Manila was declared an Open City.[170] By the 28th of December, the Japanese had landed 43,110 men in Lingayen. The force was composed of 34,856 soldiers from the 14th Army, 4,633 navy personnel, and 3,621 air force personnel.[171]

The series of Japanese surprise attacks and landings overwhelmed the defenders. The United States Army Forces in the Far East (USAFFE) was forced to implement War Plan Orange 3, which called for the withdrawal of its forces into the Bataan Peninsula and to hold out until the arrival of reinforcements. Elements of the Northern Luzon Forces attempted to delay the Japanese advance as the remaining USAFFE troops poured into Bataan.[172]

MAP 25: Evacuation Routes

As the tide of the battle went against the United States Army Forces in the Far East (USAFFE), preparations were made to evacuate the top leadership of the Commonwealth of the Philippines.

President Manuel L. Quezon, together with his family, Vice President Sergio Osmeña, Chief Justice Jose Abad Santos, Colonel Manuel Nieto, Major General Basilio Valdes, and a few others boarded the submarine *USS Swordfish* bound for Antique on February 20, 1942. From Antique, Quezon's party travelled by land to Iloilo, where they boarded the *MV Princess of Negros*. They arrived the following morning in Bacolod, where the party stayed for a couple of days before traveling again to Dumaguete. In Dumaguete, Quezon, his family, and the members of the War Cabinet of the Commonwealth, boarded the torpedo boat PT 35 and sailed to Mindanao where they were evacuated via US B-17 Army bomber to Australia.[173] [174]

On March 12, 1942, the torpedo boat PT 41 evacuated General Douglas MacArthur from Corregidor. MacArthur sailed south and arrived at the northern shore of Mindanao two days later. From Mindanao, MacArthur was flown to Australia by a B-17 on the midnight of March 16 and arrived in Australia the following day. Much earlier than the previous evacuations was the evacuation of the currency reserves of the Commonwealth.[175] On February 3, 1942, the reserves composed of 269 gold bars with an indicated weight of 1,343,493.95 grams and silver in the form of 1-peso coins in an aggregate face value of Php 16,422,000[176] was delivered by the submarine *USS Trout* from Manila. The reserves reached Pearl Harbor, Hawaii on March 3,1942.[177]

Although the earlier evacuations were successful, the evacuation of Chief Justice Abad Santos was not. On Zamboanguita Point, Negros Oriental, Abad Santos sought the permission of Quezon to remain in the Philippines. Quezon in return appointed him as his delegate and acting president in the Philippines. Abad Santos was captured by the Japanese in Cebu on April 11, 1942. He was executed on May 2, 1942 in Lanao.

MAP 26: The Battle of Bataan

As the United States Army Forces in the Philippines (USAFFE) attempted to delay the Japanese advance in Central and Southern Luzon, the rest of the Filipino and American troops were ordered into positions at the Bataan Peninsula through War Plan Orange 3. On January 6, 1942, a defensive line composed of the elements of the Philippine Army and the Philippine Scouts was established by Filipino forces at Layac Junction, the road that enters into Bataan. With the bulk of the USAFFE arriving safely in Bataan, the Filipinos and Americans withdrew to the defenses of the Abucay Line, which ran from Mabatang to Mauban. The Japanese High Command, sensing immediate victory, underestimated the USAFFE and stripped the 14th Army of the 48th Division. This proved a terrible mistake as resistance was effectively prolonged.[178]

Despite initial success in holding off Japanese attacks, General Jonathan Wainwright made a crucial mistake in leaving the area of Mount Natib undefended, allowing enemy infiltration, which resulted to the collapse of the defense line.[179]

On January 22, in an attempt to seize key points in the western side of the Bataan Peninsula, the Japanese launched an amphibious operation that would enable the capture of the port of Mariveles. On January 26, the USAFFE troops withdrew towards the next defensive position which was the Orion-Bagac Line. Unlike the Abucay Line, this line was not separated by a geographical feature but ran continuous throughout the length of the Bataan Peninsula. It was in this defense line that the Japanese advance was temporarily stopped despite efforts to punch through the USAFFE defenses during the Battles of the Points and Pockets. By February 9, the Japanese had abandoned their offensive, having lost many men and equipment in the process.[180]

By March 1942, the Japanese managed to build up their forces while the USAFFE troops suffered from disease and starvation. On April 3, the Japanese commenced a massive artillery barrage that resulted to the complete collapse of the USAFFE defense lines. On April 9, 1942, Major General Edward King sought out the Japanese to discuss the terms of capitulation. And on the same day, the defenders of Bataan surrendered.[181]

MAP 27: The Bataan Death March

With the surrender of Bataan, the Bataan Force Headquarters under General Edward King sought out their Japanese counterparts in order to facilitate the cessation of hostilities. The Japanese representative was turning a deaf ear to all assurances of proper conduct and treatment of United States Army Forces in the Far East (USAFFE) prisoners of war and was only singularly demanding the whereabouts and location of General Jonathan Wainwright, who was in Corregidor. General Wainwright himself was not in favor of General King surrendering, but events on the ground left the former powerless to influence the matter anymore and the USAFFE defenders at Bataan ended resistance and marched into captivity.[182]

Although the Japanese after the war stated that they only expected 25,000 prisoners and allegedly were unprepared for the huge number of USAFFE personnel who went into captivity, this obviously was an attempt to provide an excuse for the deaths that occurred. It would have been impossible for the Japanese not to be aware of the real estimated number of USAFFE personnel in Bataan following three months of combat. Hence, the stage was set for one of the worst atrocities in the Pacific War to take place.

When approximately 80,000 USAFFE defenders —70,000 Filipino and 12,000 American soldiers— surrendered, they were ordered by the Japanese to march from both Mariveles and Bagac towards Balanga, and from there proceed again on foot towards San Fernando, Pampanga.[183] The USAFFE defenders, suffering disease and malnutrition, walked approximately 100 kilometers (from Mariveles to San Fernando) under the heat of the sun. Japanese soldiers slaughtered anyone who were either too slow, or tried to drink or obtain food along the way.

As the survivors reached San Fernando, they were then ordered to board trains that would take them to Camp O'Donnell in Capas, Tarlac. More than a hundred sick and weary prisoners were packed in railway cars that could only accommodate 40 to 50 men, and many prisoners perished as a result. Of the estimated 80,000 that started the death march, only 54,000 made it to Camp O'Donnell. The death march from Bataan to Pampanga resulted in the deaths of approximately 10,000 Filipinos and 2,330 Americans.

MAP 28: The Japanese Capture of Corregidor

With the United States acquiring the Philippines at the turn of the 20th century, it set upon the task of defending its newly acquired colonial possession. It was deemed necessary to strengthen the defenses at the entrance of Manila Bay which had been a traditional entry point of invaders seeking to control the capital city of Manila and its port facilities. Thus, the greatest engineering effort yet seen in the Philippines at that time was planned, with the most up-to-date weapons within the U.S. arsenal. In September 1904, the United States commenced the construction of the first battery at Corregidor Island in Manila Bay.[184] By the end of the construction of fortifications in 1921, Fort Mills (Corregidor), Fort Frank (Carabao), Fort Drum (El Fraile), and Fort Hughes (Caballo) stood at the entrance to the bay. However, the advent of airpower during World War I coupled with the restrictions called forth by the naval treaties of the interwar years brought about the rapid obsolescence of the Manila Bay defenses as no more upgrades were done to the defenses.

During the Japanese invasion, the forts played a crucial role in holding off the Japanese for five months. During this time, Corregidor was not only a major military facility being the headquarters of the United States Army Forces in the Far East (USAFFE) but it also functioned as the Commonwealth seat of government up to the departure of President Manuel L. Quezon.[185]

When Bataan fell on April 9, 1942, the Japanese were able to concentrate their attention on Corregidor and shelled on a daily uninterrupted basis. This massive air and artillery assault on Corregidor destroyed most of all the buildings in the island and batteries. The Malinta Tunnel however managed to escape destruction and large scale damage and provided shelter to most of the 16,000 men and women who were in the island.

On May 5, the Japanese launched an amphibious attack against Corregidor with 1,000 men and a platoon of tanks. On May 6, 1942, with no capability to carry out effective combat operations against the advancing Japanese and fearful of a massacre, General Jonathan Wainwright surrendered not only Corregidor but the entire USAFFE forces in the Philippines.[186]

MAP 29: Major Guerrilla Forces in the Philippines

On May 31, 1942,[187] the Japanese Imperial forces had successfully invaded the entire Philippine archipelago. However, the failure of the Japanese to heavily garrison every island and to capture all the soldiers of the United States Army Forces in the Far East (USAFFE) allowed the formation of resistance groups in several regions. During the latter half of 1942, guerrilla organizations were established in Mindanao under Colonel Wendell Fertig, in Negros under Colonel Salvador Abcede, in Cebu under Lieutenant Colonel James Cushing, in Bohol under Major Ismael Ingeniero, and in Panay under Colonel Macario Peralta.[188]

Initial reports regarding these guerrilla activities were received by the Southwest Pacific Area (SWPA) command under General Douglas MacArthur in Australia. Preliminary intelligence operations were sent to lay the groundwork for an extensive intelligence network in the archipelago by establishing contact with the guerrilla organizations. By the end of 1943, the Allied communications network covered most of the southern Philippines as submarine operations carrying supply and personnel increased and were extended to Central Visayas and Palawan by the first half of the succeeding year.

In Luzon, however, the coordination and unification of guerrilla units proved difficult due to the heavy presence of Japanese forces. This led to the formation of several independent guerrilla commands in Luzon, such as the forces of Major Robert Lapham in Central Luzon, the *Hukbo ng Bayan Laban sa Hapon* (Hukbalahap) in Pampanga, the East-Central Luzon Guerrilla Area (ECLGA) under Colonel Edwin Ramsey, the Hunters ROTC of Colonel Eleuterio Adevoso in Cavite, and President Quezon's Own Guerrillas in Batangas.[189] By early 1944, the guerrilla command in northern Luzon fell under Major Russell Volckmann and was designated as the United States Army Forces in the Philippines, Northern Luzon (USAFIP-NL).

By the middle of 1944, through intelligence reports provided by guerrilla organizations across the archipelago, the preparations for the liberation campaign of the Philippines was largely complete. On October 20, 1944, MacArthur's invasion of Leyte signalled all guerrilla organizations to launch an open assault against the Japanese.[190]

MAP 30: Liberation Campaigns

In September 1944, air raids by the Americans on the Philippines gave the assumption that the islands were weakly defended, thus encouraging the U.S. high command to push for an October liberation of the Philippines. Preparations were then put in place to execute an invasion directed against Leyte, and not at Mindanao, as originally planned.[191]

Filipino guerrilla leader Colonel Ruperto Kangleon, sent a message offering assistance to clear Leyte for the landing. Moreover, there was an airstrip near Tacloban ready to be a base of operations if captured. The guerrilla forces promised to prepare Leyte island for the landing, having had guerrilla units scout the area for minesweeping.

From the southwest and central Pacific, U.S. warships and transports headed straight to Leyte on October 17, 1944. On October 20, the landings began, preceded by intensive Filipino and American operations to clear the area of mines, neutralize potential Japanese opposition, and gather intelligence on enemy deployments.

On that same day, at around 4:00 p.m., General Douglas MacArthur, together with President Sergio Osmeña, landed in Red Beach, Palo, Leyte. This marked the reestablishment of the Commonwealth government on Philippine soil after years of exile in Washington, D.C.

Simultaneous with this was a war at sea. Known as the Battle of Leyte Gulf, it was the largest naval battle in the Pacific, and the largest naval battle in recorded history.[192] The battle spanned 260,000-square kilometers of sea.[193] It was fought from October 23 to October 24, 1944, during the invasion of Leyte by the Allied forces.[194]

The victory at sea was achieved primarily because of support from Filipino guerillas on the ground, approximately 3,500 to 4,000 guerrillas led by Kangleon, which was carried out through complex coordination. In response, the Japanese took desperate measures by deploying the first organized kamikaze suicide unit from Mabalacat, Pampanga, under Admiral Takijiro Ohnishi.[195] Their suicide operations inflicted much damage on American ships. They also deployed their remaining capital ships in a last ditch effort for defense.[196]

On December 15, 1944, as guerrillas remained in Leyte and surrounding islands to fight on the ground, the Allied surprise attack on Mindoro was launched. Eight days later, two landing strips in Mindoro were in operation[197] to assist a planned landing in Lingayen Gulf.

In early January 1945, despite air support from Mindoro, the liberation forces found it difficult to journey from Leyte Gulf to Lingayen Gulf. Approximately 850 ships traversed Surigao Strait, passed Mindanao and turned north along the west coasts of Panay, Mindoro, and Luzon. The U.S. 6th Army on troop transports were behind that of Admiral Jesse Oldendorf's fleet of battleships, cruisers, escort carriers, and destroyers. The fleet's journey was ridden with fierce kamikaze attacks, damaging several Allied warships, but the fleet steamed on. It entered Lingayen Gulf on January 6, 1945, and cleared enemy coastal defenses.[198] On January 9, Filipino guerrillas on land had informed the fleet that the coastal defenses in Lingayen have already been abandoned. By 9:30 a.m., 68,000 troops of the 6th Army landed ashore in a 32-kilometer beachhead between the town of Lingayen and San Fabian. Assisted by guerrillas, the Allied forces led by MacArthur proceeded in retaking Manila.[199]

By February 1945, much of Central Luzon had been liberated while a fierce battle raged in Manila.[200] As American soldiers were stretched and thinned by combat losses, much of the fighting in Northern Luzon was being done by the Filipino guerrillas, the most notable group of which was the US Army Forces in the Philippines, Northern Luzon (USAFIP-NL), headed by Colonel Russell Volckmann. Opposing them were troops of the Japanese 19th Division, under General Yoshiharu Ozaki. The Japanese retreated to Bessang Pass, located south of Tirad Pass, wherein much of the Shobu Army Group of Lieutenant General Tomoyuki Yamashita and the 14th Area Army were holed up.

On June 1, 1945, as Japanese resistance weakened, the USAFIP-NL captured key areas. By June 15, 1945, the town of Cervantes was liberated, marking the end of all Japanese resistance in the area. Yamashita and his men held out in the Cordilleras up to their surrender on September 3, 1945. Around 3,400 guerrillas were killed and wounded at the Battle of Bessang Pass. The USAFIP-NL troops killed in action ranged from 600 to 900 men.

MAP 31: Battle of Manila of 1945

The Liberation of Manila was a month-long battle that raged from February 3 to March 3, 1945. Noted as being the only urban battle in the Pacific War, the Battle of Manila claimed the lives of civilians and resulted to the destruction of the Philippine capital; it was the second most devastated Allied capital city during World War II.

On February 3, 1945, a Flying Column detached from the 1st U.S. Cavalry Division and guided by Filipino guerrillas, entered the campus of the University of Santo Tomas and liberated the internees held there following negotiations with the commander of the Japanese garrison. Unknown to the Americans, the Japanese had established a heavy defensive system in the city especially south of the Pasig River wherein the numerous earthquake-resistant government buildings and the old massive walls of Intramuros provided the core of the defense. Approximately 16,000 Japanese troops made up of Special Naval Landing Force and rear area personnel, including infantrymen from the Imperial Japanese Army put under navy command made up the Manila Naval Defense Force commanded by Rear Admiral Sanji Iwabuchi.[201] At the southern approach to the city, along Fort McKinley, the Japanese had established the Genko Line, which was heavily defended by naval troops. Before and during the battle, the Japanese burned down large sections of the city to delay also the advance of the Filipinos and Americans.[202]

By mid-February, because the resistance was so severe, General Douglas MacArthur allowed for the use of artillery. From February 17 onwards, American artillery blasted through Intramuros, and on February 24, Filipino guerrillas and American soldiers eventually eliminated all Japanese resistance within the walled city. On March 3, 1945, Filipino and American forces eliminated the remaining resistance inside the Finance Building at the Agrifina Circle.[203]

The most notorious aspect of the battle for the city was not the destruction, but the human toll. Aside from the combatants, approximately 100,000 civilians perished, not only in the crossfire but in civilian massacres perpetrated by Japanese troops.

MAP 32: Population Density of the Philippines after the Second World War

The population of the Philippines totalled to 16 million in 1939, compared to the first official census of 7.6 million, done in 1903. The increase was estimated to be at 2.2% per year and was attributed to the improved conditions of living in terms of health, food production, and educational opportunities in the country.[204] The last census prior to the Second World War was in 1940, when the population slightly increased, estimated to be 16.4 million.[205]

In the 1940s, World War II brought a decline in the population growth,[206] then estimated to be at 1.91%.[207] In general, throughout Southeast Asia, there was a population slowdown during the war years and a rapid population rise in the years after the war.[208] The war brought famine, instability, and the destruction of Manila's factories, warehouses, power plants, hospitals, and universities, leaving 80% of the city destroyed at the end of the war.[209] Casualties amounted to over a million people, with 110,000 deaths among Filipinos in the military service and in Japanese prisons. There was also an estimated number of Filipinos who migrated to Hawaii and other parts of the United States.[210] There was no official census in the country during the war years, 1942 to 1945. The next census was held in 1946, when the population was estimated to be at 18.4 million.[211]

Albeit the decline in population growth and increase in mortality rates during the war, the fertility rate was still unsurpassed. The total population in the Philippines during this time still had increased at a slower pace compared to previous years.[212] Hence, when President Elpidio Quirino proclaimed the census of the Philippines on October 1, 1948, the population officially numbered at 19.2 million.[213] Cebu was the most populated, with 1.1 million individuals; followed by Negros Occidental and Leyte, with at least 1 million people; Manila and Pangasinan had at least 900 thousand individuals.[214] The post-war era in Southeast Asia, including the Philippines, has been marked with economic and population growth.[215] From 1948 to 1960, the population of the Philippines has increased to at least 40%,[216] estimated to be at 27 million.[217]

The Third Republic

Rebuilding a nation ravaged by war was an immense task. The productive economy was in shambles, food was scarce, former anti-Japanese guerrilla groups were rebelling against the government, and the government could not financially support even its most basic functions. In 1946, a year after the Second World War, the Third Philippine Republic was inaugurated, marking the official end of American rule, as well as the recognition of Philippine nationhood in the international community. The Third Republic saw six different presidents, and ended with the declaration of Martial Law and the ratification of the 1973 Constitution.

This section includes maps of the Huk and Kamlon rebellions, a political map of the Philippines during this period, as well as a map of the different countries affiliated with Southeast Asian Organizations.

MAP 33: Political Map of the Philippines under the Third Republic

On July 4, 1946, the Third Republic of the Philippines was inaugurated. It marked the culmination of the peaceful campaign for Philippine independence. The Third Republic was also marked by the recognition from the global community of nations of Philippine nationhood—a process that began when the Commonwealth of the Philippines joined the Anti-Axis Alliance known as the United Nations on June 14, 1942, and received recognition as an Allied nation even before independence. Manuel Roxas, third and last President of the Commonwealth—elected on April 23, 1946, became the first President of the independent republic as he retook his oath on July 4, 1946. President Roxas moved to strengthen the nation's sovereignty as it braced to face post-war challenges. Roxas would serve until his death on April 15, 1948. Vice President Elpidio Quirino assumed the presidency.

The Quirino Administration (1948–1953) focused on strengthening the people's confidence in the government and the restoration of peace in the face of local insurgencies. In order to achieve these, President Quirino launched several projects to promote citizens' welfare, such as the Action Committee on Social Amelioration,[218] the Social Security Study Commission,[219] Labor Management Advisory Board and the Land Settlement[220] and Development Corporation.[221] The Quirino Administration came to a close after the 1953 Elections; Ramon Magsaysay defeated the re-electionist Quirino.

The rural masses became the focal point of President Ramon Magsaysay's administration (1953–1957). President Magsaysay, called the "Man of the Masses", sought to protect farmers through laws such as the Agricultural Tenancy Act of the Philippines[222], the Land Reform Act of 1955, and the establishment of the National Resettlement and Rehabilitation Administration (NARRA).[223] On March 17, 1957, President Magsaysay, as well as 25 others, perished when the presidential plane *Mt. Pinatubo* crashed into Mt. Manunggal, Cebu. Vice President Carlos P. Garcia succeeded him on March 18, 1957.

President Carlos P. Garcia's administration (1957–1961) promoted national economic independence through the "Filipino First" Policy. The administration campaigned for the citizens' support in patronizing Filipino products and services. Another accomplishment of the Garcia administration was the enactment of the Anti-Graft and Corrupt Practices Act,[224] which aimed to prevent corruption, and promote honesty and public trust. During the presidential race of 1961, Garcia lost to Vice President Diosdado Macapagal.

President Diosdado Macapagal's administration (1961–1965) moved to promote the welfare of every Filipino, through partnership between the government and the private sector. Among the accomplishments of the Macapagal administration were the Agricultural Land Reform Code (an act that established the Land Bank of the Philippines)[225]; the establishment of the Emergency Employment Administration; the Philippine Veterans Bank[226]; the National Cottage Industries Development Authority (NACIDA); and the Philippine National Railways (PNR).[227] The Macapagal administration closed after the presidential elections of 1965, in which Senate President Ferdinand E. Marcos defeated President Diosdado Macapagal.

The administration of President Ferdinand E. Marcos aimed to alleviate poverty and eradicate corruption in the country. With a goal to strengthen the local economy, the administration devised construction programs and irrigation projects. During the 1969 Elections, President Marcos became the first Philippine president during the Third Republic to win reelection, defeating Sergio Osmeña Jr. On September 23, 1972, President Marcos declared Martial Law over the Philippines. The ratification of the 1973 Constitution marked the end of the Third Republic and the beginning of the "New Society" (Bagong Lipunan) under a Marcos dictatorship.[228]

From 1946 to 1972, the geopolitical terrain of the Philippines changed with the creation of new provinces. Agusan, Davao, Lanao, Samar, Leyte, Mindoro, and Mountain Province were divided into smaller provinces; the provinces of Quirino, Aklan, Siquijor, and South Cotabato were created. Also in this period, the provinces of Davao del Norte, Western Samar, and Tayabas were renamed into Davao, Samar, and the province of Quezon, respectively.

MAP 34: Huk and Kamlon Rebellions

After the Second World War, the Philippines faced the challenges of rebuilding a war-torn nation. The country suffered a "tragic destruction"[229] of its productive economy, scarcity of food and other commodities, and hyperinflation. The government was "without financial means to support even its basic functions."[230]

Among the problems of the nation was the growing resistance of the *Hukbong Mapagpalaya ng Bayan* (HMB) or Huks. The Huks were former guerrilla troops who fought against the Japanese during the war. As the war concluded, the Huks, consisting mainly of farmers from the peasantry, reorganized into an armed communist movement.[231] In 1946, the Huks began launching insurgent operations such as ambushes and raids against government troops throughout the archipelago. On April 28, 1949, the Huks ambushed the convoy of Mrs. Aurora Quezon in Bongabon, Nueva Ecija. The ambush took the lives of the former First Lady, her daughter Maria Aurora, her son-in-law Philip Buencamino III, and eight others.

The government utilized a combination of military tactics and civil welfare programs to suppress the Huk insurgency. In 1950, the government initiated resettlement programs for captured and surrendered rebels through the Economic Development Corps (EDCOR). The following year, government forces launched psychological warfare operations against the Huks. These operations used infiltration tactics such as distribution of propaganda materials within rebel territories and the planting of altered ammunition in rebel stockpiles for the purpose of brewing distrust and dissent within the ranks.[232] On May 17, 1954, the government proved successful in its campaign as Huk leader Luis Taruc surrendered to President Ramon Magsaysay, marking the end of their insurgency.[233]

In 1951, Hadji Kamlon mounted a rebellion in the province of Sulu. Although the exact cause of the uprising was never established, the Kamlon rebellion was attributed to the government's inadequate actions over land disputes, poverty, and Muslim rights. On September 24, 1955; after 190 of his men were killed, Kamlon unconditionally surrendered to the Armed Forces in Tandu Punan, Sulu.[234] [235] [236] [237]

MAP 35: Philippine Affiliations to Southeast Asian Organizations

The establishment of the Third Republic of the Philippines marked the recognition by foreign nations of Philippine sovereignty. Following its inauguration on July 4, 1946, the nation further strengthened its international relations with its neighbors in the Southeast Asian region as well as with the global community of nations.

The administration of President Manuel Roxas (1946–1948) pioneered the Republic's foreign policy. General Carlos P. Romulo, permanent representative of the Philippines to the United Nations,[238] helped shape the country's identity in the newly established stage for international diplomacy and relations. Under the Roxas administration, the Philippines gained membership to international entities such as the United Nations General Assembly; the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO); the World Health Organization (WHO); the International Labor Organization (ILO), etc.[239]

Under the Ramon Magsaysay administration (1953–1954), the Philippines moved further to promote international diplomacy and regional defense. On September 8, 1954,[240] the Philippines, together with the United States, France, Great Britain, New Zealand, Australia, Thailand, and Pakistan, signed the Southeast Asia Collective Defense Treaty (also known as the Manila Pact). This led to the establishment of the Southeast Asian Treaty Organization (SEATO).

President Diosdado Macapagal (1961–1965), together with Malaysian Prime Minister Tunku Abdul Rahman and Indonesian President Sukarno, signed the Manila Accord on August 5, 1963. This formed the MaPhilIndo, an organization that strove for "Asian solutions by Asian nations for Asian problems" and which aimed to solve national and regional problems through regional diplomacy.

On August 8, 1967, Indonesia, Malaysia, Singapore, the Philippines, and Thailand signed the ASEAN Declaration (known also as the Bangkok Declaration). This gave birth to the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) which aimed to strengthen solidarity and cooperation in the region.

The Dictatorial Regime

On September 23, 1972, President Ferdinand E. Marcos declared Martial Law. The government suppressed all forms of opposition—it seized control of the media and detained alleged subversives. For the next 14 years, the country was under authoritarian rule; although Martial Law was officially lifted in 1981, Marcos continued to reserve decree-making powers for himself. On August 21, 1983, Benigno "Ninoy" Aquino Jr., one of Marcos's most vocal critics, was assassinated. His death sparked public outrage, which culminated in the EDSA People Power Revolution of 1986 and the inauguration of Ninoy's widow, Corazon "Cory" Aquino, as President.

The maps in this section include a map plotting the events leading up to Martial Law, a political map of the Philippines under the Marcos regime, a map charting the growth of anti-Marcos insurgency, a map tracing Ninoy Aquino's final journey, as well as a map of the People Power Revolution.

MAP 36: Countdown to Martial Law

A week before the declaration of Martial Law, a number of people have already received information that President Ferdinand E. Marcos had drawn up a plan to completely take over the government and gain absolute rule. Senator Benigno S. Aquino Jr., during a September 13, 1972 privilege speech, exposed what was known as "Oplan Sagittarius", a top-secret military plan given by President Marcos himself to place the country under the control of the Philippine Constabulary as a prelude to Martial Law. Marcos was going to use the series of bombings that year in Metro Manila, including the 1971 Plaza Miranda Bombing, as a justification for his takeover and subsequent authoritarian rule.

As early as May 17, 1969, Marcos hinted of Martial Law, when he addressed the alumni of the Philippine Military Academy.[241] Marcos also instructed then Justice Secretary Juan Ponce Enrile to do a confidential feasibility study on Martial Law on December 1969 to study the constitutional powers of the President under such conditions.[242] He then meticulously planned the groundwork of Martial Law by reshuffling the top brass of the Armed Forces of the Philippines (AFP),[243] and depose House Speaker Jose B. Laurel Jr.[244] to gain control of both the military and Congress.

As the Marcos administration tightened its grip, allegations of corruption plagued the government and student demonstrations grew more rampant and violent. After he delivered his first State of the Nation Address for his second term on January 26, 1970, a riot erupted[245] in front of the Legislative Building, triggering the First Quarter Storm, a period of unrest marked by widespread rallies and street demonstrations. As President Marcos exited the building, the demonstrators threw stones and a cardboard coffin that hit Marcos in the back. Marcos wrote in his diary, "We must get the emergency plan polished up,"[246] which suggests that a plan for Martial Law was being formed even then. Meanwhile, the media's scathing criticism of the Marcos administration ran unabated. The regime was hit for refusal to break from "imperialism, feudalism and fascism"; the Marcos years were being touted as "the most turbulent in history."[247]

By January 1971, Marcos formed a special unit he called a "Special War Center," mobilizing elements of the military for "psy-war",[248] while formulating a political philosophy to back it up.[249] The product would later be known as the Democratic Revolution,[250] [251] or the New Society (Bagong Lipunan). Bombings began to take place,[252] getting more and more rampant. Meanwhile, rumors of a declaration of martial law spread,[253] and media outlets released statements opposing the measure.

By September 14, 1972, President Marcos informed the military that he would proceed with Martial Law. Even the U.S. Embassy in Manila knew, as early as September 17.[254]

By September 21, 1972, democracy was still functioning. Senate and House leaders agreed not to adjourn, and decided instead to extend their special session to a *sine die* adjournment on September 23.[255] On September 22, at 8:00 p.m., the staged ambush of Defense Secretary Juan Ponce Enrile was carried out in Wack-Wack, San Juan. President Marcos proceeded in greenlighting the papers for Martial Law. At 10:00 p.m., military operations began. On September 23, at 12:10 a.m., Senator Benigno Aquino Jr. was arrested[256] at the Manila Hilton (now Manila Pavilion).[257] This would only be the first among a series of arrests of journalists, businessmen, government officials, and activists. All media were shut down. Overseas calls and airport functions were halted. Only at 7:15 p.m. that evening did President Marcos announced on live television that Martial Law had been declared via Proclamation No. 1081. The country would be under authoritarian rule for almost 14 years, until Marcos was deposed by the EDSA People Power Revolution in 1986.

MAP 37: Political Map of the Philippines under the Marcos Regime

Following the declaration of Martial Law, President Ferdinand E. Marcos reorganized the government through his first Presidential Decree, his first assertion of his lawmaking powers.

Presidential Decree No. 1, signed on September 24, 1972,[258] aimed to reorganize the entire government.[259] The measure by which President Marcos carried out his plans of systematizing government was called the Integrated Reorganization Plan (IRP). The primary objective of the reorganization was to promote simplicity and efficiency in government in order to accelerate social and economic development, and improve services and transactions.[260]

Through the IRP, the Marcos administration made the first attempt at regional budget allocation. The country was divided into 12 regions, with Metro Manila as the National Capital Region. Developmental planning was meant to be done regionally, to assure autonomy for each region. President Marcos appointed persons and designated offices to oversee the development and growth of each region.[261]

However, problems arose in the implementation of IRP. Although it initially reduced the number of government departments, more departments and offices that were not part of the original plan were created. At times, these new departments duplicated the function of existing departments. These changes were often made due to political motivations. Such was the failure of the IRP that some civil servants called it "RIP" (Rest in Peace).[262]

Even a decade after its implementation, however, the IRP was not fully operational, because political authority was not completely disbursed. Rather than promote government efficiency, and decentralization and autonomy for the regions, much of the political and economic power continued to be concentrated in Manila.[263]

MAP 38: Growth of Insurgency

In 1972, the Philippines fell under dictatorial rule through Proclamation No. 1081. The imposition of government control over all forms of media and the arrest and detention of alleged subversives suppressed all forms of opposition to the regime under President Ferdinand E. Marcos. However, the growing anti-Marcos sentiment and the government's use of communist and secessionist threats as justification for Martial Law contributed to the growth of an opposition in the form of insurgent groups.

On December 26, 1968, Jose Maria Sison founded the Communist Party of the Philippines (CCP).[264] During the period of decline of both the agricultural and labor sectors,[265] the CPP organized in cities through groups that coordinated mass protests.[266] In 1969, the CPP formed its armed wing, the New People's Army (NPA) under the command of former Huk rebel, Bernabe Buscayno. The influence of the CPP-NPA increased during the period of unrest known as the First Quarter Storm in 1970. Over the next two years, the Marcos government would allege that the CPP-NPA was responsible for a series of terror attacks around Manila as well as the bombing of Liberal Party's rally in Plaza Miranda in 1971. Upon the declaration of Martial Law, the CPP-NPA led an underground anti-dictatorship movement throughout the country. In Mindanao, in reaction to the Jabidah Massacre of 1968 and the continued violence by the military against Muslims, Nur Misuari established a secessionist group known as the Moro National Liberation Front (MNLF) in 1971.[267] With the increased military presence in Mindanao upon the declaration of Martial Law, the unrest within the area intensified and resulted to the resistance of the MNLF.[268] On December 23, 1976, the MNLF and the government signed a ceasefire agreement in Tripoli, Libya. The peace made under the Tripoli Agreement was soon violated by the dictatorship, resulting in the resumption of the MNLF campaign.

The regime's offensive slowed the advance of both the CPP-NPA and the MNLF, but failed to quell the spread of the rebel groups. In 1978, the strength of the MNLF grew from 6,900 to over 20,000 regulars.[269] By 1980, the NPA's strength reached 26 guerrilla fronts with over 16,000 regulars; the CPP also claimed to have around 40,000 mass activists.[270]

MAP 39: Ninoy's Final Journey

After three years of being in exile in the United States, Benigno "Ninoy" Aquino Jr., the most vocal opponent of President Ferdinand E. Marcos, returned home in 1983, despite news of a death threat.[271] In an interview on August 21, 1983, Ninoy maintained that "if it's [my] fate to die by an assassin's bullet, then so be it. [...] [I have] to suffer with our people and [I have] to lead them."

Ninoy departed from Boston on August 13. He landed in the Manila International Airport via China Airlines Flight 811 at 1:05 p.m. on August 21.[272] Ken Kashiwahara, the husband of Ninoy's sister, narrated that right after the plane landed, Ninoy was escorted by armed men out of the plane. They heard gunshots shortly after and Ninoy was rushed to the Army General Hospital at Fort Bonifacio.[273] Ninoy was pronounced dead on arrival. The next day, before 6:00 a.m., his remains were transferred to the Aquino residence at Times Street in Quezon City. Thousands of people came to visit. It was only the next day, August 23 that his family arrived from the United States.[274]

On August 24, family, friends, and mourners escorted Ninoy's remains to Sto. Domingo Church. Five days later, his remains were transferred to Tarlac for his last homecoming. At least a million people joined the march; they took to the street, shouting, clapping, and waving yellow ribbons at the funeral cortège. Upon arriving in Tarlac, the coffin was placed on top of a truck. In the Hacienda Luisita Chapel, the people of Tarlac came to bid their goodbye.[275] Two days later, the same truck brought his remains back to Manila.[276]

On August 31, 1983, Ninoy's final funeral procession—which led his remains to the Manila Memorial Park—was the biggest and longest in Philippine history. It was attended by more than seven million people. At 9:00 a.m., Jaime Cardinal Sin, Archbishop of Manila, officiated the mass at Sto. Domingo Church. At 3:00 p.m., when the hearse entered Luneta, the flag of the independence flagpole was flown at half-mast. At 6:00 p.m., when the procession reached the South Super Highway, the waiting crowd broke into a cheer: "Ni-noy! Ni-noy! Ni-noy!". At 9:00 p.m., the cortège arrived at his final resting place, the Manila Memorial Park, where family and friends gathered for the last mass.

MAP 40: EDSA People Power Revolution

On November 3, 1985, President Ferdinand E. Marcos went on the *David Brinkley Show* and declared his intent to hold a snap election within the next three months to silence opposition attacks against the regime.[277] Everyone expected the elections to be fraught with electoral fraud and violence.[278] Regardless, the opposition fielded Corazon "Cory" Aquino, Senator Benigno "Ninoy" Aquino Jr.'s widow, as President and Salvador "Doy" Laurel as her running mate, while the administration chose the tandem of Marcos and Arturo Tolentino.[279]

As expected, the elections on February 7, 1986, were an exercise in futility: thousands of registered voters found their names missing from the lists on election day, and the election tally was manipulated by the Commission on Elections (COMELEC).[280] Although the elections technically failed, they did succeed in bringing public dissatisfaction in President Marcos to its tipping point. From February 22 to 25, millions of Filipinos from all walks of life gathered in Epifanio de los Santos Avenue (EDSA) to launch a massive protest against the two-decade-long regime. The protest is known today as the EDSA People Power Revolution.

On the morning of February 22, rumors reached Minister of Defense Juan Ponce Enrile that the leaders of the Reform the Armed Forces Movement (RAM) were to be arrested, to stifle a coup against the government.[281] Faced with the possibility of arrest, Enrile and the Armed Forces of the Philippines (AFP) Vice Chief of Staff Lieutenant General Fidel V. Ramos chose to regroup at Camp Aguinaldo. In the early evening, they held a press conference, declaring their resignation from President Marcos's Cabinet and the withdrawal of their support from the government.[282]

At 9:00 p.m., Archbishop of Manila Jaime Cardinal Sin went on Radio Veritas to ask the people to support Enrile and Ramos. Many flocked to EDSA to express their support. Over the next few days, hundreds of thousands of people came to join the protest at EDSA: professionals, businessmen, members of the religious community, members of the elite, and the masses.[283]

On February 25, after four days of prayer and protest, the nation became jubilant upon hearing the news that Marcos had departed the Philippines for Hawaii. Corazon C. Aquino was proclaimed the 11th President of the Philippines.

The Fifth Republic

After the EDSA People Power Revolution, Corazon C. Aquino's ascendance to the presidency marked the return of democracy in the Philippines. However, the task of rebuilding the nation after twenty years of the Marcos regime was a challenge—both the state and the economy were in crisis. President Aquino's already monumental task was even made more difficult by attempts to overthrow the administration by pro-Marcos groups and the Reform the Armed Forces Movement (RAM). To counter these destabilization efforts, President Aquino pushed for a new constitution, which was successfully submitted to a popular referendum in 1987.

This section includes maps of the Cordillera Administrative Region (CAR) and the Autonomous Region in Muslim Mindanao (ARMM), a map of military interventions during this period, maps of EDSA II and the May Day Rebellion, as well as a map of the population density of Filipinos overseas.

MAP 41: The Cordillera Administrative Region and the Autonomous Region in Muslim Mindanao

The 1987 Constitution of the Philippines, ratified on February 2, 1987, provided specifically for autonomous regions in Muslim Mindanao and the Cordilleras[284] to preserve their respective diverse historical and cultural practices and traditions.[285] These regions, however, would still be under the sovereignty of the national government.[286] Both are also to receive an equitable share of the national budget of the central government.

President Corazon C. Aquino signed into law Executive Order No. 220 on July 15, 1987, creating the Cordillera Administrative Region (CAR),[287] and Republic Act No. 6734 on August 1, 1989, providing for an organic act for the Autonomous Region in Muslim Mindanao (ARMM).[288]

CAR was conceptualized to answer the Cordillera's aspirations for autonomy. On September 13, 1986, President Aquino exchanged peace tokens with the Cordillera Bodong Administration and Cordillera People's Liberation Army, to end the hostilities between the government and the Cordillera people. This resulted in a region composed of the provinces of Abra, Benguet, Ifugao, Kalinga-Apayao, Mountain Province, and Baguio City.[289] The CAR is authorized to develop and maintain its regional administrative system in terms of economic, social, and cultural development among others. Its government is composed of the Cordillera Regional Assembly, the policy-making body of the region, and a Cordillera Executive Board, the implementing body of the region, centralized in Baguio City.[290]

According to the Organic Act for the ARMM (Republic Act No. 6734), the ARMM was originally composed of the provinces Lanao del Sur, Maguindanao, Sulu, and Tawi-Tawi. Through Republic Act No. 9054 of 2001, this was amended to include the province of Basilan and the city of Marawi. The seat of the regional government is Cotabato City. The organic act provided for a peaceful settlement of conflicts in the area and local autonomy in terms of education, health, human resource, science and technology, and people empowerment among others. The regional assembly formulates Shari'ah legal systems, in consonance with the Supreme Court and the Constitution, which will be applied to its population with Islamic faith.[291]

MAP 42: Coup Attempts and Military Interventions during the Fifth Republic

The task of rebuilding the nation after the fall of Ferdinand E. Marcos was made more challenging by the series of attempts by the Reform the Armed Forces Movement (RAM) and Marcos-loyalist groups to overthrow the Corazon C. Aquino administration.

In July 1986, five months after President Aquino assumed office, a group of armed military men and Marcos loyalists occupied the Manila Hotel for 37 hours, demanding stronger anti-communist measures. During the incident, Arturo Tolentino, running mate of Marcos in the 1986 snap elections, took his "oath of office" as "acting President" on behalf of the former dictator.[292] By 1987, three coup d'etat attempts and a destabilization plot—the GMA 7 incident,[293] the Black Saturday incident,[294] the August 1987 coup attempt[295] and the Manila International Airport takeover plot[296]—were quelled by the Aquino administration. During the August 28 to 29, 1987 coup attempt, RAM leader Gringo Honasan launched attacks on different government installations and private establishments throughout the country. During the rebellion, Honasan commanded an attack on Malacañan Palace, but was deflected by government troops. In their retreat, the rebels fired upon the convoy of President Aquino's son, Benigno S. Aquino III, wounding him and killing three of his bodyguards. In 1988, Honasan escaped from his detention cell and prepared for another strike against the government. On December, 1989, RAM rebels targeted broadcast stations, harbors, airports, business districts, military headquarters, and air bases. As the fighting ensued, President Aquino ordered the Armed Forces to put a stop to the mutiny using all force at hand.[297] The Aquino administration assured the public that the government was in control of the situation; pressure from the military forced the rebels to surrender.

During the administration of President Gloria Macapagal-Arroyo (2001–2010), dissatisfaction from the military ranks also led to destabilization attempts against the government. The administration faced the 20-hour Oakwood Mutiny[298] conducted by the rebel group Magdalo in 2003; the five-hour Fort Bonifacio standoff in 2006; and the six-hour Manila Peninsula Siege in 2007.[299] [300] The government weathered through all incidents and was able to suppress each destabilization act.

MAP 43: EDSA II and the May Day Rebellion

EDSA II

Following President Joseph Ejercito Estrada's election in 1998, scandal after scandal hounded his presidency. His sharp descent in popularity culminated in October 4, 2000, when longtime friend and Governor of Ilocos Sur Luis "Chavit" Singson, accused him of receiving millions of pesos from illegal gambling lords.[301] Political leaders and religious groups called for President Estrada's resignation, and support from his allies, cabinet members and advisers dwindled fast.[302]

President Estrada's refusal to resign led to his impeachment by 115 House representatives on November 13.[303] December 7 marked the start of his tumultuous trial (presided over by Supreme Court Chief Justice Hilario Davide).[304] The trial reached its peak on January 16, 2001, when the 21 senator-judges ruled 11-10 against the opening of an envelope allegedly containing evidence incriminating President Estrada.[305] Infuriated, the prosecutors and the 10 senators who voted for the opening of the envelope walked out of the session hall in disgust, leading thousands of angry citizens to assemble at the EDSA Shrine.[306]

The next three days saw millions of people throughout the country rallying for the ouster of President Joseph Estrada. By January 19, Estrada had lost the support of both the police and the military, when Armed Forces Chief of Staff Angelo Reyes and Police Chief Panfilo Lacson announced their withdrawal of support for Estrada.[307] The next day, at 12 noon, after hours of negotiation with Estrada's remaining supporters, Vice President Gloria Macapagal-Arroyo took her oath as President of the Philippines.[308]

May Day Rebellion

Following his ouster and subsequent arrest, tensions escalated between supporters and detractors of Estrada. In the last week of April 2001, roughly 3 million Estrada supporters, some of which were allegedly paid for by his allies, rallied again in EDSA against President Arroyo and those who installed her to power. On May 1, thousands of these demonstrators stormed Mendiola and J.P. Laurel St. in a failed but nonetheless violent rebellion that the media called the "Battle of Malacañang."[309]

MAP 44: Population Density of Filipinos Overseas

This map shows the global distribution of Filipinos based on 2013 estimates by the Commission on Filipinos Overseas (CFO). The CFO categorized Filipinos abroad as permanent migrants, or those who are permanent residents and naturalized citizens of other countries; temporary migrants, those who are expected to return to the Philippines after their respective job contracts; and irregular migrants, those who are not properly documented.[310] 48% (4.9 million) of this number are permanent migrants; 41% (4.2 million) are temporary migrants, and 11% (1.2 million) are classified as irregular migrants.[311]

The majority of overseas Filipinos are concentrated in the United States, numbering to 3.5 million individuals.[312] Saudi Arabia ranked second as the most Filipino-populated country in the world, with at least 1 million individuals. South America and Africa are the two continents with relatively smaller Filipino populations. According to a separate data released by the Philippine Statistics Authority in 2014, the majority of overseas Filipino workers (OFWs)—24.8%—prefer to work in Saudi Arabia. Other preferred destinations include the United Arab Emirates (UAE), Singapore, Kuwait, Qatar, and Hong Kong. Europe accounts for 7.1% while North and South America account for 6.5% of OFWs. In Southeast Asia, the preferred destination is Malaysia, accounting for 793,580 individuals.[313] [314]

The number of OFWs totalled to 2.3 million. Of this number, those with existing working contracts comprised 96%. Majority of these OFWs (17.9%) came from Region IV-A (Calabarzon), 15.5% came from Region III (Central Luzon), and 10.5% from the National Capital Region (NCR). Of these number, 50.5% are females. In terms of age group, 24.8% belongs to age group 25-29.[315] In terms of occupation, 32.8%, majority of OFWs are laborers and unskilled workers. Other occupational groups are: service workers, and shop and market-sales workers (16.5%); trades and related workers (12.8%); plant and machine operators and assemblers (12.5%); and professionals (11.4%). 54% of female OFWs are laborers and unskilled workers. 25.1% of the male OFWs are trade workers.[316]

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APPENDIX

Ecclesiastical Establishment for the First Hundred Years of the Spanish Colonial Rule

Except for the Secular Parishes, all the locations indicated here are Cabecera Churches of the Regular Clergy as of 1655

JESUIT

Rizal

1 Antipolo
2 Baras
3 Taytay
4 Cainta

Cavite

5 Silang
6 Indang
7 Maragondon
8 Cavite City

Marinduque

9 Boac
10 Gasan
11 Torrijos
12 Santa Cruz

Cebu

13 Cebu City

Bohol

14 Loboc
15 Baclayon
16 Panglao
17 Inabanga
18 Maribojoc

Leyte

19 Carigara
20 Leyte
21 Jaro
22 Barugo
23 Alangalang
24 Ormoc
25 Baybay
26 Cabalian
27 Sogod
28 Hinundayan
29 Liloan
30 Dagami
31 Malaguicay *(Barrio of Tanauan)*
32 Tambuco
33 Dulag
34 Bito
35 Abuyog
36 Palo

Samar

37 Basey
38 Guiuan
39 Balangiga
40 Catbalogan
41 Calbiga
42 Batang *(Barrio of Hernani)*
43 Capul
44 Catubig
45 Biri
46 Catarman
47 Bobon
48 Beri *(Barrio of Oras)*
49 Taft
50 Sulat
51 Borongan

Iloilo

52 Oton
53 Iloilo City

Negros Occidental

54 Ilog
55 Kabankalan
56 Suay
57 Isio *(Barrio of Cauayan)*

Mindanao

58 Residencia of Yligan-Dapitan
59 Residencia of Zamboanga

FRANCISCAN

Bulacan

1 Polo
2 Meycauayan
3 Bocaue

Rizal

4 Binangonan
5 Morong
6 Tanay
7 Pililla

Laguna

8 Santa Maria
9 Mabitac
10 Siniloan
11 Pangil
12 Paete
13 Lumbang
14 Santa Cruz
15 Pila
16 Nagcarlan
17 Lilio
18 Majayjay

Quezon

19 Lucban
20 Mauban
21 Tayabas
22 Baler
23 Atimonan
24 Gumaca

Laguna

25 Los Baños

Camarines Norte

26 Capalonga
27 Paracale
28 Labo
29 Vinzons
30 Daet

Camarines Sur

31 Libmanan
32 Quipayo *(Barrio of Calabanga)*
33 Naga City
34 Milaor
35 Minalabac
36 Bula
37 Nabua
38 Iriga
39 Buhi

Albay

40 Libon
41 Polangui
42 Ligao
43 Oas
44 Camalig
45 Jovellar
46 Albay *(District of Legaspi City)*
47 Cagsawa *(District of Legaspi City)*
48 Tabaco
49 Malinao

Sorsogon

50 Casiguran
51 Sorsogon
52 Bulusan
53 Calongay *(Barrio of Pilar)*

DOMINICAN

Cagayan

1 Pata *(Barrio of Claveria)*
2 Abulug

Apayao

3 Pudtol *(Barrio of Luna)*

Isabela

4 Cabagan

Cagayan

5 Masi *(Barrio of Buguey)*
6 Piat
7 Camalaniugan
8 Nasiping *(Barrio of Gattaran)*
9 Iguig
10 Tuguegarao
11 Buguey

Pangasinan

12 Lingayen
13 Binalonan
14 Calasiao
15 Binmaley
16 Mangaldan
17 Manaoag

La Union

18 Bacnotan

AUGUSTINIAN

Bulacan

1 Tambobong
(Barrio of San Rafael)
2 Bulacan
3 Guiguinto
4 Bigaa
5 Malolos
6 Plaridel
7 Calumpit
8 Hagonoy

9 Parañaque
10 Pasig
11 Taguig

Laguna

12 Bay
13 San Pablo City

Batangas

14 Lipa
15 Bauan
16 Batangas
17 Taal
18 Tanauan
19 Salao
(Barrio of Rosario)

Pampanga

20 Bacolor
21 Guagua
22 Macabebe
23 Lubao
24 Mexico
25 Candaba
26 Sasmuan
27 Betis
(Barrio of Guagua)
28 Porac
29 Minalin
30 Apalit
31 Arayat

Nueva Ecija

32 Gapan

La Union

33 Agoo
34 Bauang

Ilocos Sur

35 Tagudin
36 Santa Cruz
37 Candon
38 Narvacan
39 Bantay
40 Sinait

Ilocos Norte

41 Dingras
42 Batac
43 Laoag
44 Bacarra

Capiz

45 Roxas City
46 Dumalag
47 Mambusao
48 Batan

Iloilo

49 Passi
50 Dumangas
51 Jaro
52 Oton
53 Tigbauan
54 Guimbal

Cebu

55 Carcar
56 San Nicolas
(District of Cebu City)

RECOLLECTS

Zambales	Pangasinan	Bataan	Romblon
1 Masinloc	2 Bolinao	3 Mariveles	4 Romblon

Palawan	Surigao	Agusan	Misamis
5 Calamianes Islands 6 Cuyo	7 Tandag 8 Siargao islands (Dapa) 9 Bislig	10 Butuan	11 Cagayan de Oro

SECULAR PARISHES (1699 - 1775)

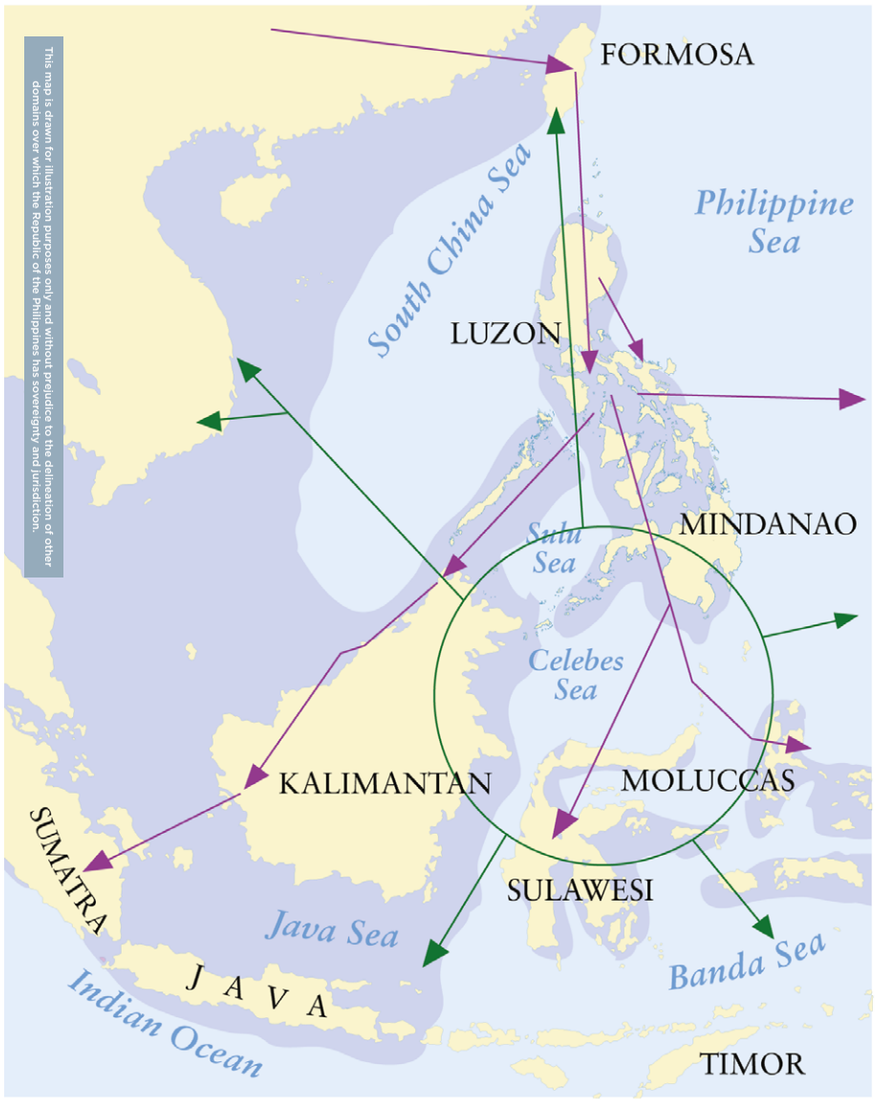
Cebu	Ambos Camarines	Cagayan	Manila
Masinloc	Bolinao Paracale Capalonga	Mariveles	Manila Quiapo

Mindoro	Negros	Siquijor	Catanduanes
Lubang	Negros	Siquijor	Virac

Laguna	Abra
Cabuyao	Abra

REGULAR PARISHES WITHIN GREATER MANILA (NOT INCLUDED IN THE MAP)

Augustinian	Franciscans	Jesuit	Dominican
Tondo Malate	Dilao Tondo Santa Ana Sampaloc	San Miguel Santa Cruz San Pedro de Macati	Parian Binondo



Continental shelf above sea level during the Pleistocene period

Land above sea level at the beginning of the 21st century

The Peopling of the Philippines and Archaeological Sites

Mainland Origin of Austronesians (3,000 BP*)

Nusantao Maritime Trading and Communication Network (5,000 BP)

*BP = Before Present is the international standard used for reporting ages in archaeology, where 0 BP is the year 1950 (Dincauze, 2000).

ARCHAEOLOGICAL SITES

(courtesy of the National Museum of the Philippines)

Paleolithic period
approx. 800,000-9000 BP

Neolithic period
approx. 9,000-4,000 BP

Metal age
approx. 4,000-1,000 BP

Age of contact
1,150-429 BP

Historical period
after 429 BP

Abridged listing of Archaeological Sites in the Philippines

MAP 1

900 - 1100 A.D.
(10th - 12th century)

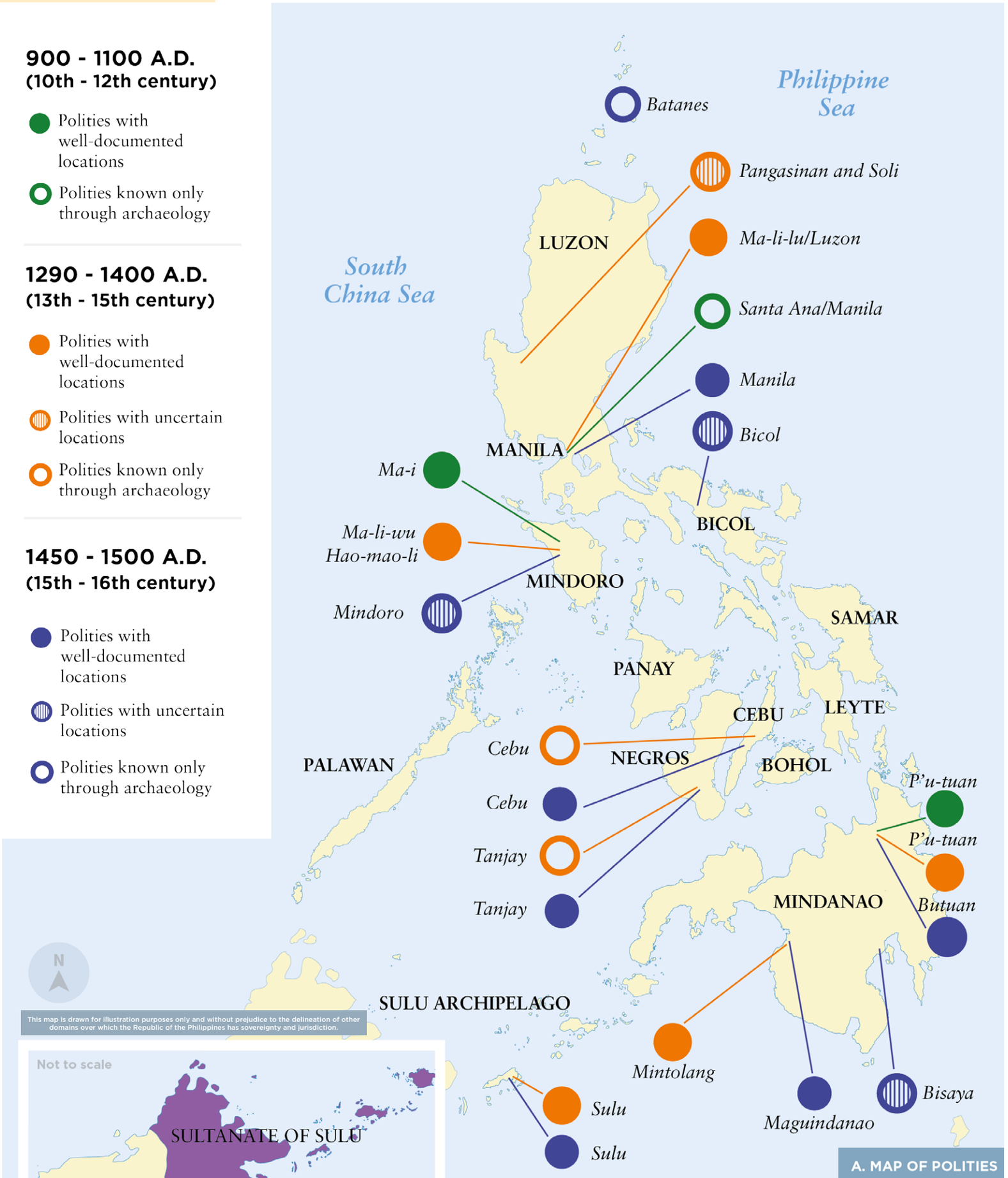
- Polities with well-documented locations
- Polities known only through archaeology

1290 - 1400 A.D.
(13th - 15th century)

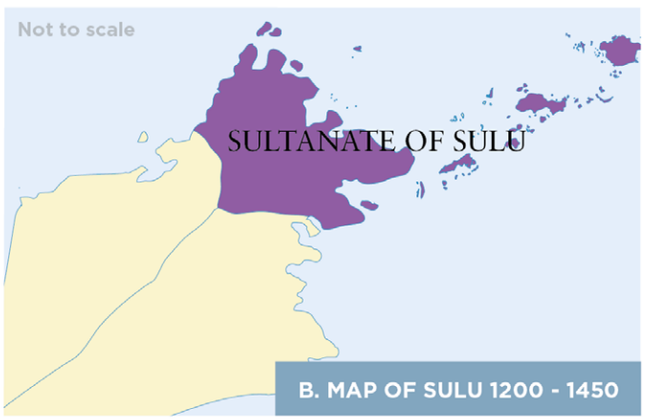
- Polities with well-documented locations
- Polities with uncertain locations
- Polities known only through archaeology

1450 - 1500 A.D.
(15th - 16th century)

- Polities with well-documented locations
- Polities with uncertain locations
- Polities known only through archaeology



This map is drawn for illustration purposes only and without prejudice to the delineation of other domains over which the Republic of the Philippines has sovereignty and jurisdiction.

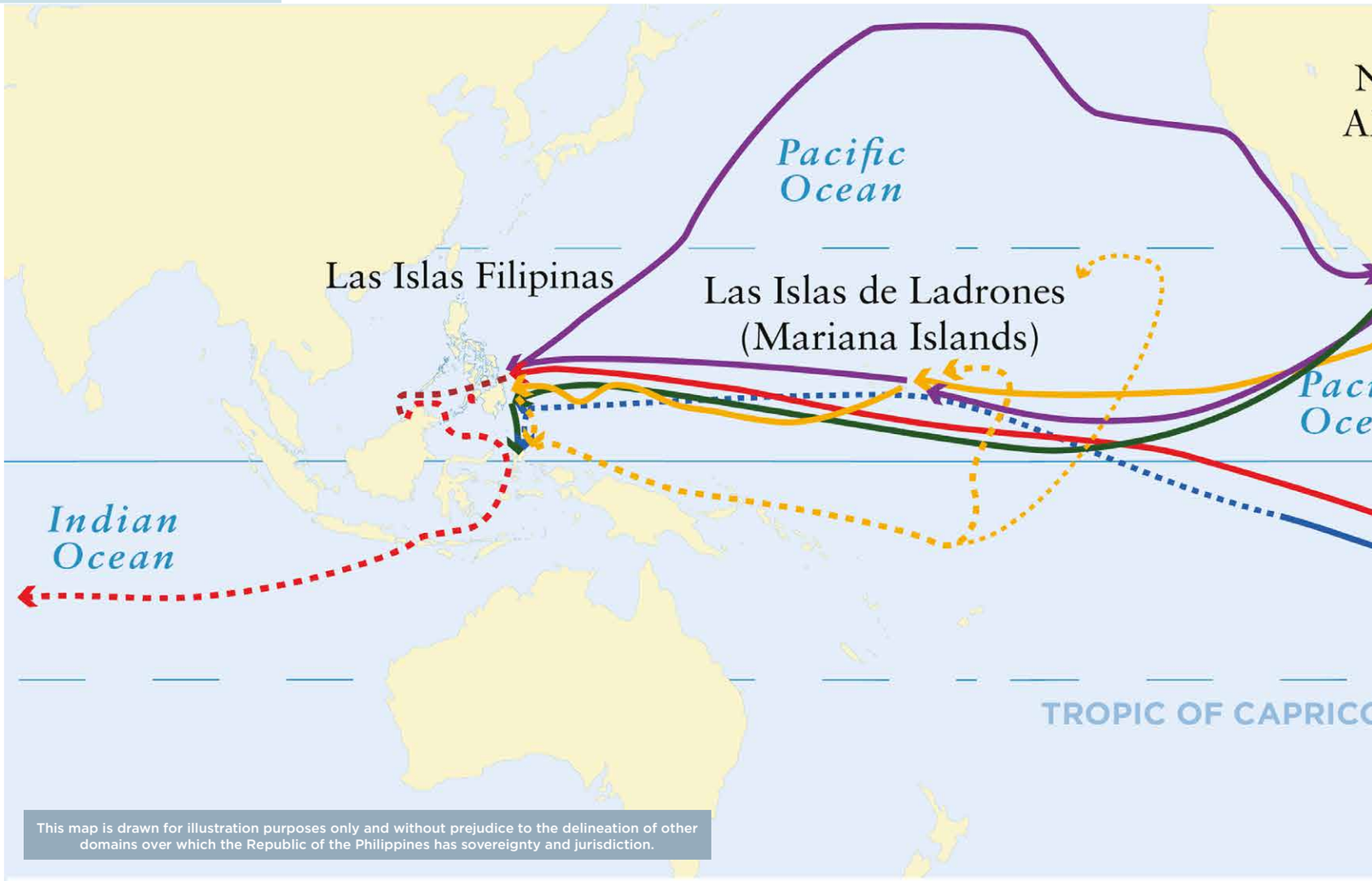


Polities and Sultanates in the 10th to 16th Century Philippines

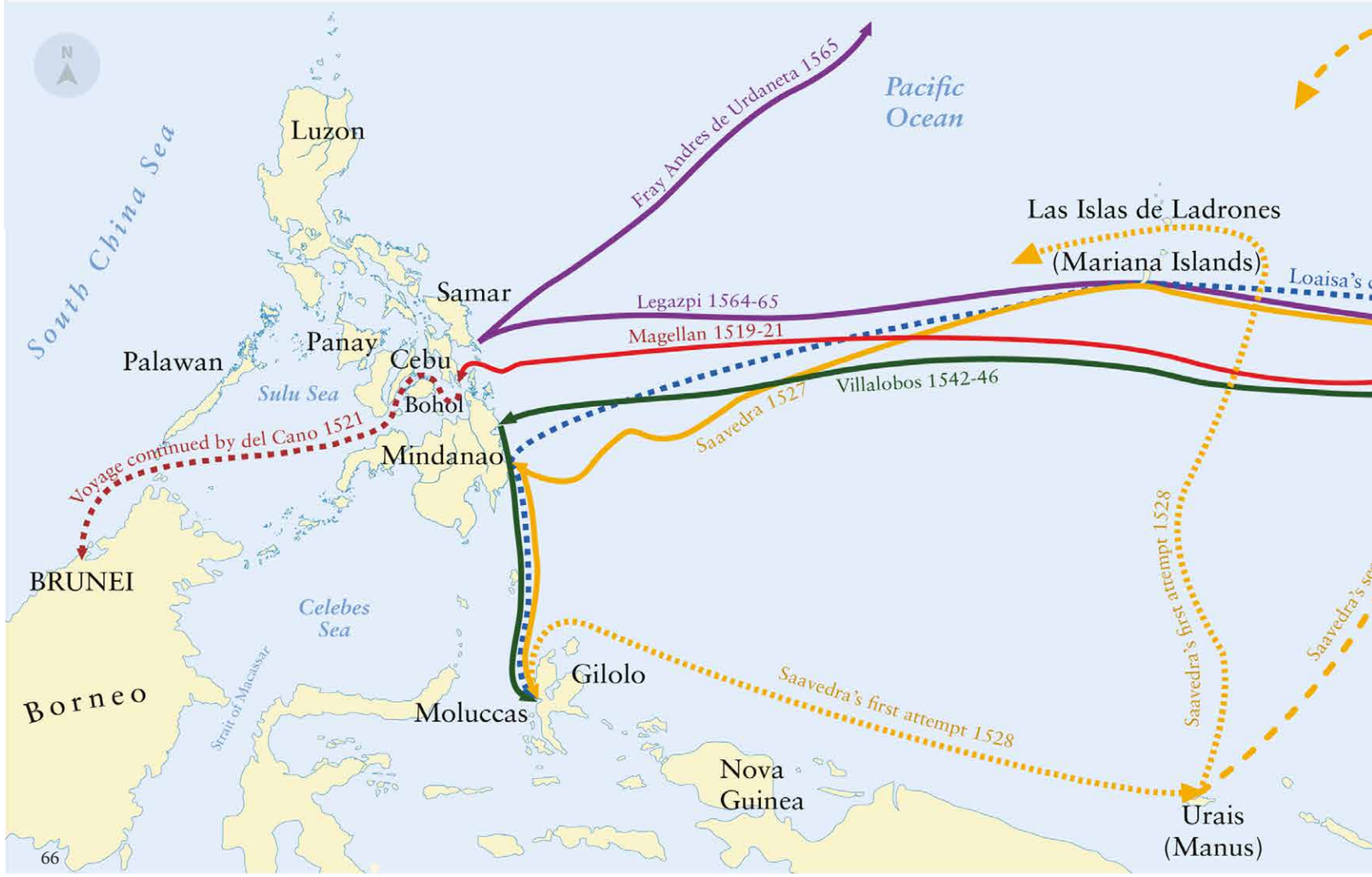
Sources: Laura Lee Junker, *Raiding, Trading, and Feasting: The Political Economy of the Philippine Chiefdoms* (Hawaii: University of the Hawaii Press, 1999), Patrick K. O'Brien (ed), *Philip's Atlas of World History* (London: Octopus Publishing Group, 2002).

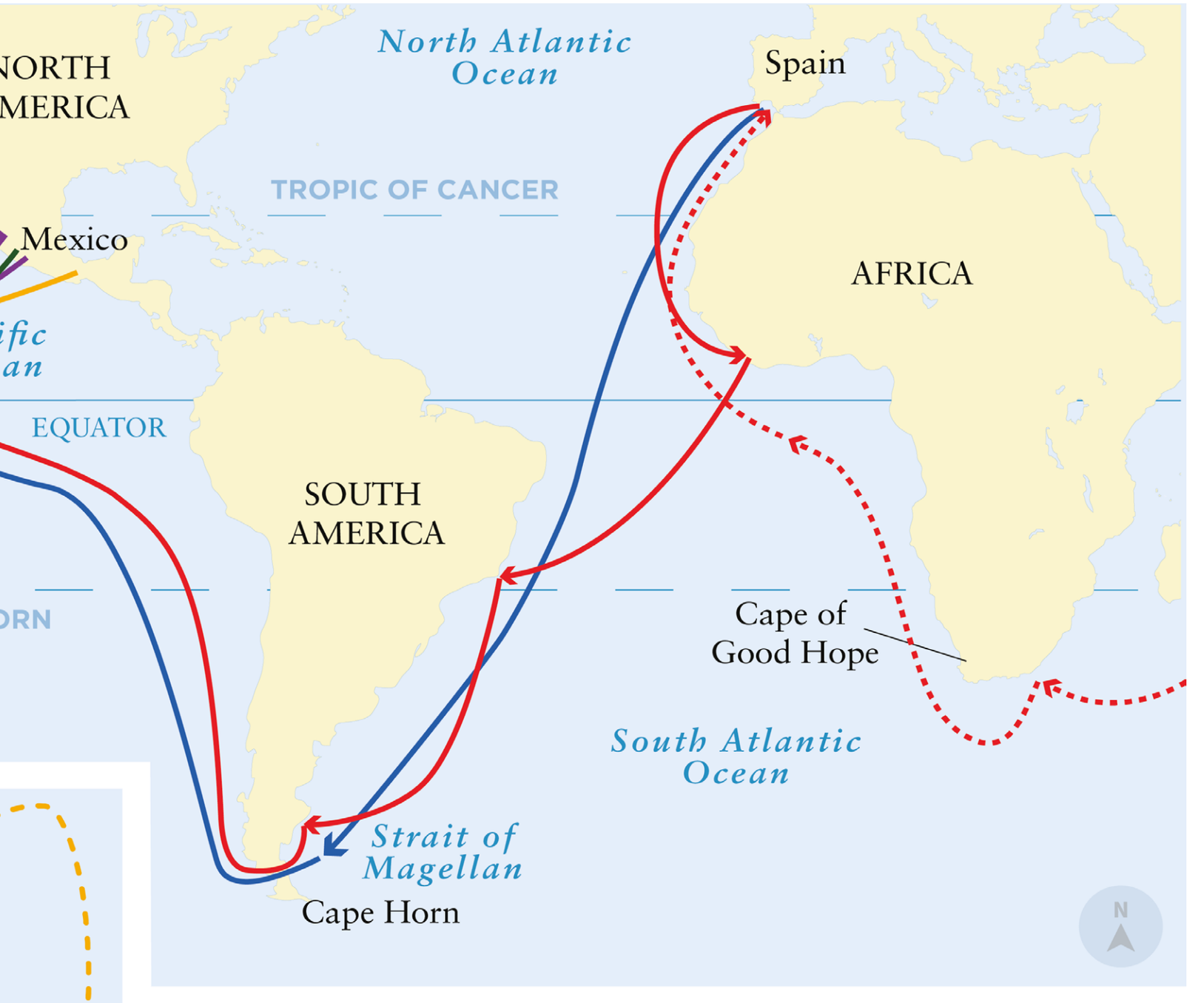
This map is drawn for illustration purposes only and without prejudice to the delineation of other domains over which the Republic of the Philippines has sovereignty and jurisdiction.

Trade Routes in the 10th to 16th Century Philippines



This map is drawn for illustration purposes only and without prejudice to the delineation of other domains over which the Republic of the Philippines has sovereignty and jurisdiction.





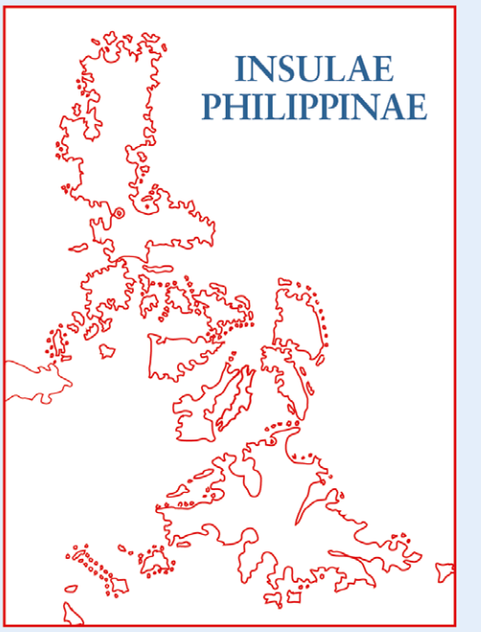
Initial Spanish Expeditions

- Ferdinand Magellan / Juan Sebastian del Cano (1519-1522)
- Garcia Jofre de Loaisa (1525-1526)
- Continued by his crew
- Alvaro de Saavedra (1527)
- Saavedra's first attempt (1528)
- Saavedra's second attempt (1529)
- Ruy Lopez de Villalobos (1542-1546)
- Miguel Lopez de Legazpi (1564-1565)

Growth of the Colony I

Present-day Philippines

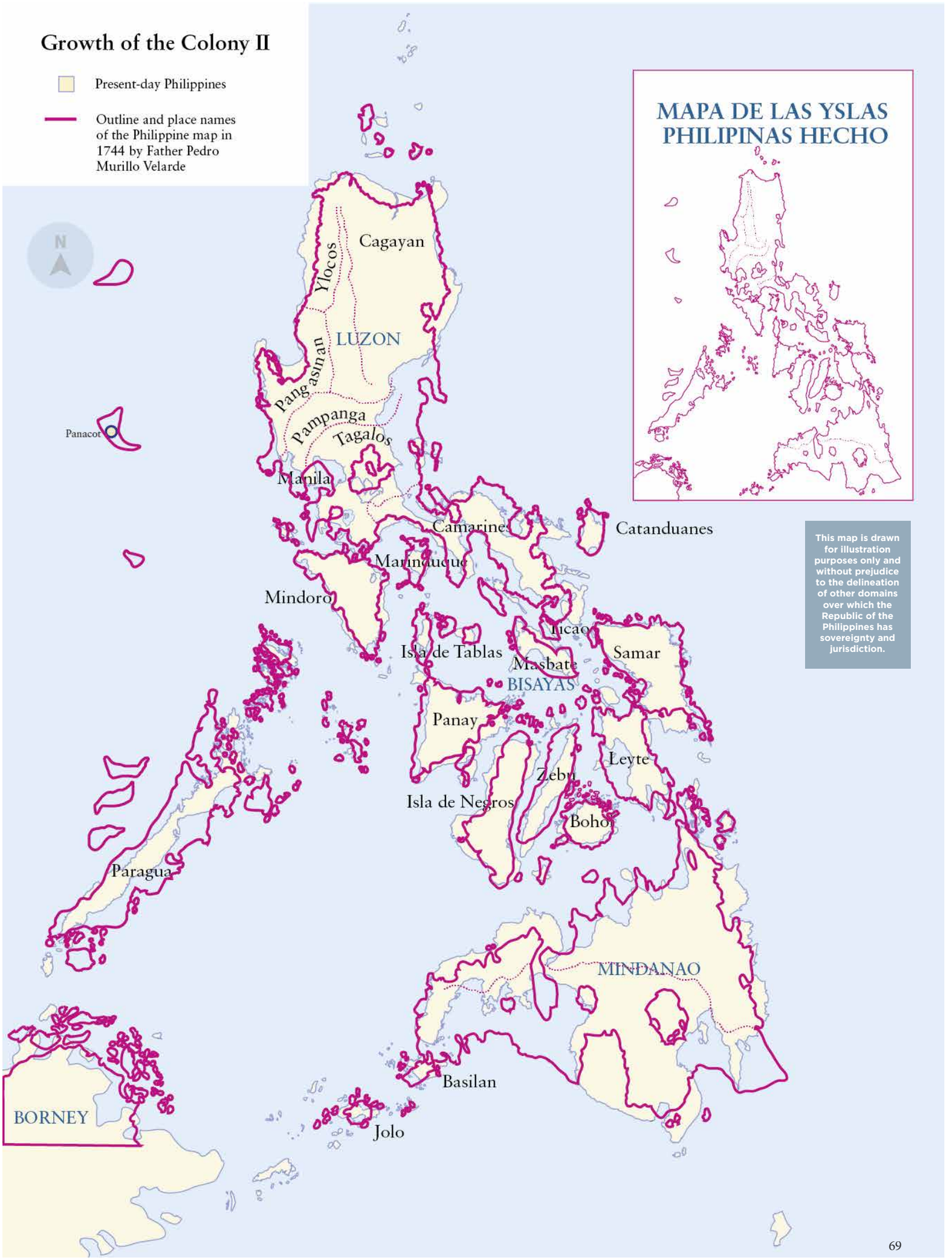
Outline and place names of the Philippine map in 1598 by Peter van der Keere



This map is drawn for illustration purposes only and without prejudice to the delineation of other domains over which the Republic of the Philippines has sovereignty and jurisdiction.

Septentrio

C. de Bajador
C. de Engano
Siday
Moro Hermoso
Ilocos
LUÇONIA
Pintados
Luzom
Aquarina
Ancon tris fe
Pagansi
Panevasion
G. de Matalahambre
Pª do Mandato
Pondam
Mandato
P. de Manilha
Manilha
P. Nebui
Sinensis Oceanus
Paracalla
C. del Spirito Santo
I. de Cabos
Mindara
Occidens
Oriens
Francisco Gomes
Ylhas del premeiro
Achan
Tandola
Surgidero
Damacan
Panama
Pidhas
Sabunra
Abo camucho primeiro
Calamianes
Cabu
Caburao
Abujo
Negoes
Pasagem de S. Clare
Suricao
Bosrote
Dapito
B. de Malega
Lo miaton
Bosrote
B. de Resurreicam
B. Bicaia
MINDANAO
Canola
Mindanao
C. Bicay
I. Furcadas
Pracel
Tagima
I. de S. Maria
Solor
I. das Palmeiras
Meridies

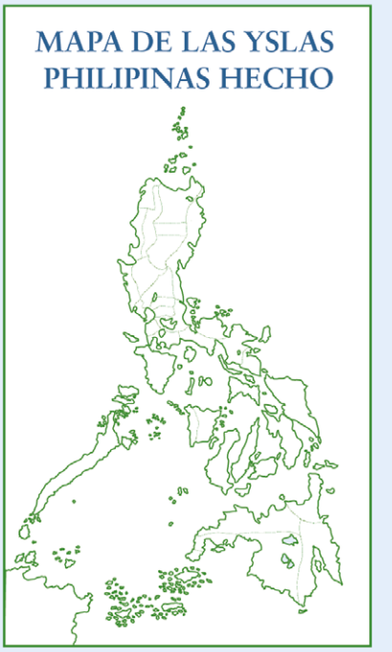

Growth of the Colony II
Present-day Philippines
Outline and place names of the Philippine map in 1744 by Father Pedro Murillo Velarde
MAPA DE LAS YSLAS PHILIPINAS HECHO
This map is drawn for illustration purposes only and without prejudice to the delineation of other domains over which the Republic of the Philippines has sovereignty and jurisdiction.
N
Cagayan
Ylocos
LUZON
Pangasinan
Pampanga
Tagalos
Panacot
Manila
Camarines
Catanduanes
Marinduque
Mindoro
Ticao
Isla de Tablas
Masbate
Samar
BISAYAS
Panay
Leyte
Zebu
Isla de Negros
Bohol
Paragua
MINDANAO
Basilan
BORNEY
Jolo

Growth of the Colony III

Present-day Philippines

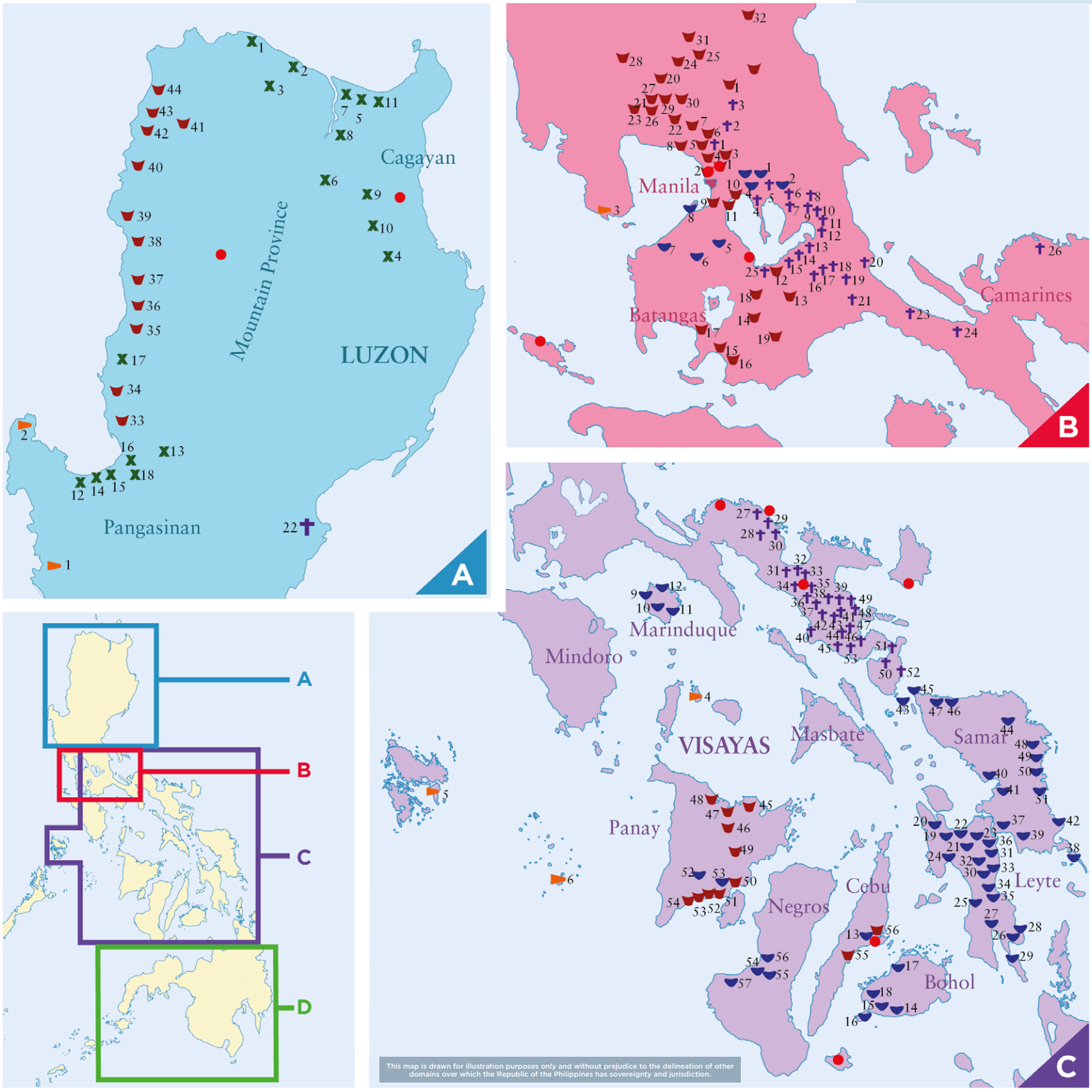
Outline and place names of the Philippine map in 1872 by Leon Salcedo

Provincial borders



This map is drawn for illustration purposes only and without prejudice to the delineation of other domains over which the Republic of the Philippines has sovereignty and jurisdiction.

Batanes
Ilocos Norte
Cagayan
Ilocos Sur
Abra
Isabela
Nueva Ecija
ISLA
Nueva
Vizcaya
DE
Union
LUZON
Pangasinan
Zambales
Pampanga
Isla de Polillo
Bulacan
Bataan
Manila
Camarines
Norte
Cavite
La Laguna
Batangas
Tayabas
Camarines
Sur
Isla
de
Catanduanes
Marinduque
Albay
Mindoro
Isla de Masbate
Isla
de
Samar
Capiz
Isla
de
Panay
Antique
Iloilo
Isla
de
Leyte
Isla
de
Zebu
Isla
de
Negros
Bojol
Surigao
Isla de Paragua
Caraga
Misamis
Nueva Guipuzcoa
ISLA DE MINDANAO
Isla de Basilan
Isla de Borneo
I. de Jolo

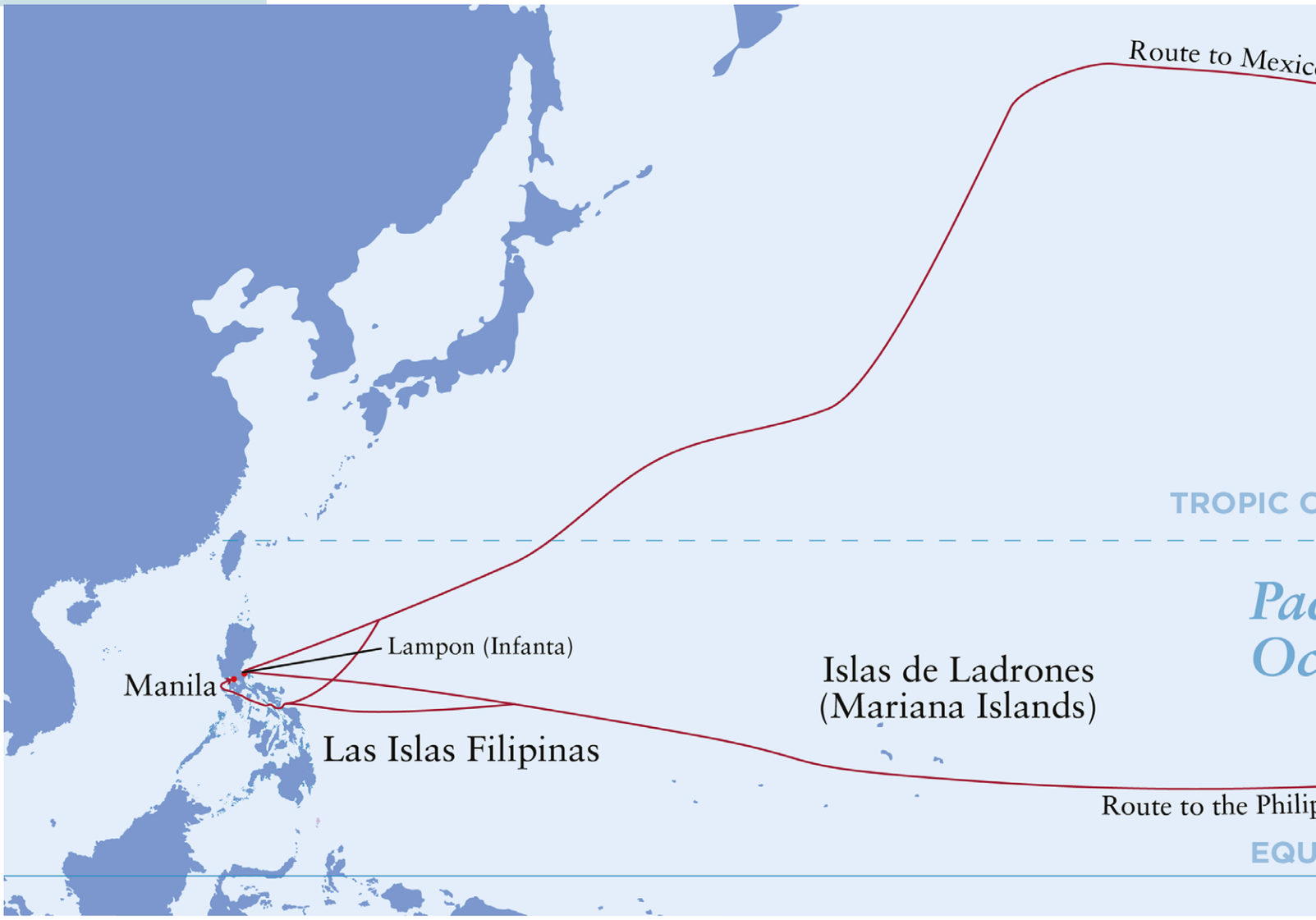


Ecclesiastical Establishment for the First Hundred Years of Spanish Colonial Rule

See pp. **59-62** for the list of ecclesiastical establishments

Jesuit
Franciscan
Augustinian Recollect
Augustinian
Dominican
Filipino Seculars

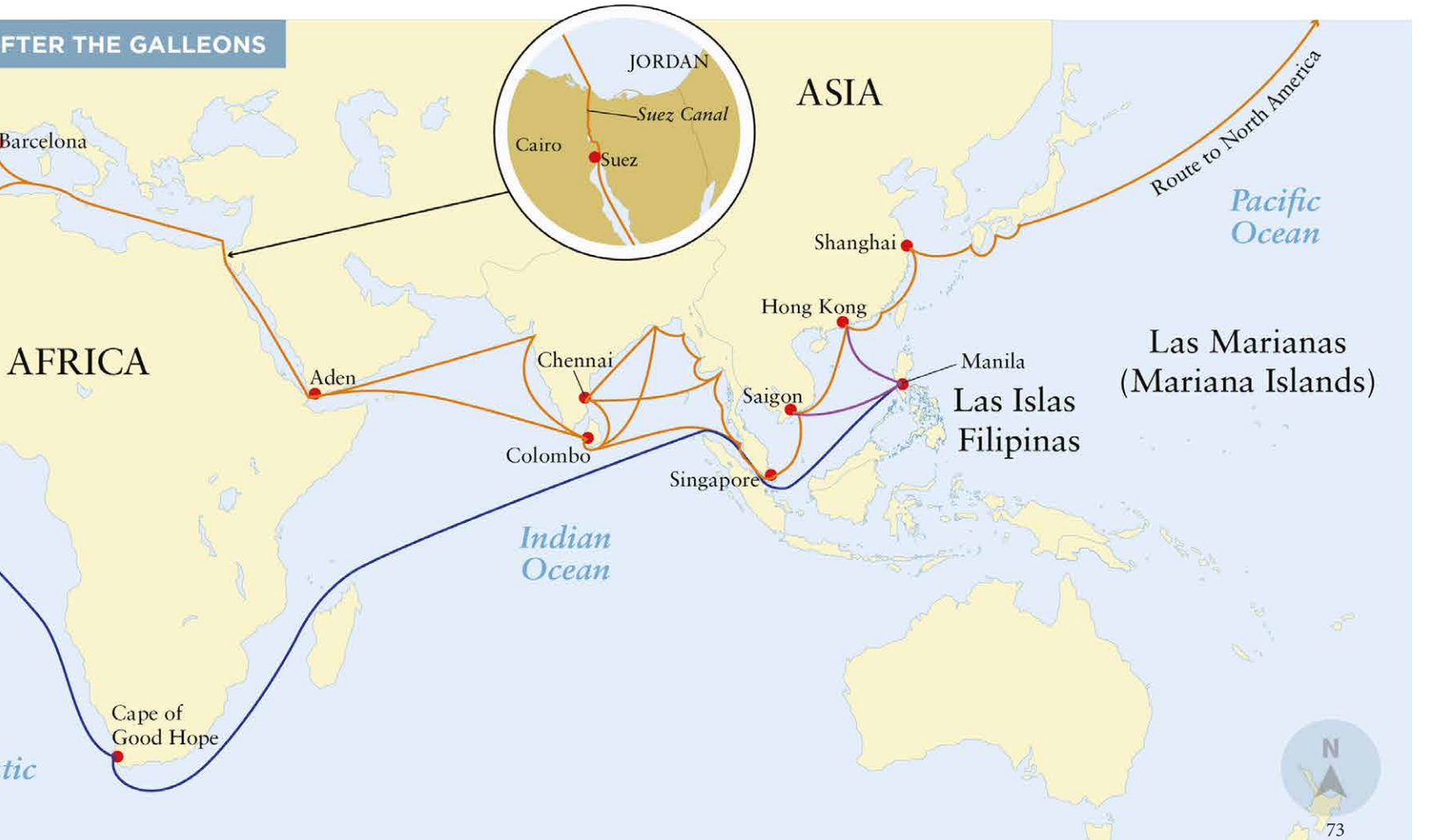
Sources: John Leddy Phelan, *The Hispanization of the Philippines* (Milwaukee: University of Wisconsin Press, 1959) and Luciano P.R. Santiago, *The Hidden Light: The First Filipino Priests* (Quezon City: New Day Publishers, Inc., 1987).



Manila - Acapulco Galleon Trade

- Galleon trade routes, 1568-1815
- Trade routes from the Philippines to Spain before 1869 (approx. 3-4 months)
- Trade routes from the Philippines to Spain, 1869-1898, via Suez Canal (approx. 1 month)
- Commercial routes from the Philippines
- Ports


o (approx. 4 months)
Parte de California
OF CANCER
cific
ean
La Habana
(Havana)
To Spain
Ciudad de Mexico
(Mexico City)
Veracruz
Accapulco
(Acapulco)
ppines (approx. 4 months)
ATOR
This map is drawn for illustration purposes only and without prejudice to the delineation of other domains over which the Republic of the Philippines has sovereignty and jurisdiction.
N


FTER THE GALLEONS
JORDAN
Suez Canal
Cairo
Suez
ASIA
Barcelona
Route to North America
Pacific
Ocean
Shanghai
Hong Kong
AFRICA
Chennai
Manila
Las Marianas
(Mariana Islands)
Aden
Saigon
Las Islas
Filipinas
Colombo
Singapore
Indian
Ocean
Cape of
Good Hope
tic
N

British Occupation of Manila and Other Security Threats from 1600 to 1764

A. LIMAHONG

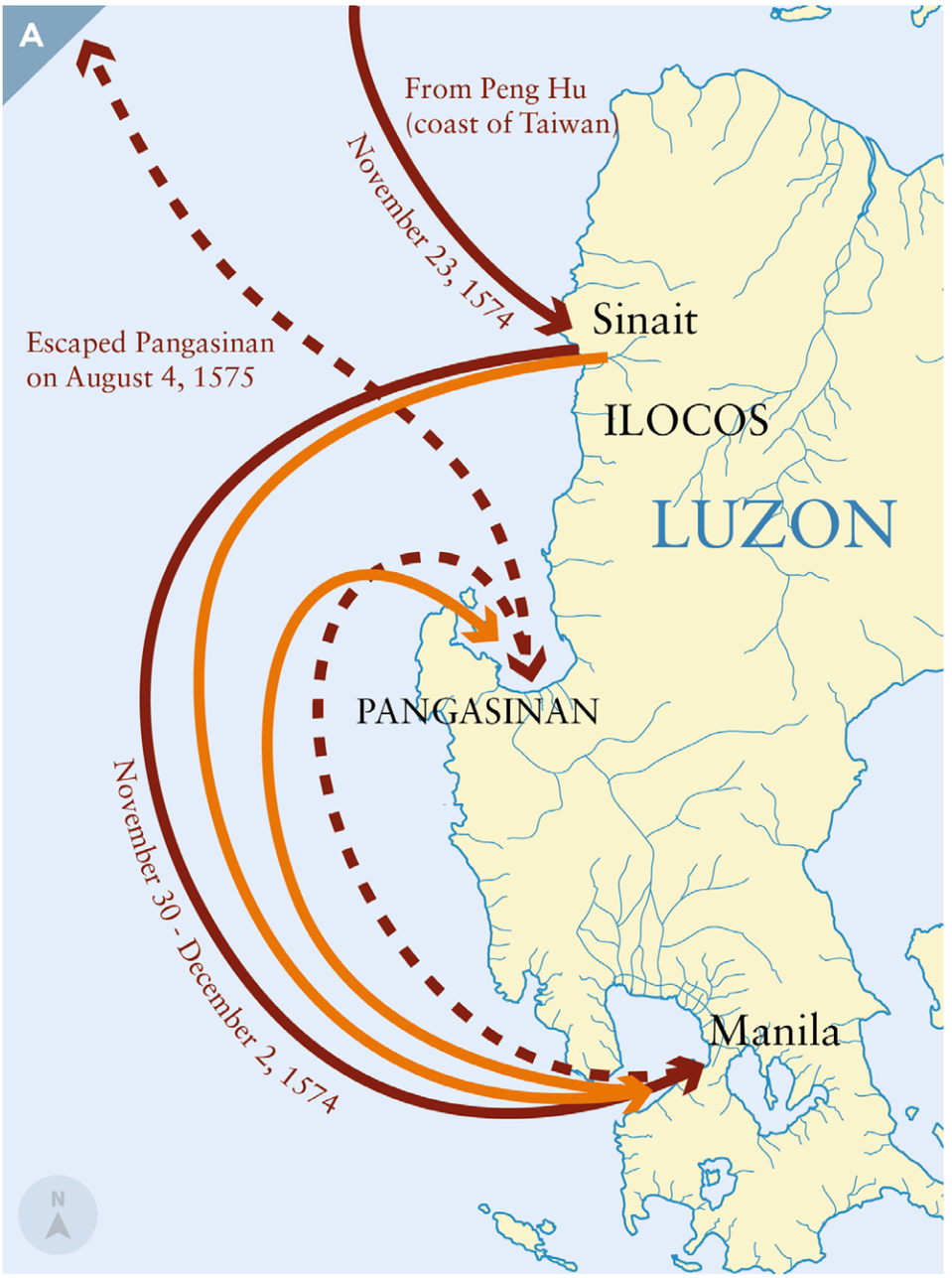
- Limahong's route
- Limahong's retreat
- Spanish offensive

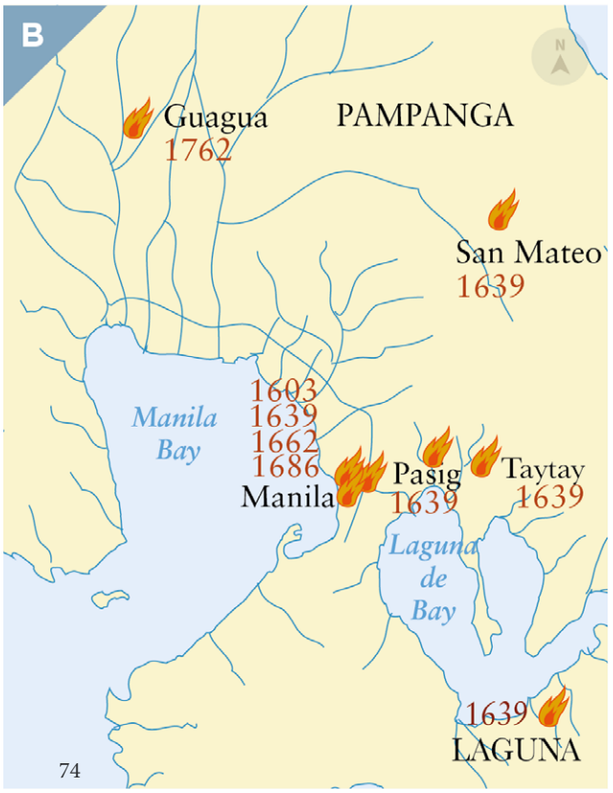
B. CHINESE UPRISING

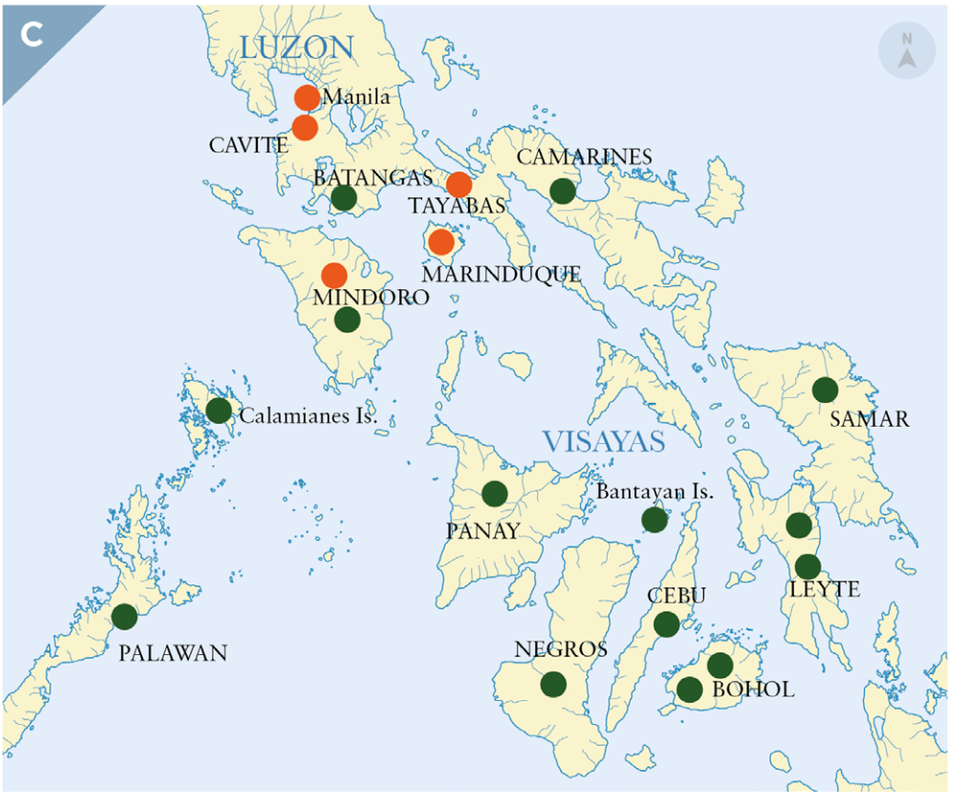
- Chinese rebellions

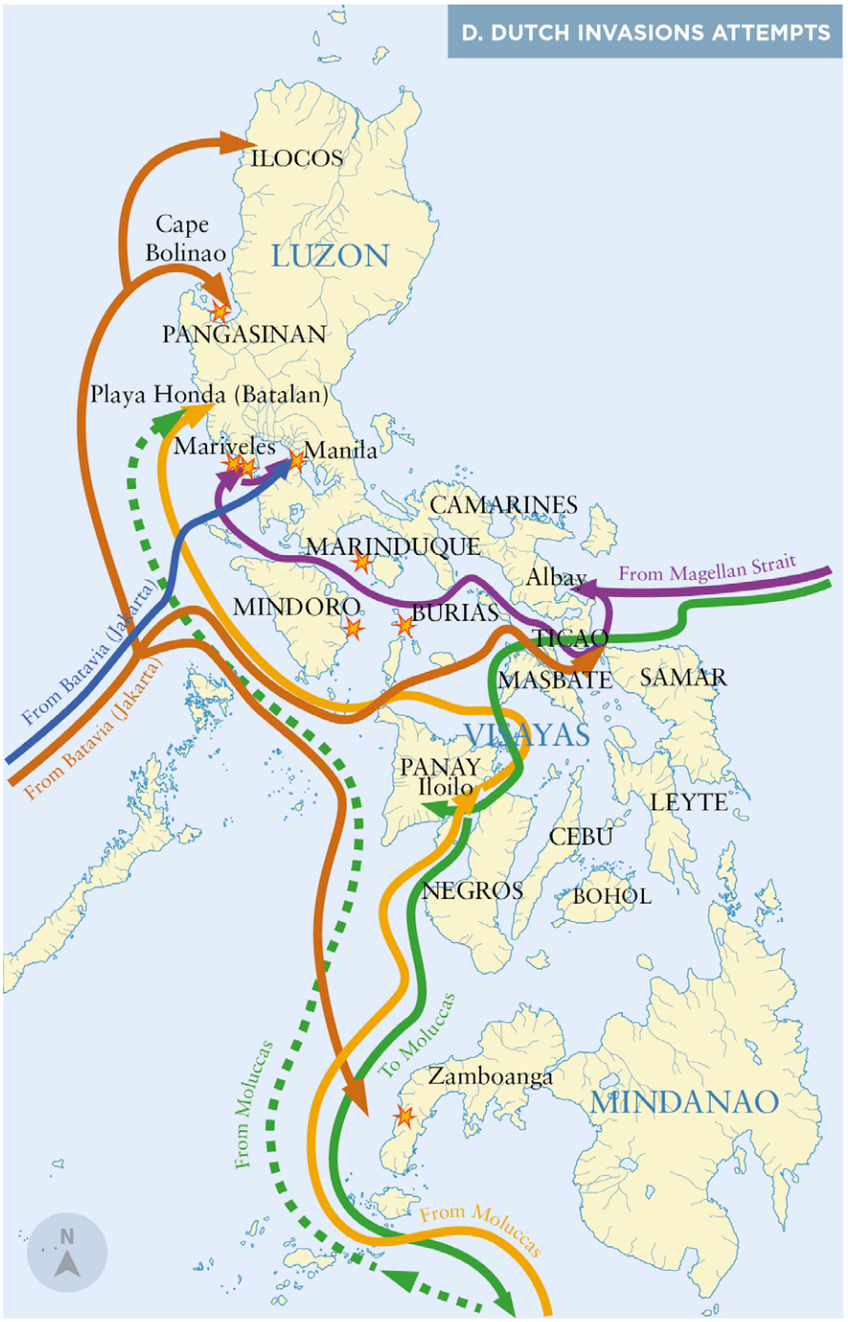
C. MORO RAIDS

- Major Moro raid with more than 500 people captured or killed
- Moro attacks in Luzon









DUTCH INVASION ATTEMPTS

- 1600 Olivier van Noort
- 1609-1610 Francois de Wittert
- 1616-1617 Joris van Speilbergen
- 1646 Battles of La Naval de Manila
- 1647 Dutch bombard Manila
- Battles

BRITISH OCCUPATION OF MANILA

- September 23, 1762, The British arrive in Malate
- The British advance toward Intramuros
- Battery fire of British guns
- Mortar fire
- Churches
- Fort San Antonio Abad

1. The British Army arrives and lands in Malate.
2. The British manages to capture a guarded fort.
3. The British Army marches toward Intramuros.
4. The British surrounds the city.
5. The British Army bombards the walls of Intramuros.
6. The British Army breaches the Spanish defenses.
7. The city is finally secured and placed under the British governance. The British Army then proceeds to occupy the Ports of Cavite.

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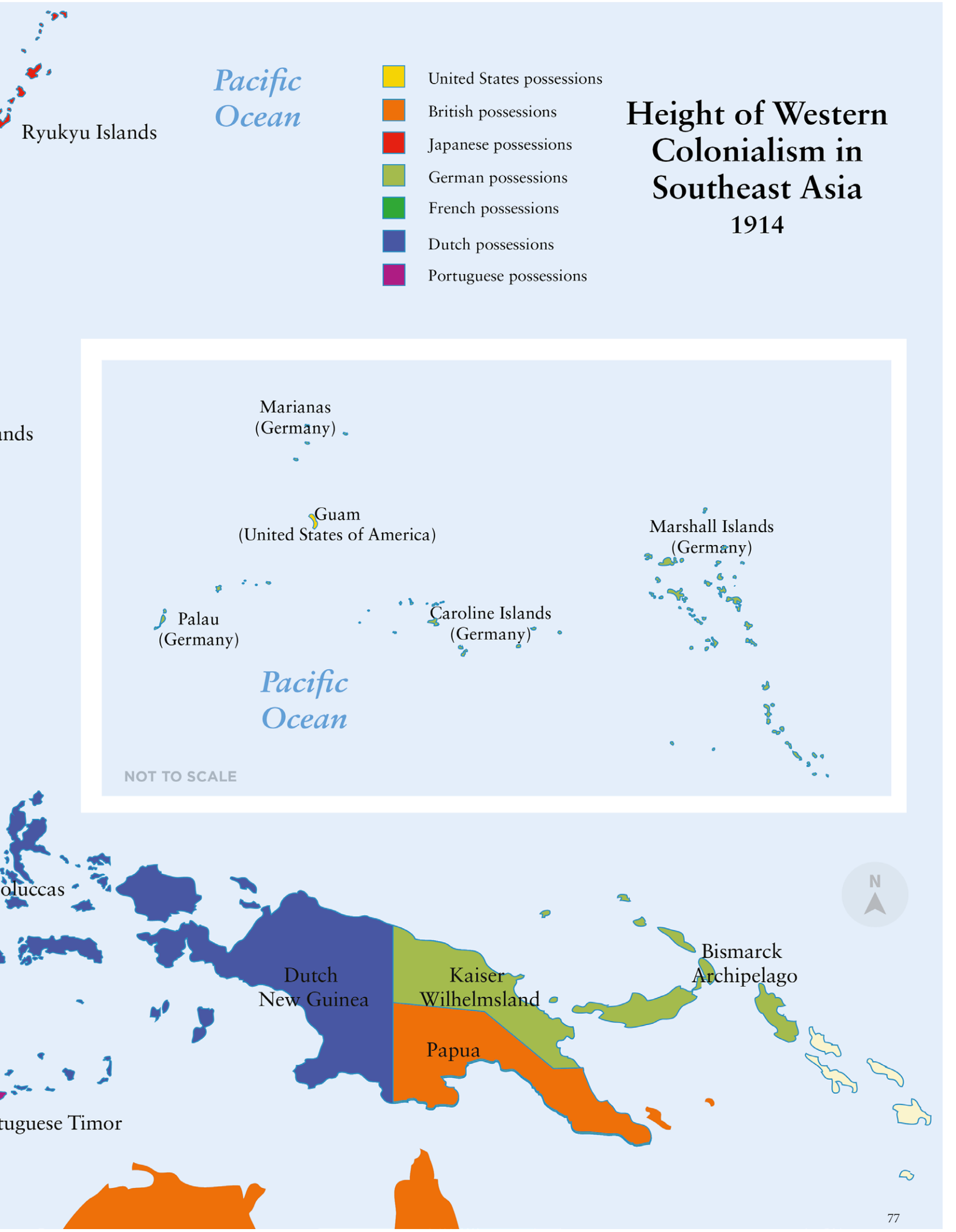

Ryukyu Islands
Pacific Ocean
United States possessions
British possessions
Japanese possessions
German possessions
French possessions
Dutch possessions
Portuguese possessions
Height of Western Colonialism in Southeast Asia
1914
nds
Marianas
(Germany)
Guam
(United States of America)
Marshall Islands
(Germany)
Palau
(Germany)
Caroline Islands
(Germany)
Pacific Ocean
NOT TO SCALE
oluccas
N
Dutch
New Guinea
Kaiser
Wilhelmsland
Bismarck
Archipelago
Papua
tuguese Timor

ILOCOS

- 1589 - Dingras Revolt
- 1660 - 1661 - Pedro Almazan Revolt
- 1762 - 1763 - Diego and Gabriela Silang Revolt
- 1807 - Basi Revolt
- 1811 - Lungao Revolt
- 1815 - Sarrat Rebellion

CORDILLERA

- 1601 - Igorot Revolt in Cordillera
- 1785 - Kalinga Uprising

PANGASINAN

- 1660 - Sumulay Revolt
- 1660 - 1661 - Malong Revolt
- 1762 - 1764 - Palaris Revolt

ZAMBALES

- 1660 - Sambal Revolt (by Pedro Gumapos and Jacinto Macaslag)
- 1645 - Zambales Revolt
- 1681 - 1683 - Sambal Revolt (by Tumalang)

PAMPANGA

- 1585 - Pampanga Revolt
- 1645 - Pampanga Revolt
- 1660 - Maniago Revolt
- 1660 - Melchor de Vera Revolt

BULACAN

- 1643 - Ladia Revolt
- 1745 - 1746 - Agrarian Revolt

MANILA

- 1574 - Sulayman and Lakandula Revolt
- 1762 - 1764 - Tondo Uprising
- 1823 - Andres Novales Mutiny
- 1828 - Palmero Conspiracy
- 1843 - Samaniego Rebellion

MORONG

- 1745 - 1746 - Agrarian Revolt

CAVITE

- 1745 - 1746 - Agrarian Revolt
- 1762 - 1764 - Cavite Uprising
- 1872 - Cavite Mutiny

BATANGAS

- 1745 - 1746 - Agrarian Revolt
- 1762 - 1764 - Batangas Uprising

LAGUNA

- 1745 - 1746 - Agrarian Revolt
- 1762 - 1764 - Laguna Uprising

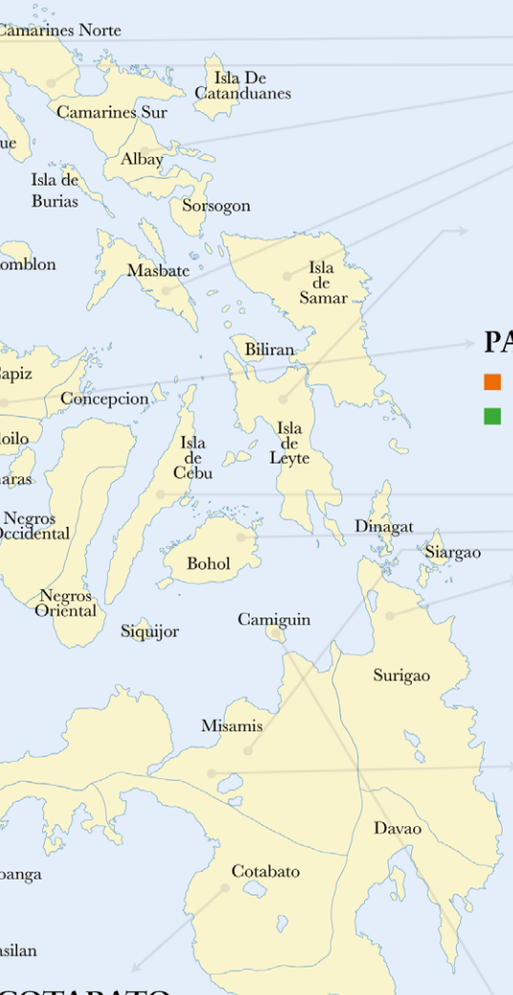
BASILAN

- 1614 - Basilan Uprising

ZAMBOANGA

- Punta de Flechas Resistance (by Tagal)
- 1649 - 1650 - Uprising influenced by the Sumuroy Revolt
- 1762 - 1764 - Zamboanga Uprising

Rebellions prior to the Philippine Revolution



CAGAYAN

- 1589 - Cagayan Revolt
- 1621 - Gaddang Revolt
- 1625 -1626 - Miguel Lanab and Alabanan Revolt
- 1627 - Cagayan Revolt
- 1639 - Cagayan Revolt
- 1718 - Magtangaga and Tomas Sinaguingan Revolt
- 1763 - Dabo and Juan Marayac (Morayac) Revolt

ISABELA

- 1763 - Isabela Revolt (by Labutao and Baladon)

NUEVA VIZCAYA

- 1805 - Nueva Vizcaya Revolt

TAYABAS

- 1762 - 1764 - Tayabas Uprising
- 1840 - 1841 - Hermano Pule Revolt

CAMARINES

- 1649 - 1650 - Uprising influenced by the Sumuroy Revolt
- 1762 - 1764 - Camarines Revolt

ALBAY

- 1649 - 1650 - Uprising influenced by the Sumuroy Revolt

SAMAR

- 1649 - 1650 - Uprising influenced by the Sumuroy Revolt

MASBATE

- 1649 - 1650 - Uprising influenced by the Sumuroy Revolt

LEYTE

- 1622 - Bankaw Revolt

PANAY

- 1663 - Tapar Revolt
- 1762 - 1764 - Panay Revolt

CEBU

- 1649 - 1650 - Uprising influenced by the Sumuroy Revolt
- 1762 - 1764 - Cebu Uprising

BOHOL

- 1621 - Tamblot Revolt
- 1649 - 1650 - Uprising influenced by the Sumuroy Revolt
- 1744 - 1829 - Francisco Dagohoy Revolt

ILIGAN

- 1649 - 1650 - Uprising influenced by the Sumuroy Revolt

CARAGA

- 1630 - Caraga Revolt
- 1649 - 1650 - Uprising influenced by the Sumuroy Revolt

LANAO

- 1625 - Sultan Kudarat Resistance
- 1637 - Sultan Kudarat Resistance
- 1639 - Lanao Revolt

CAMIGUIN

- 1649 - 1650 - Uprising influenced by the Sumuroy Revolt

SULU

- 1578 - 1580 Sultan Pangurian Resistance
- 1602 - Moro Resistance
- 1638 - Sultan Bungsu Resistance
- 1639 - Sultan Salibansa Resistance

COTABATO

- 1596 - Moro Resistance (against Capt. Esteban Rodriguez de Figueroa)
- 1861 - Cotabato Uprising (by Datu Arneriel)

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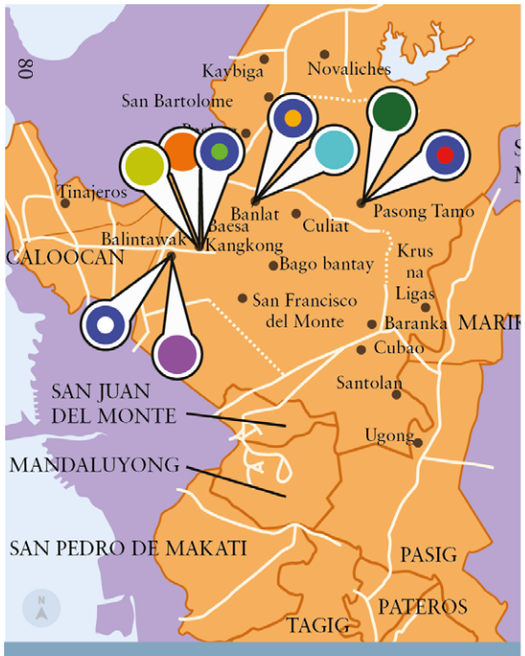
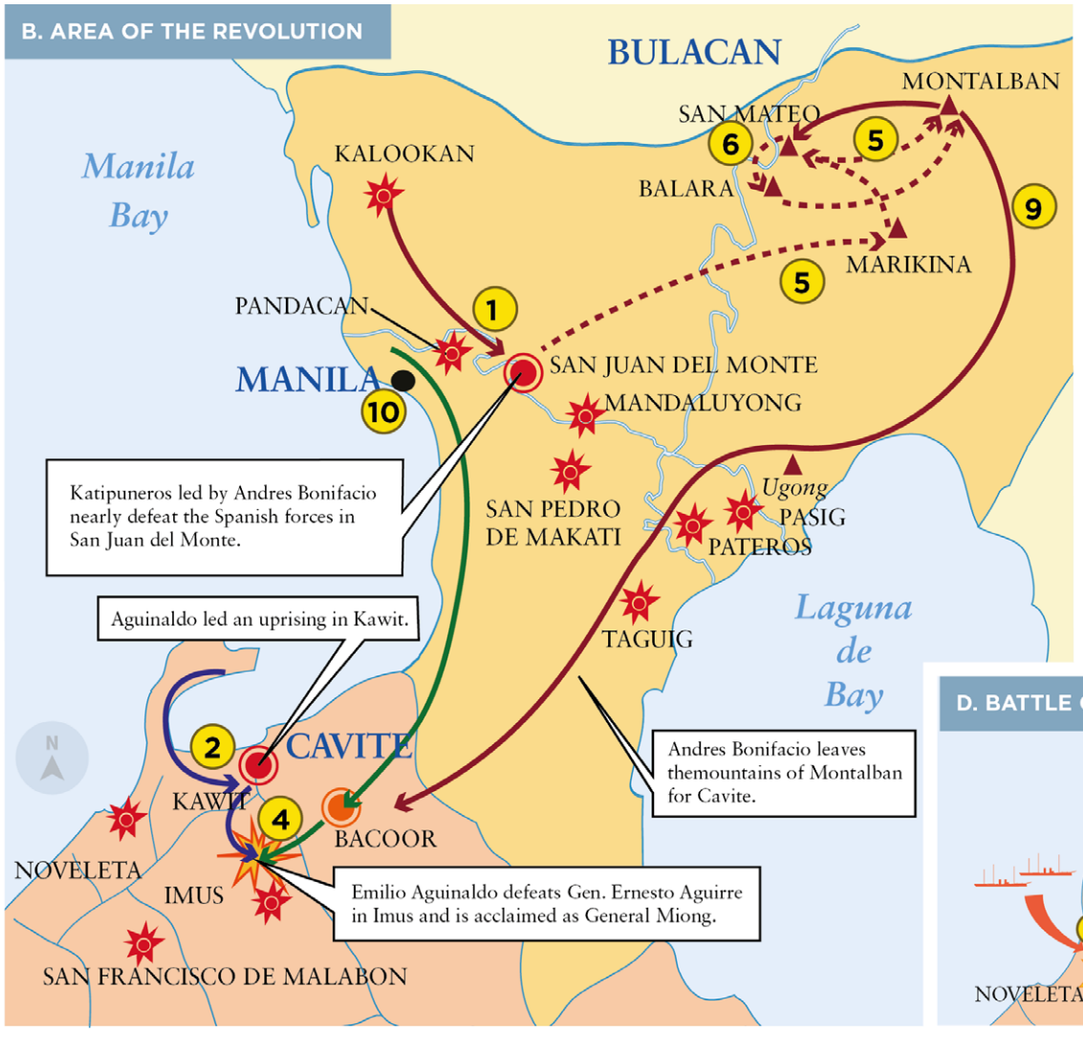
N

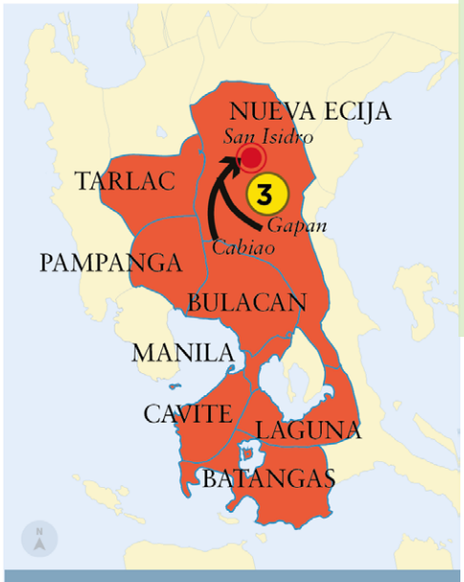
16th century 17th century 18th century 19th century



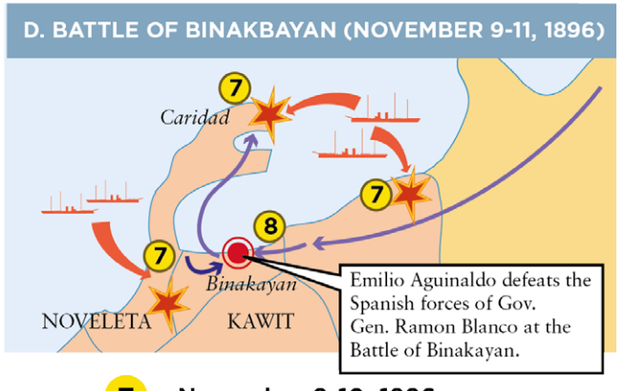
A. CRY OF THE PHILIPPINE REVOLUTION



B. AREA OF THE REVOLUTION



C. PROVINCES UNDER MARTIAL LAW (AUGUST 30, 1896)



D. BATTLE OF BINAKBAYAN (NOVEMBER 9-11, 1896)

August 23, 1896
(1911)
Pio Valenzuela
Kangkong

August 23, 1896
(1964, 1978)
Pio Valenzuela
Pugad Lawin-Banlat

August 24, 1896
(1928)
Pio Valenzuela
Pugad Lawin-
Pasong Tamo

August 24, 1896
Santiago Alvarez
Pasong Tamo

August 24, 1896
Recent Scholarship
Banlat

August 25, 1896
Capt. Olegario Diaz
Balintawak

August 26, 1896
Pio Valenzuela
Balintawak

August 26, 1896
Vicente Samson
Kangkong

August 26, 1896
Guillermo Masangkay
Kangkong

Outbreak of the Philippine Revolution

August - December 1896

1 August 29-30, 1896
- Bonifacio's forces
- Simultaneous attacks
- Katipunan assaults

2 August 31, 1896
- Aguinaldo's forces

3 September 2-4, 1896
- Llanera and Gapan's forces attacks a Spanish Garrison but were eventually repelled

4 September 5, 1896
- Aguinaldo's forces
- Brig. Gen. Aguirre's forces
- Spanish offensive

5 September 1896
- Bonifacio's retreat

6 November 1896
- Bonifacio's advance to San Mateo
- Bonifacio retreats to Balara
- Katipunan hill bases

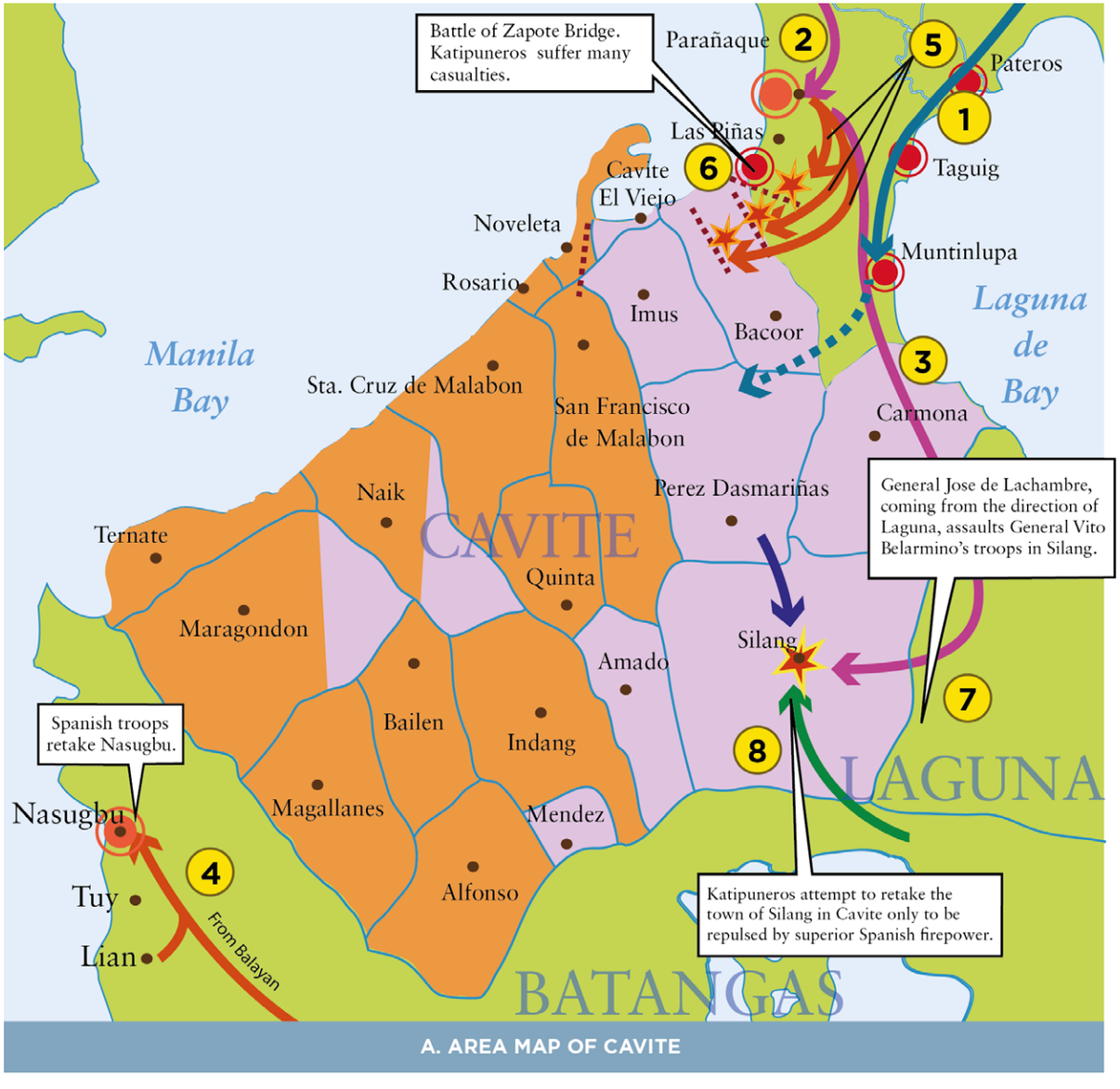
7 November 9-10, 1896
- Spanish naval bombardments of Cavite towns

8 November 9-11, 1896
- Gov. Gen. Blanco's forces
- Aguinaldo's forces

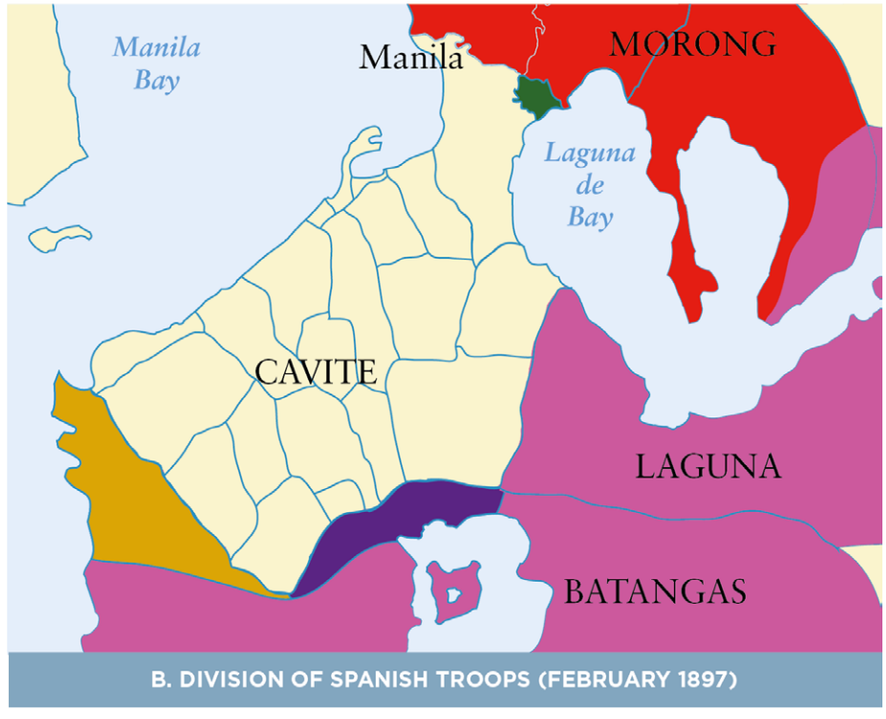
9 December, 1896
- Bonifacio's route to Imus, Cavite

10 December 30, 1896
- Jose Rizal is executed at Bagumbayan

Base map:
M.M. Alicante et al., *Soil Survey of Rizal Province* (Manila: Department of Agriculture and Commerce, 1937).



A. AREA MAP OF CAVITE



B. DIVISION OF SPANISH TROOPS (FEBRUARY 1897)

- Governor General Polavieja
- General Zappino
- General Jamarillo
- General Galbis
- General Lachambre

- Magdalo faction
- Magdiwang faction
- Katipunan assaults
- Spanish assaults

1 January 1897
- Crispulo Aguinaldo's forces
- Crispulo Aguinaldo's retreat to Cavite

2 January 14, 1897
- General Lachambre's forces

3 January 15, 1897
- General Lachambre's forces

4 Middle of January 1897
- Spanish troops

5 February 16, 1897
- Spanish troops
- Katipunan defense lines

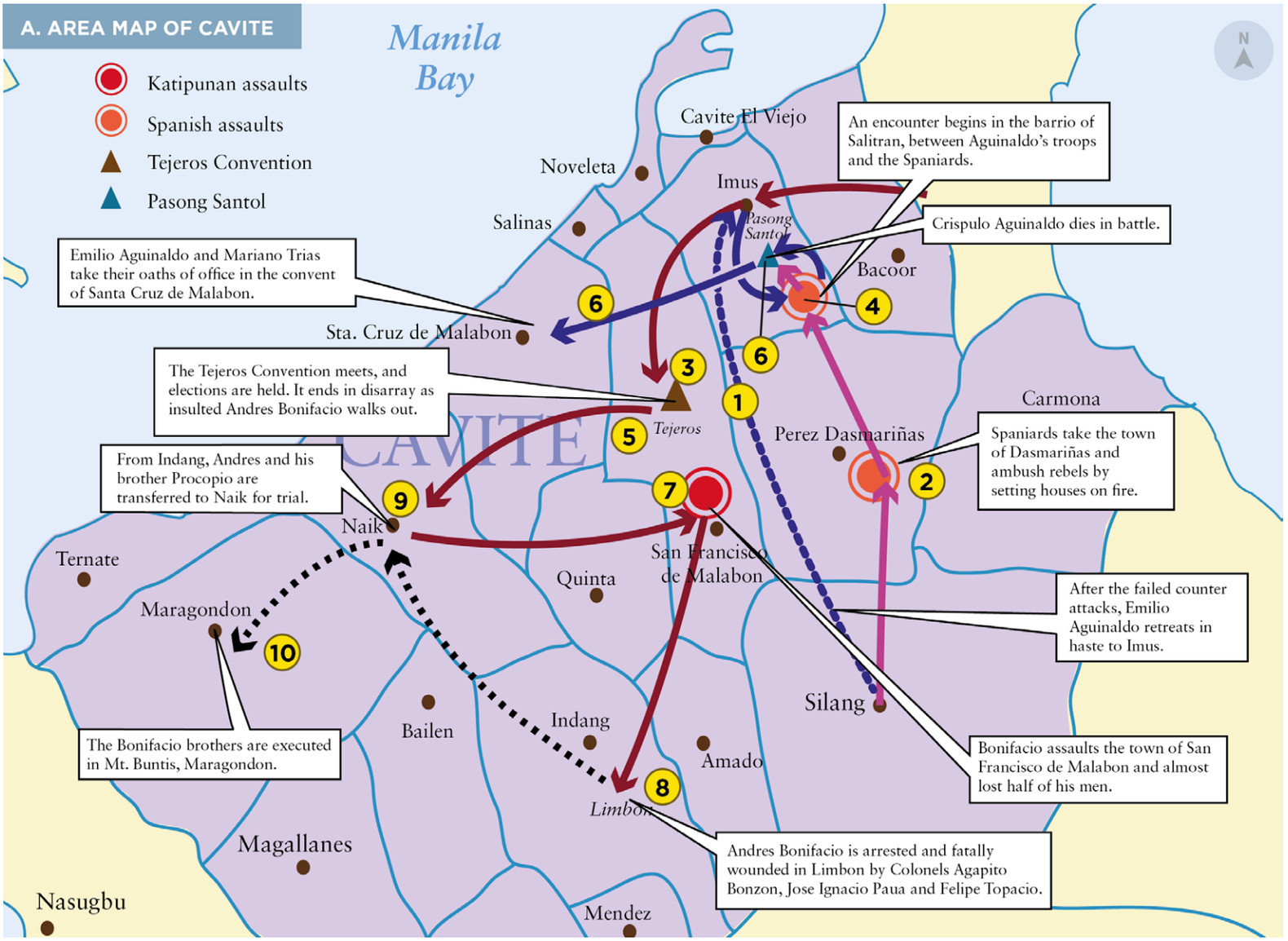
6 February 17, 1897
- Battle of Zapote Bridge

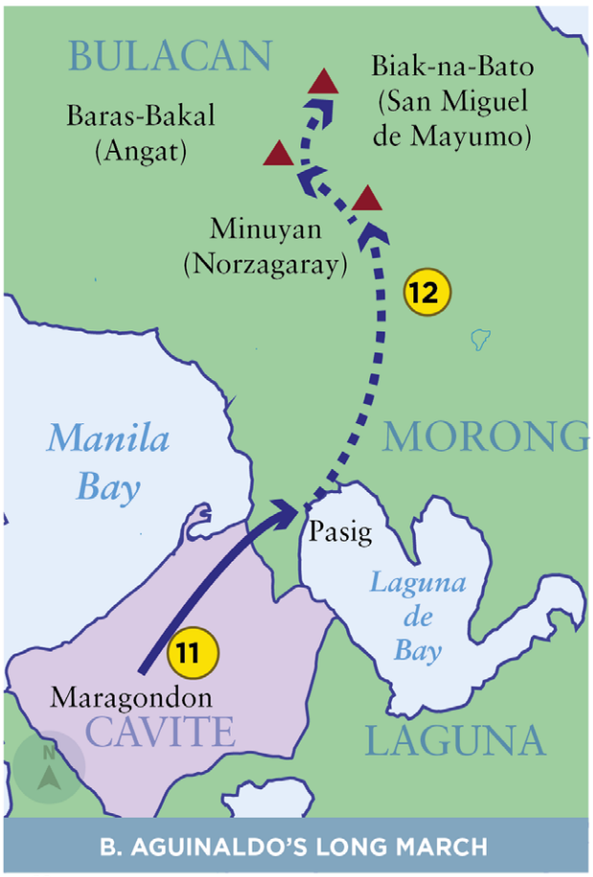
7 February 17-18, 1897
- General Lachambre's forces

8 February 22-23, 1897
- Aguinaldo's forces
- Crisostomo Riel's forces
- Katipunan-Spanish clash

Outbreak of the Philippine Revolution

January - February 1897





1 **February 23, 1897**
- Aguinaldo's retreat
- Bonifacio's route to Imus

2 **February 27, 1897**
- General Jose de Lachambre's forces

3 **March 22, 1897**
- Bonifacio goes to Tejeros

4 **March 22, 1897**
- General Jose de Lachambre's forces
- Aguinaldo's forces

5 **March 23, 1897**
- Bonifacio's forces goes to Naik

6 **March 23, 1897**
- Aguinaldo's forces

7 **End of March-April, 1897**
- Bonifacio's advance

8 **April 27, 1897**

9 **April 29 - May 6, 1897**
- Bonifacio brothers as captives

10 **May 10, 1897**
- Bonifacio brothers as captives

11 **End of May 1897**
- Aguinaldo's forces

12 **June 1897**

Outbreak of the Philippine Revolution

February - June 1897

General Emilio Aguinaldo's Journey

- Pangasinan to Hong Kong, December 27-31, 1897
- Hong Kong to Singapore via Saigon, April 7-23, 1898
- Singapore to Hong Kong, April 26 - May 1, 1898
- Hong Kong to Cavite, May 17-19, 1898
- Commodore George Dewey sails to Manila from Mirs Bay, Hong Kong, April 25, 1898 - May 1, 1898

Arrival of Dewey at Manila Bay

The American Capture of Manila and Subsequent Movements
(August 13, 1898)

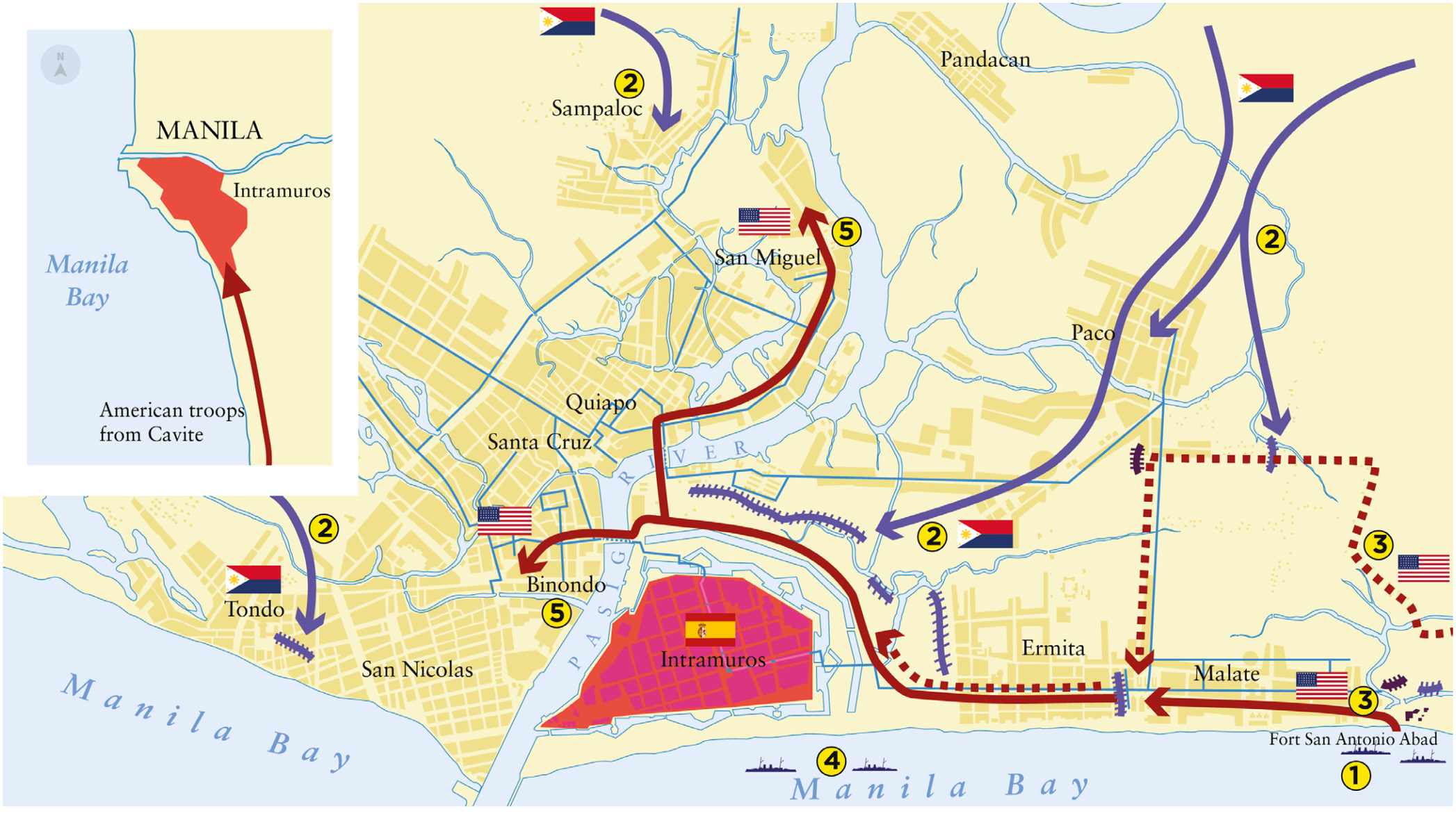
American attack route

The U.S. squadron fires upon the Spanish ships in line ahead.

Dewey halts the attack and allowed his men to have breakfast.

Fire of shore batteries

Spanish ships



Mock Battle of Manila, August 13, 1898

- Line of fresh water supply from Sampaloc
- Aguinaldo's troops cut off the water supply
- Filipino assault from different directions
- Advance of U.S. troops (Second Brigade under Gen. F.V. Greene)
- Advance of U.S. troops (First Brigade under Gen. Arthur MacArthur)
- Filipino trenches
- Spanish trenches
- Spanish troops
- American troops
- Filipino troops
- Spanish-occupied Intramuros

1. American Navy bombards Fort San Antonio Abad.
2. Filipino troops build trenches around Intramuros.
3. American troops march towards Intramuros.
4. American Navy bombards Spanish positions in Intramuros.
5. American troops march towards San Miguel and Binondo area following the surrrender of Intramuros.

Establishment of the First Republic

A First ratification of the Proclamation of Independence (August 1, 1898).

B Second ratification of the Proclamation of Independence (September 15, 1898).

One overseas territory represented by a delegate appointed by President Emilio Aguinaldo was Palaos (present-day Palau).

Territories represented in the Malolos Congress and in the ratification of the Proclamation of Independence but at the same time had their own government which did not recognize the authority of the Revolutionary Government at Malolos.

C Territories representing the full extent of the territory administered by the First Republic (excluded is the overseas terrritory of Palau which designated a delegate to Congress).

Base Map: *Mapa General. Islas Filipinas Observatorio de Manila. United States Coast and Geodetic Survey. No. 2. Longitud E. del Meridiano de Greenwich.* (Baltimore: A. Hoen and Co., 1899)

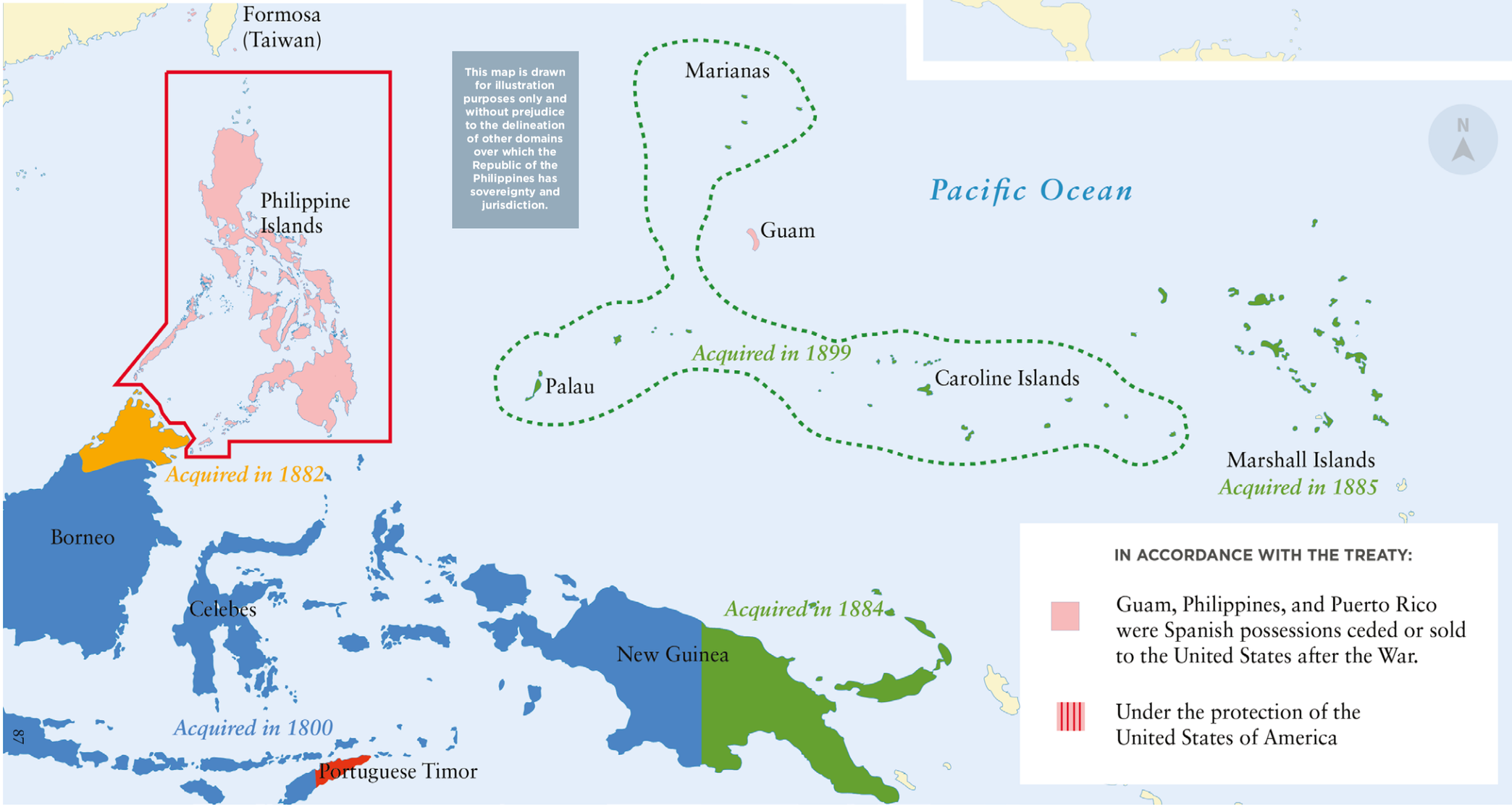
This map is drawn for illustration purposes only and without prejudice to the delineation of other domains over which the Republic of the Philippines has sovereignty and jurisdiction.

Treaty of Paris of 1898

(as amended by the Treaty of Washington of 1900)

- Spanish colonies
- German colonies
- Dutch colonies
- British colony
- Portuguese colony

- Philippine territory by virtue of the Treaty of Paris
- Sold to Germany by the Spanish after the Spanish-American War



IN ACCORDANCE WITH THE TREATY:

Guam, Philippines, and Puerto Rico were Spanish possessions ceded or sold to the United States after the War.

Under the protection of the United States of America

Philippine and American Dispositions on the Eve of War 1899

ZONE 1	Brig. Gen. Mariano Noriel Lt. Col. Juan Cailes
ZONE 2	Brig. Gen. Pio del Pilar Lt. Col. Luciano San Miguel
ZONE 3	Col. Antonio Montenegro Lt. Col. Hermogenes Bautista
ZONE 4	Brig. Gen. Pantaleon Garcia Col. Cipriano Pacheco

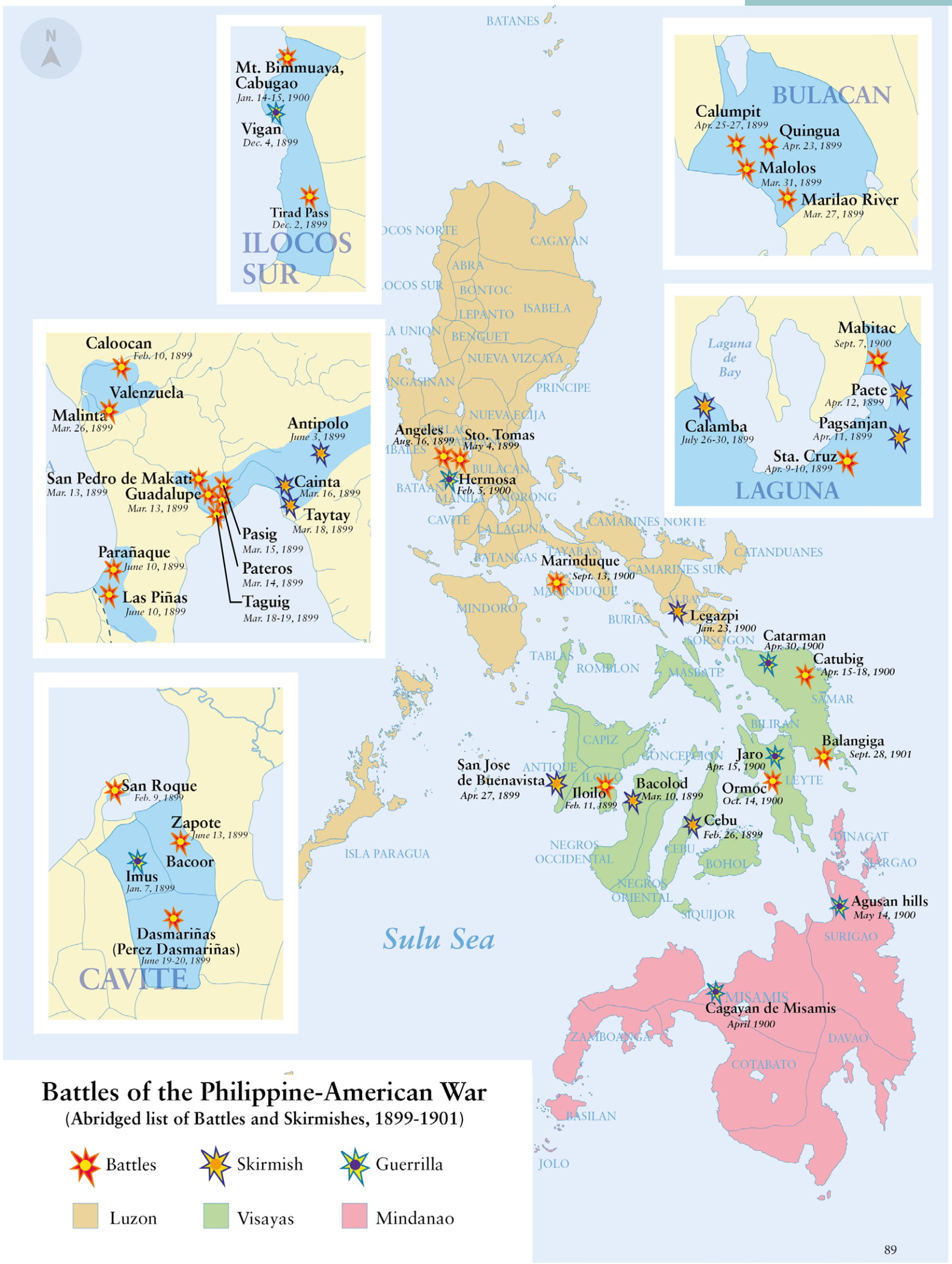
ZONE 1 Bacoor, Pineda (now part of Pasay), Pasay, Las Piñas, Malate, Parañaque, Paco, Binondo, San Miguel, San Sebastian (now part of Tondo), San Nicolas, Quiapo, and Tondo

ZONE 2 Pasig, Taguig, Sta. Ana, San Pedro de Makati (Makati), and Province of Morong (Rizal)

ZONE 3 San Mateo, Marikina, Montalban, Mandaluyong, Pandacan, San Juan del Monte, and San Francisco del Monte.

ZONE 4 Caloocan, Novaliches, Tambobong (Malabon), and San Jose de Navotas.

American positions ● Towns



Battles of the Philippine-American War

(Abridged list of Battles and Skirmishes, 1899-1901)

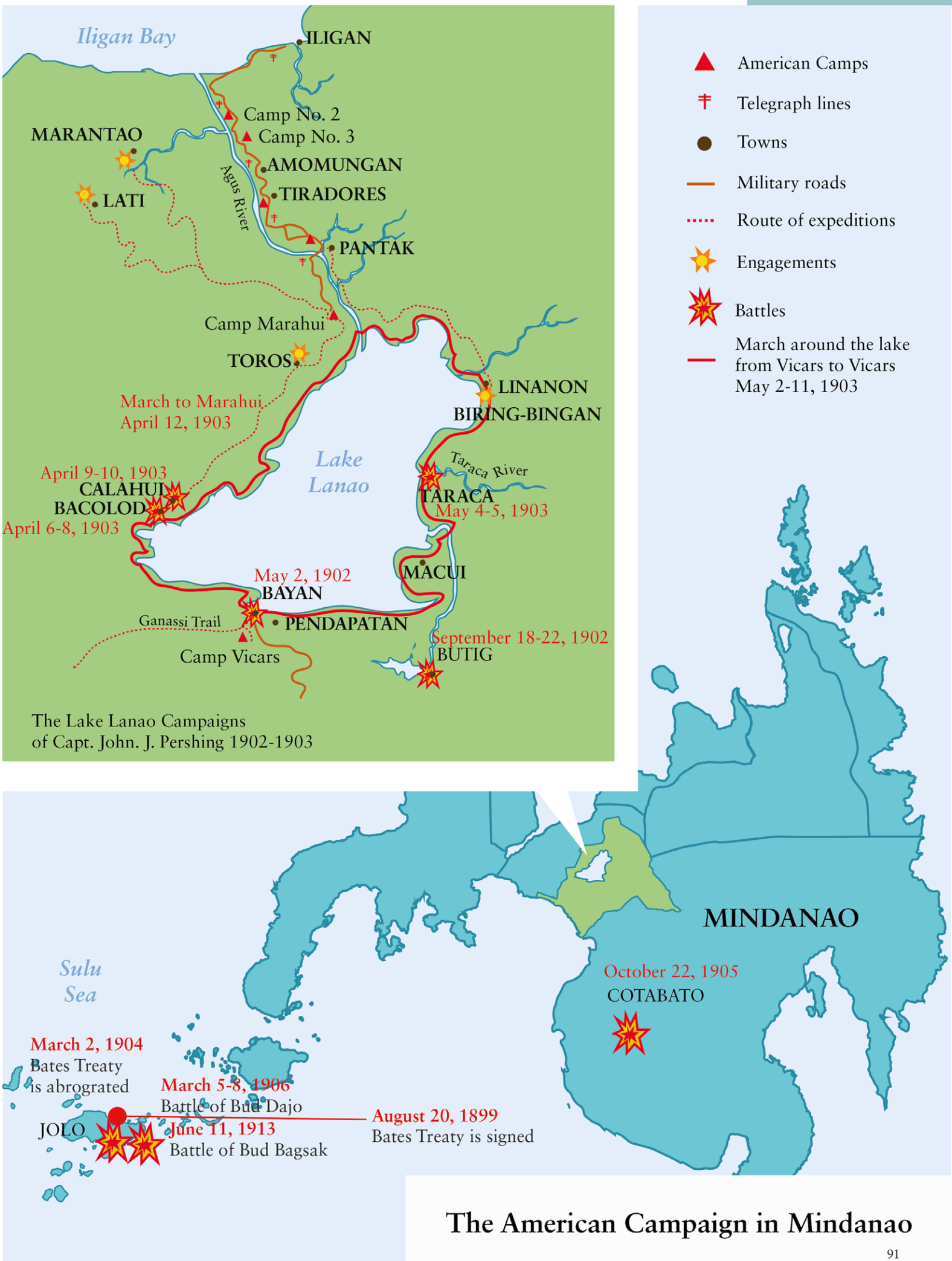
Battles | Skirmish | Guerrilla

Luzon | Visayas | Mindanao

Brig. Gen. Frederick Funston's route to capture President Aguinaldo

The American Campaign in Northern Luzon to Capture President Emilio Aguinaldo

- Major General Henry Lawton's command
- Lieutenant General Arthur MacArthur's command
- Major General Loyd Wheaton's command
- President Emilio Aguinaldo and company's retreat to the mountains
- Via USS Vicksburg
- Route to Palanan, Isabela
- ★ Provincial Capitals
- ● Towns
- Provincial boundaries

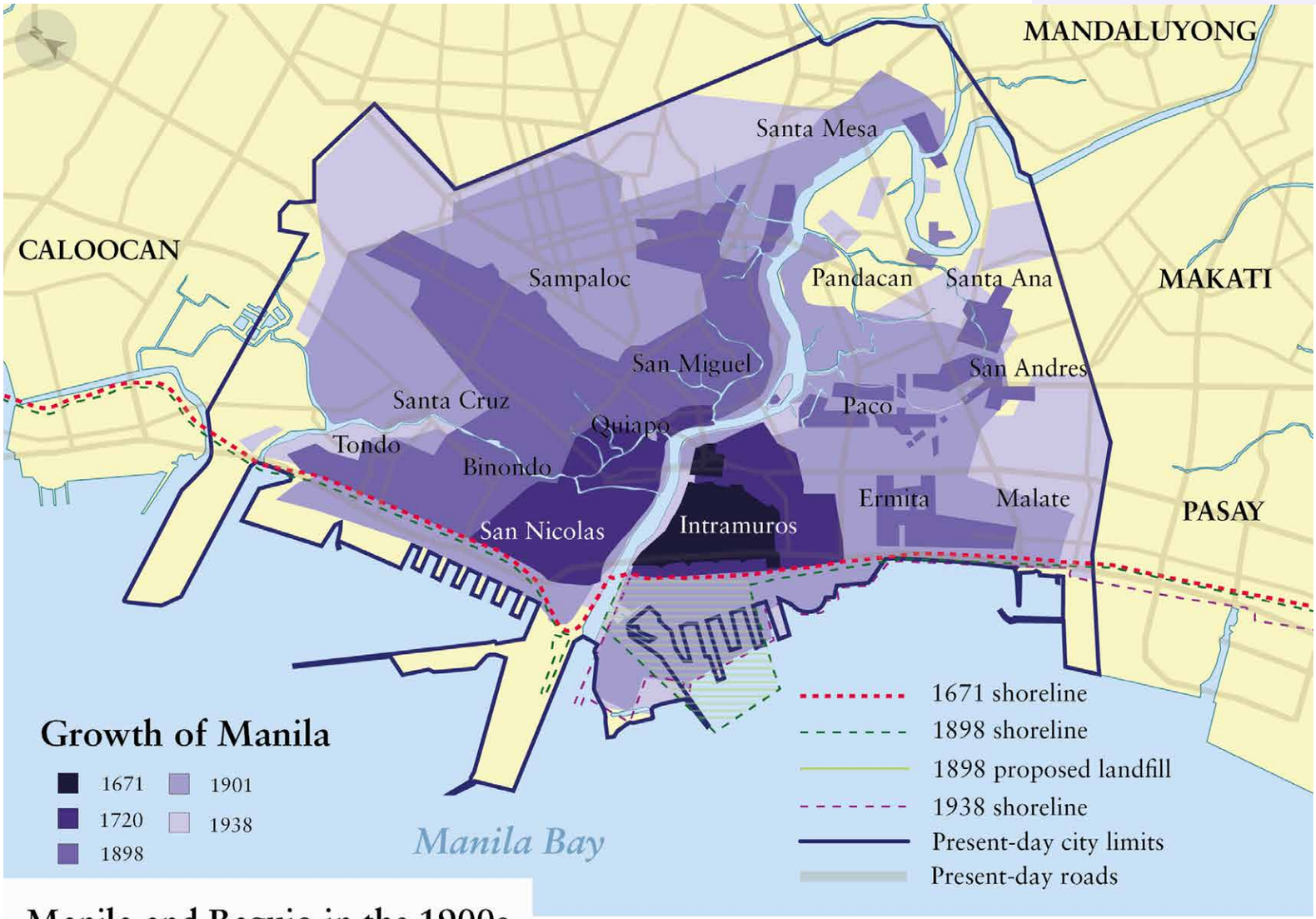


The American Campaign in Mindanao

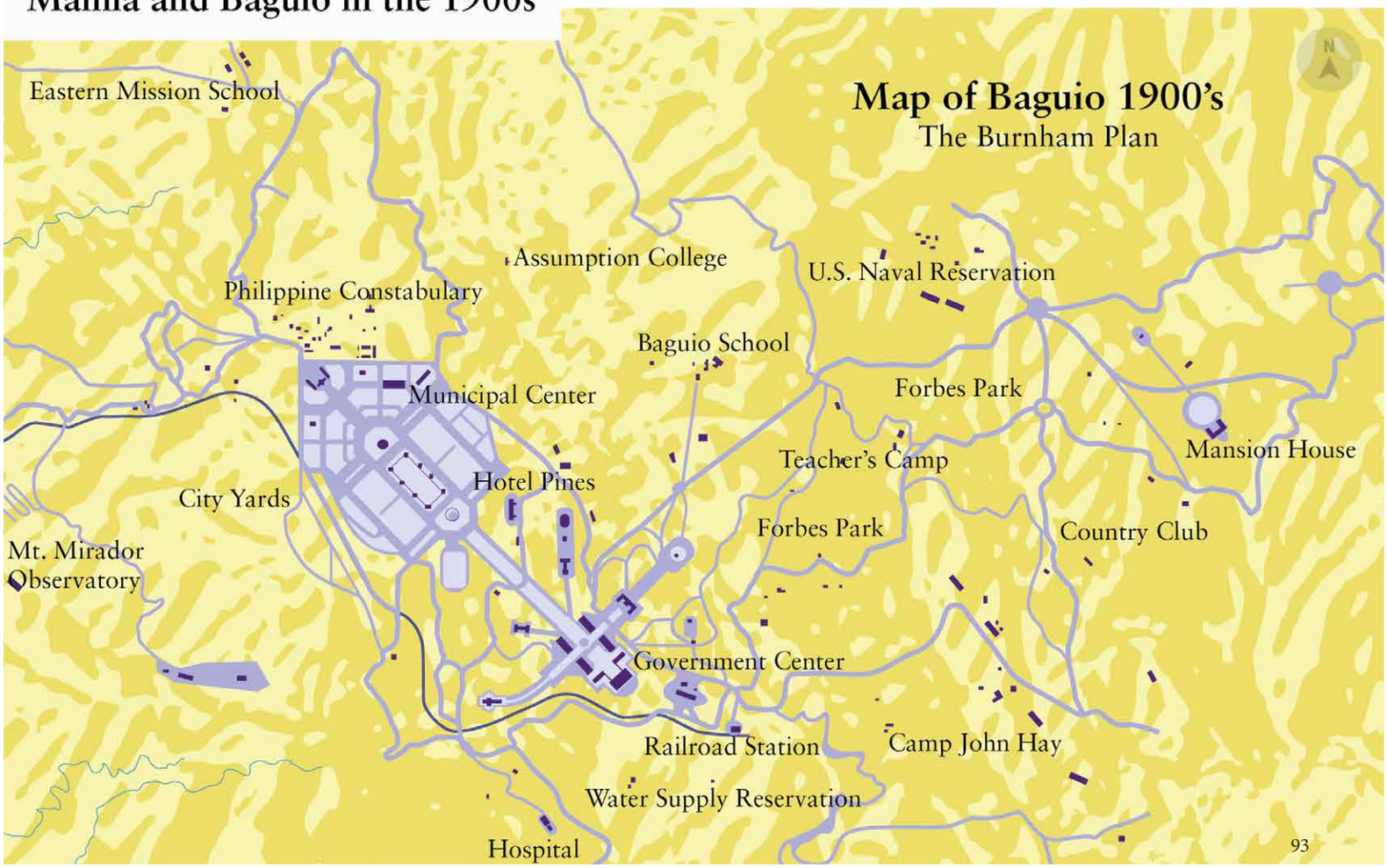
Political Map of the Philippines in the First Decade of American Colonial Rule

This map is drawn for illustration purposes only and without prejudice to the delineation of other domains over which the Republic of the Philippines has sovereignty and jurisdiction.

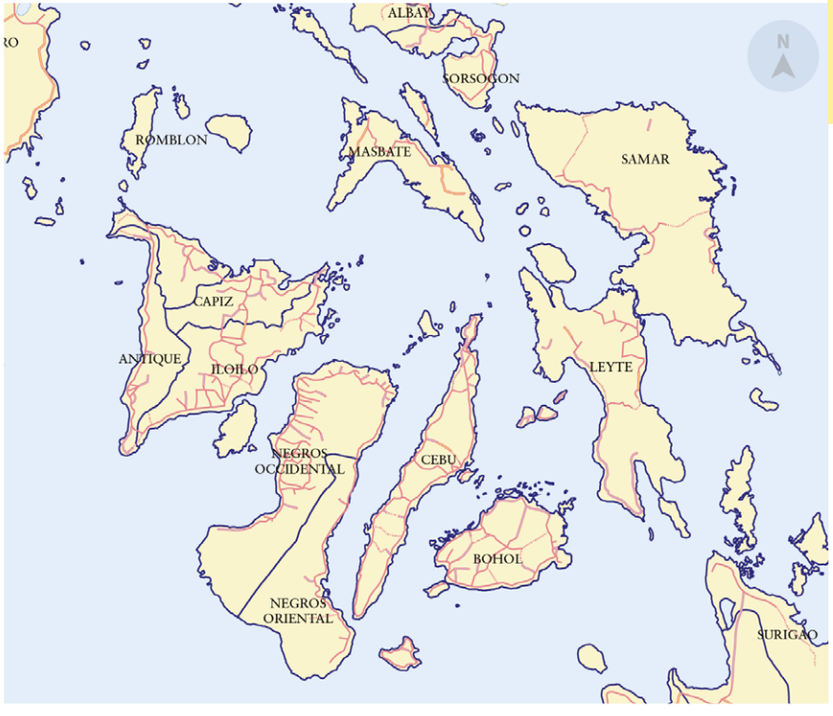
Base map: *Map of the Philippine Islands* (Baltimore: Yonkers-on-Hudson, World Book Company, 1908).



Manila and Baguio in the 1900s



Political Map of the Philippines under the Commonwealth



First class roads

Proposed roads

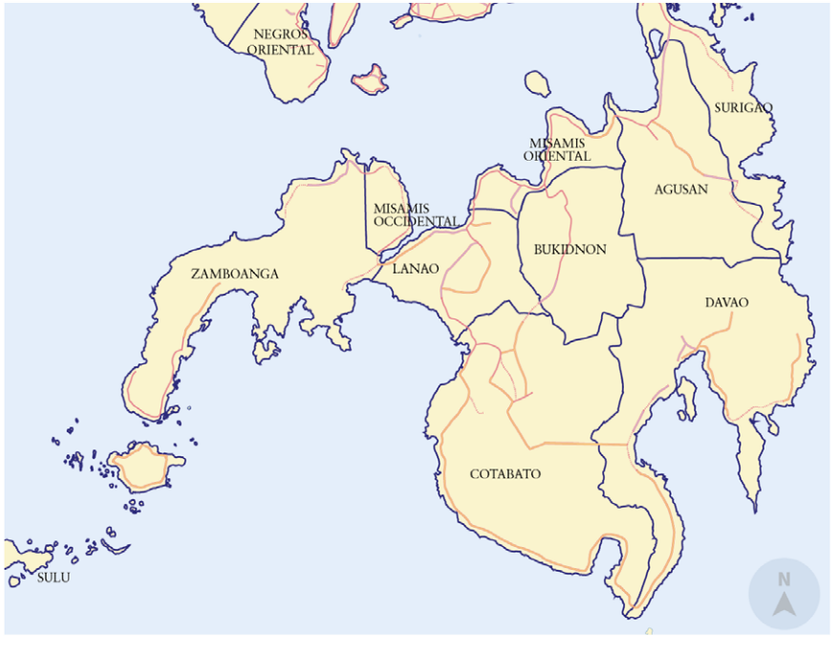
Provincial borders

Second class roads

Construction

Railways

Manila-Legazpi Railroad



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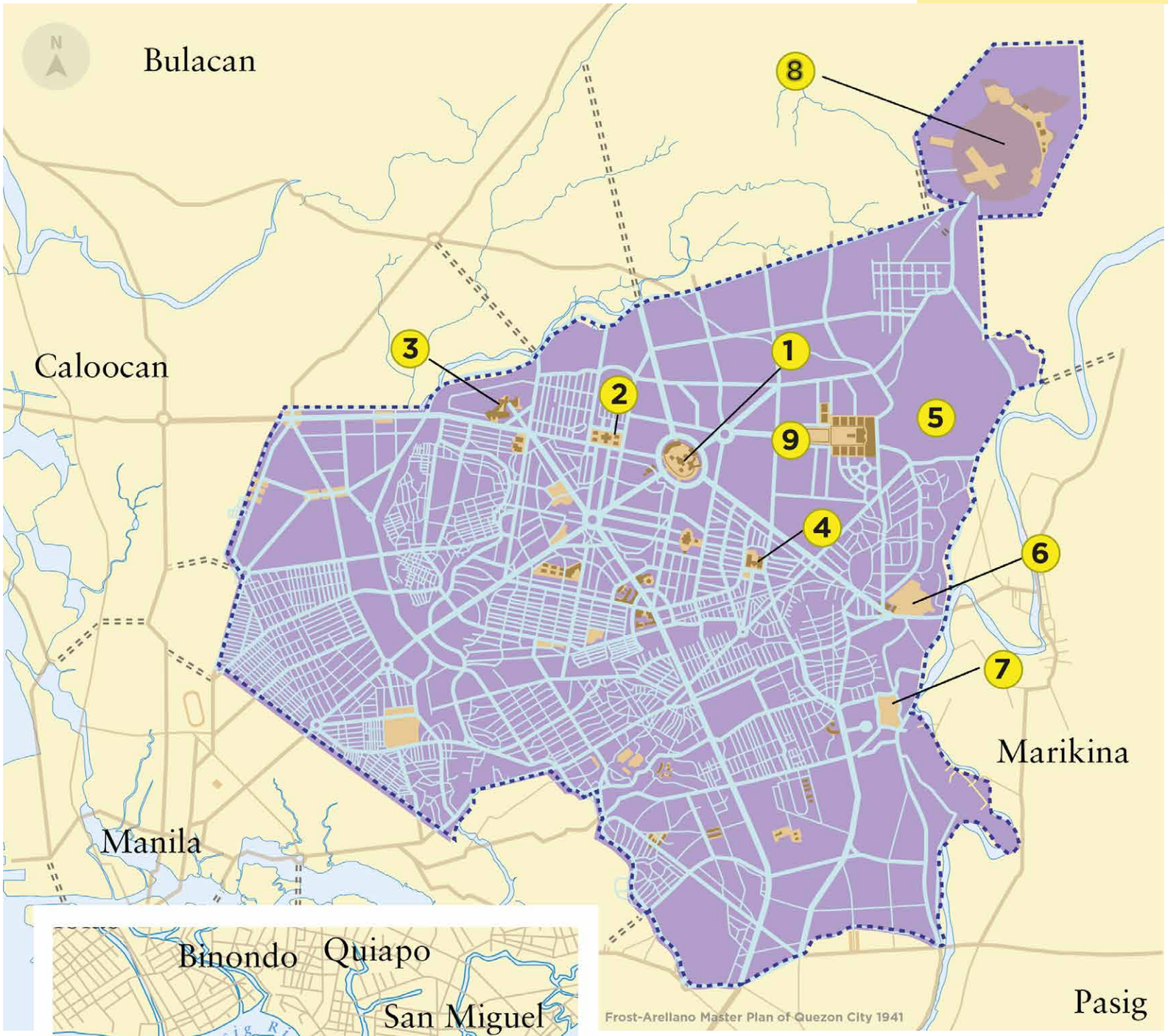
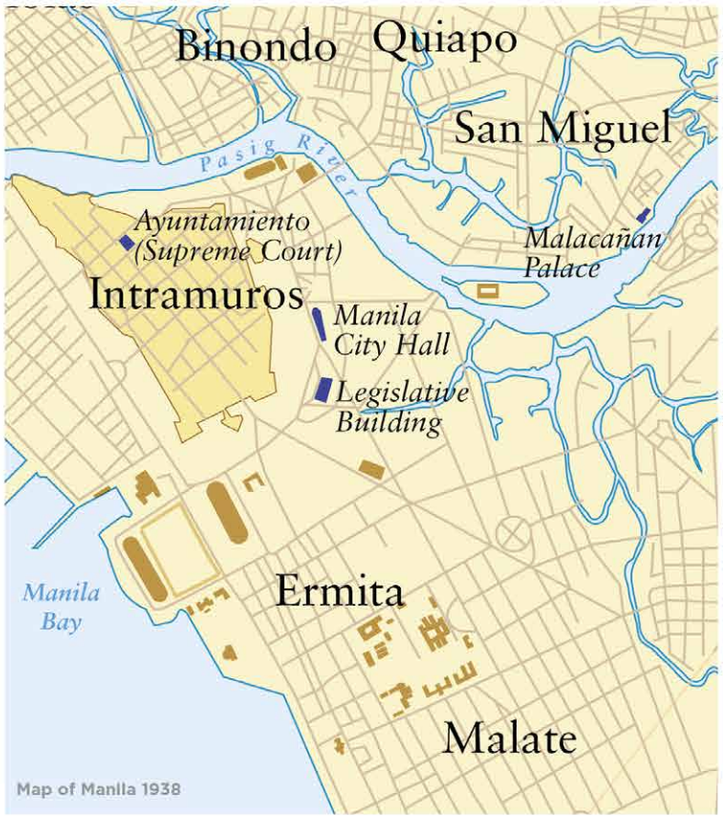


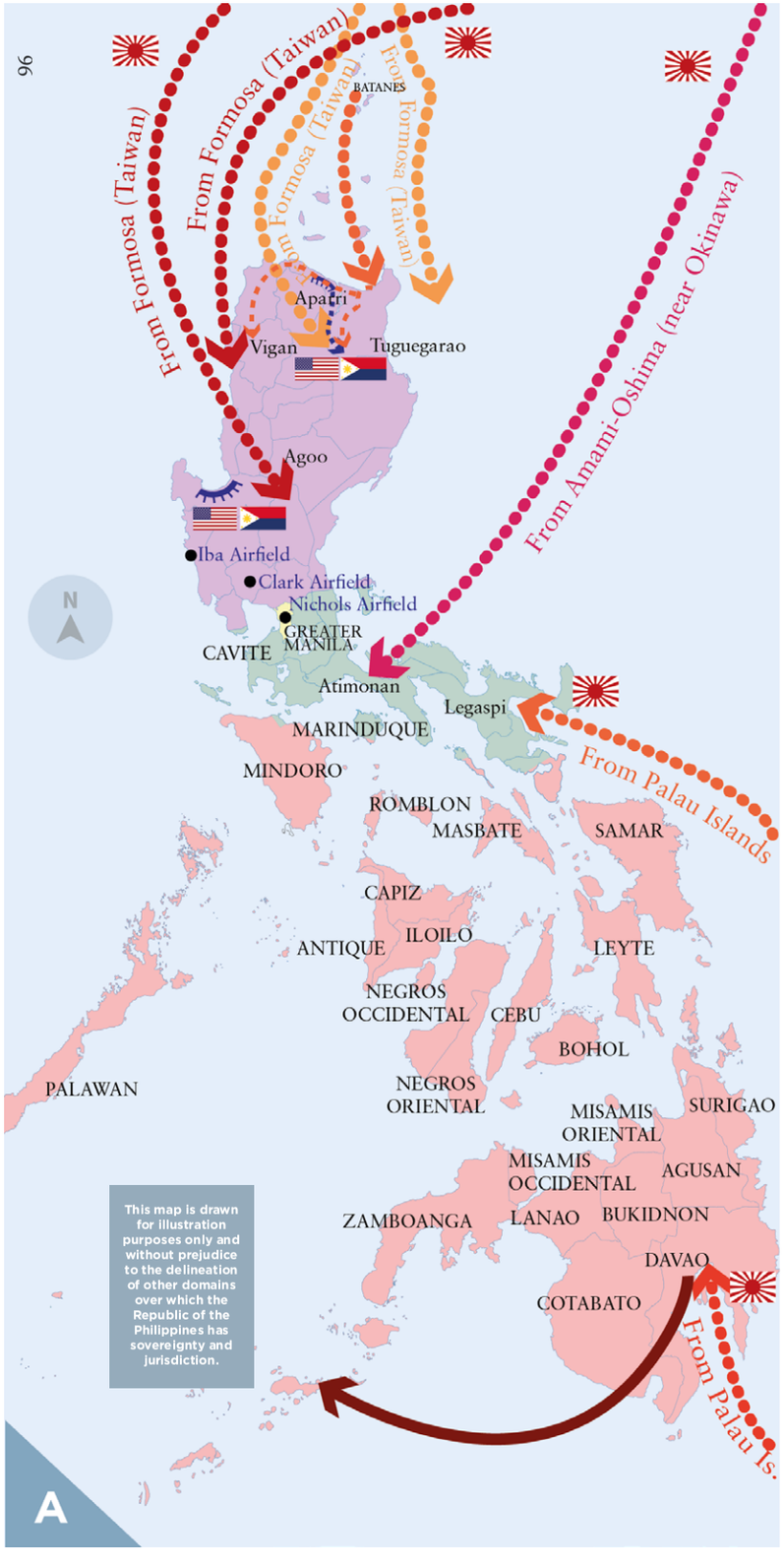


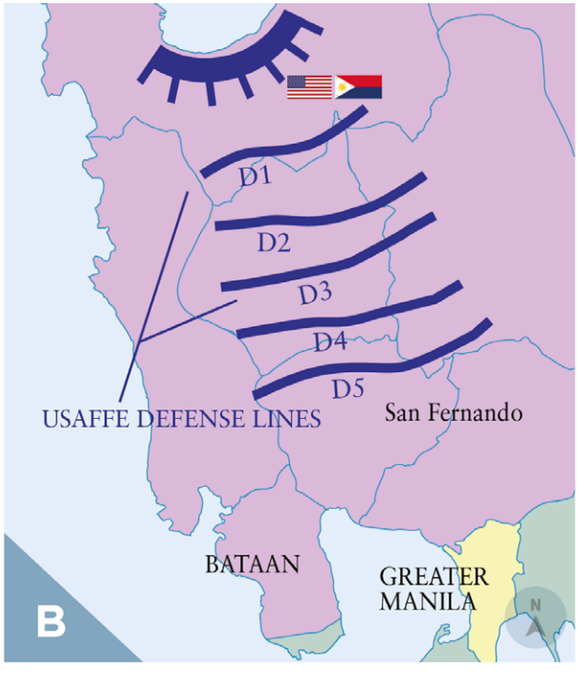
Initial City Planning of Quezon City and Manila during the Commonwealth

1. Proposed Capitol Building
2. Executive Mansion
3. National Exposition
4. Supreme Court
5. Natural Park
6. City Cemetery
7. National Cemetery
8. Philippine Military Academy
9. University of the Philippines

The Japanese Invasion of the Philippines

(Major Japanese Landings from December 10, 1941 to January 6, 1942)





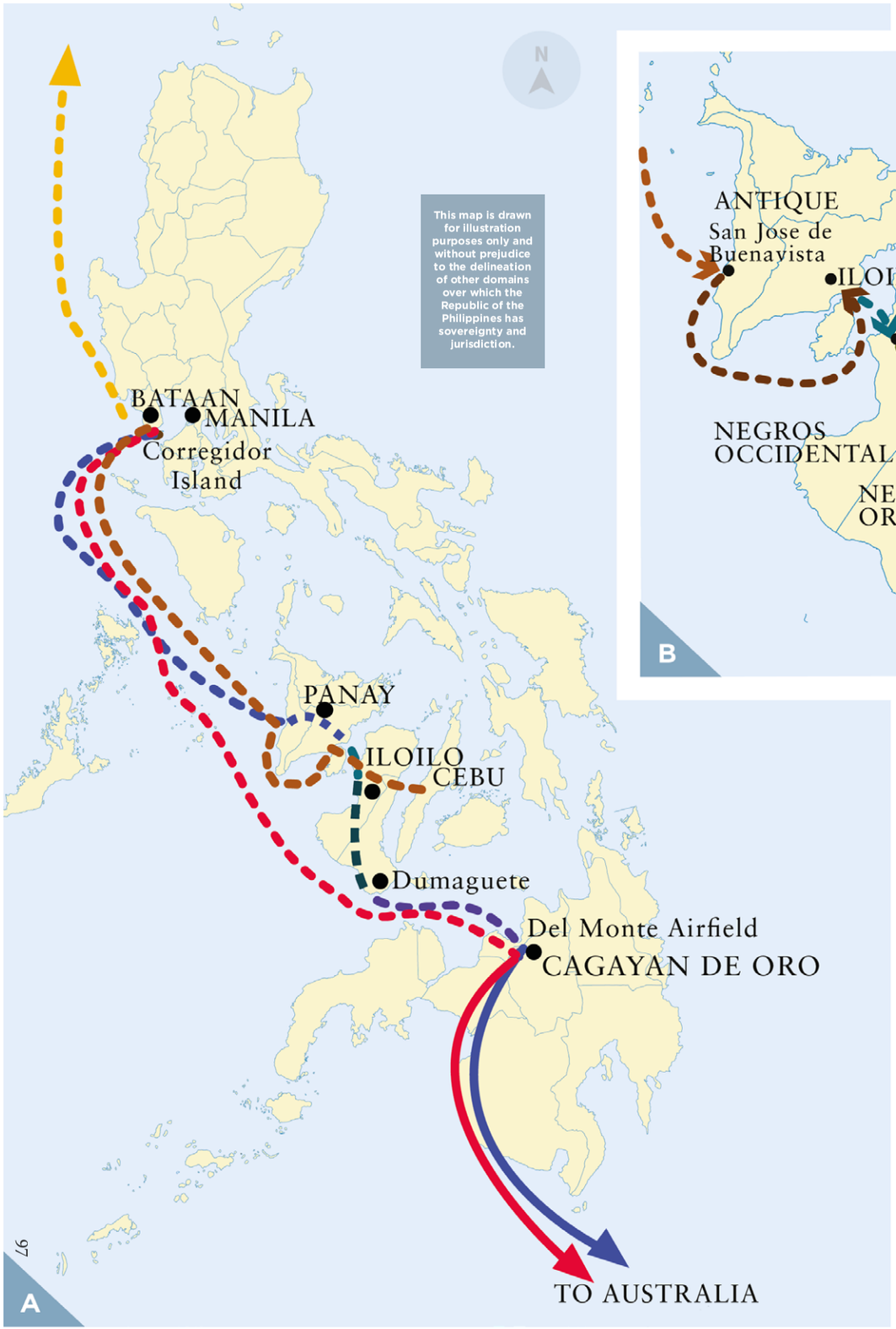
USAFFE AREA OF COMMAND

- **North Luzon Force**
  Maj. Gen. Jonathan Wainwright
- **South Luzon Force**
  Brig. Gen. George M. Parker Jr.
- **Reserve Force**
  Maj. Gen. Basilio Valdes
- **Visayan-Mindanao Force**
  Brig. Gen. William F. Sharp

- December 10, 1941
- December 12, 1941
- December 20, 1941
- December 22, 1941
- December 23, 1941
- December 24, 1941
  Japanese troops invade Jolo
- December 27-31, 1941
  Japanese advancing troops break through the USAFFE's line of defense.
- Japanese advance
- PH-U.S. withdrawal
- PH-U.S. coastal defense
- PH-U.S. line of defense

Evacuation Routes

February - March 1942



A

EVACUATION ROUTE OF THE CURRENCY RESERVES OF THE COMMONWEALTH

February 3 - March 3, 1942

Submarine USS Trout
(to Pearl Harbor via East China Sea)

GENERAL DOUGLAS MACARTHUR'S ROUTE OF ESCAPE

March 11 - 17, 1942

(Mar 12 -14) PT Boat 41
Corregidor - Del Monte

(Mar 16 -17) B-17
Del Monte - Australia

B

CHIEF JUSTICE JOSE ABAD SANTOS' ROUTE OF ESCAPE

February 20 - April 7, 1942

(Feb 20-22)
Submarine USS Swordfish
Corregidor - Antique

(Feb 22)
SS Don Esteban
Antique - Iloilo

(Feb 25-April 7)
Land Transportation
Inspects different towns in Negros

(April 7)
Ferryboat
Negros - Cebu

PRESIDENT MANUEL L. QUEZON'S ROUTE OF ESCAPE

February 20 - March 26, 1942

(Feb 20-22)
Submarine USS Swordfish
Corregidor - Antique

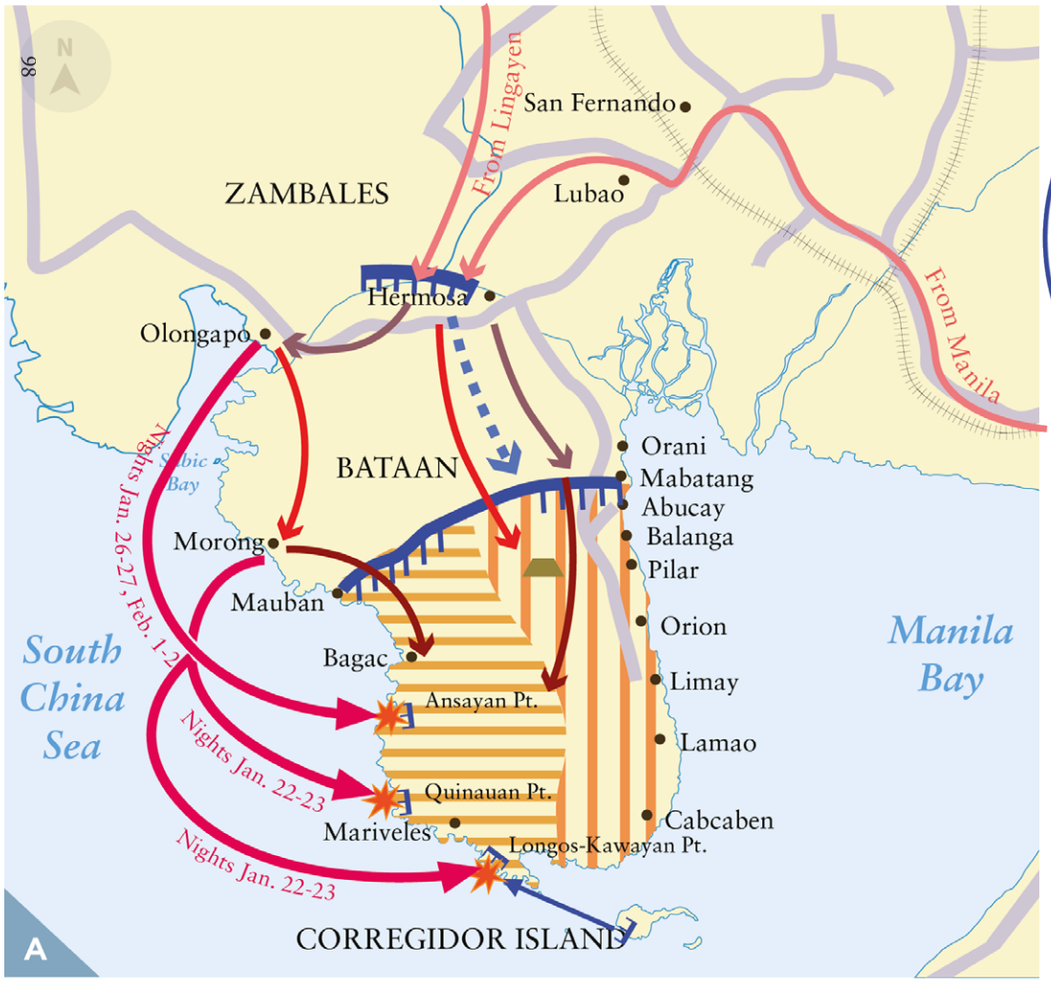
(Feb 22)
Land Transportation
Antique - Iloilo

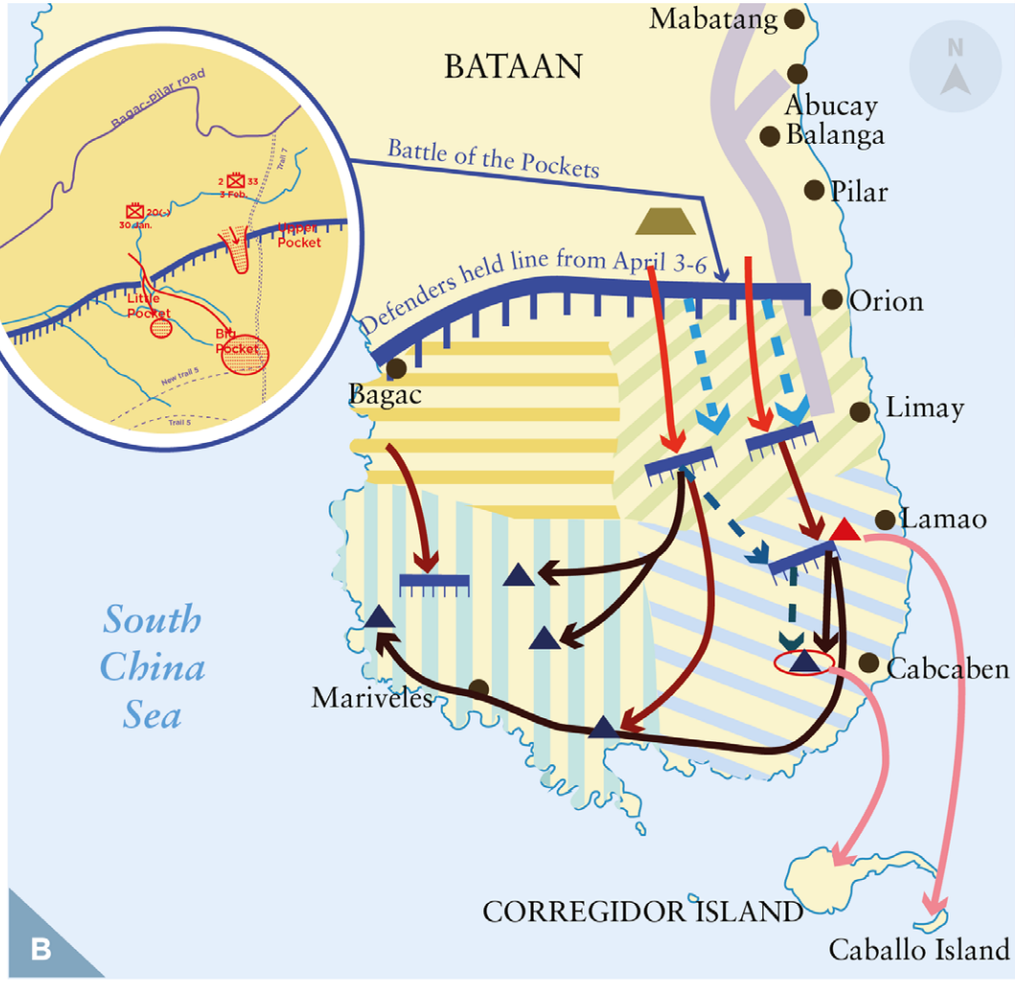
(Feb 24-25)
MV Princess of Negros
Iloilo - Negros

(Feb 25-March 18)
Land Transportation
Bacolod - Dumaguete

(Mar 18 - 19)
Torpedo Boat PT 35
to Mindanao

(Mar 26) B- 17
Del Monte - Australia





The Battle of Bataan

- Provinces
- Railways
- Mt. Samat

A

JAPANESE ADVANCE

- January 2-6, 1942
- January 16, 1942
- January 17, 1942
- January 23, 1942
- USAFFE Defense line

USAFFE WITHDRAWALS

- January 16, 1942
- February 1, 1942
- National Highways

BATTLE OF THE POINTS

- January 22-February 2, 1942
- Fire support from Corregidor
- USAFFE Coastal Defense
- Japanese battalion destroyed

AREA COMMAND JAN-FEB 1942

- I Corps *(Maj. Gen. Jonathan Mayhew Wainright)*
- II Corps *(Maj. Gen. George Parker)*

B

JAPANESE ADVANCE

- April 6, 1942
- April 8-9, 1942
- April 9, 1942
- May 5-7, 1942

USAFIP WITHDRAWALS

- April 6-7, 1942
- April 8-9, 1942
- April 9, 1942

- Last pocket of resistance
- Japanese camp
- USAFIP officials surrender

AREA COMMAND APRIL-MAY 1942

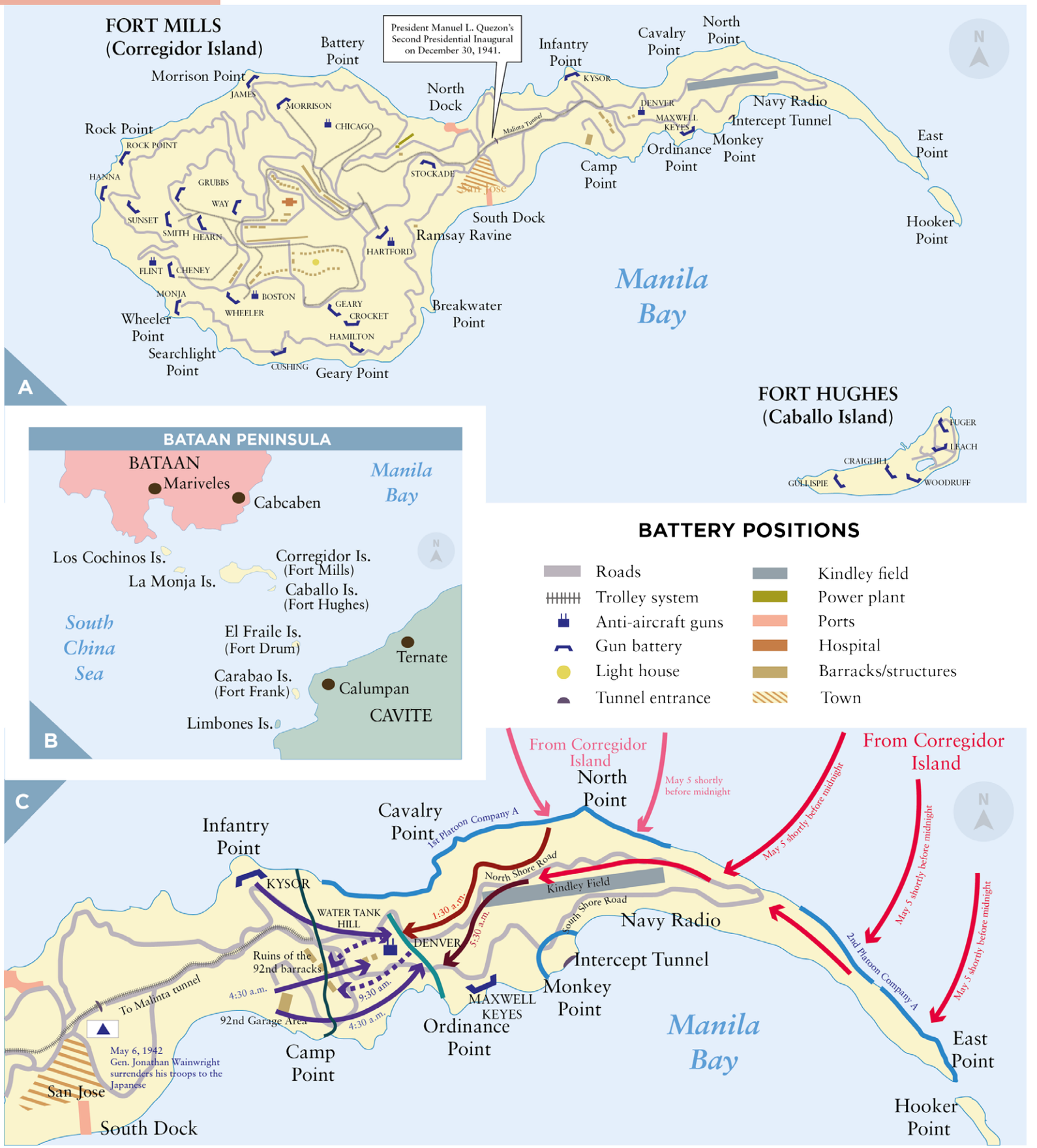
- I Corp *(Maj. Gen. Albert Jones)*
- II Corp *(Maj. Gen. George Parker)*
- Service Command Area *(Brig. Gen. Allan C. McBride)*
- West Sector 71st Division
- East Sector 2nd Reg. Division

The Bataan Death March

78,000 prisoners march on foot
(66,000 Filipino and 12,000 Americans)
Around 7,000 - 10,000 died on the way
Only 54,000 reached the Camp

Train ride
Railways
National Highway

Prison Camp
Towns



The Japanese Capture of Corregidor (May 5-6, 1942)

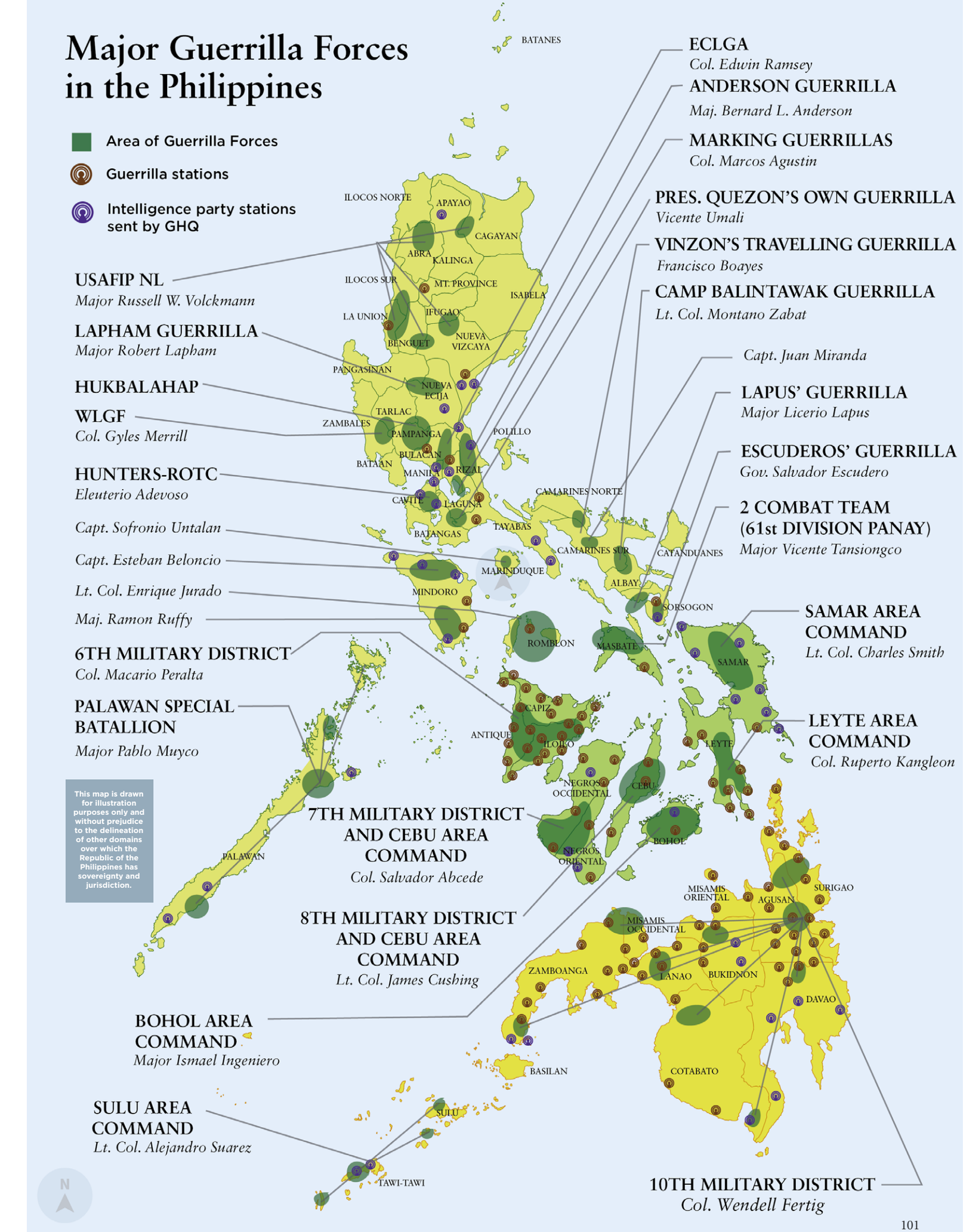
MAY 5, 1942
Japanese advance before midnight
- 1st battalion
- 2nd battalion

PH-U.S. beach and land defense
PH-U.S. new defense line after midnight

MAY 6, 1942
Japanese advance
- 1st battalion
- 2nd battalion
- Denver defense line

USAFIP counter defense
USAFIP withdrawal
Gen. Wainwright surrenders his troops to the Japanese at noon

Major Guerrilla Forces in the Philippines



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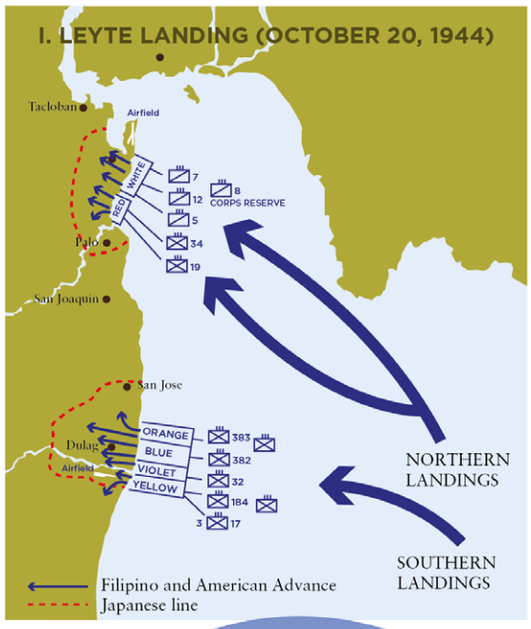
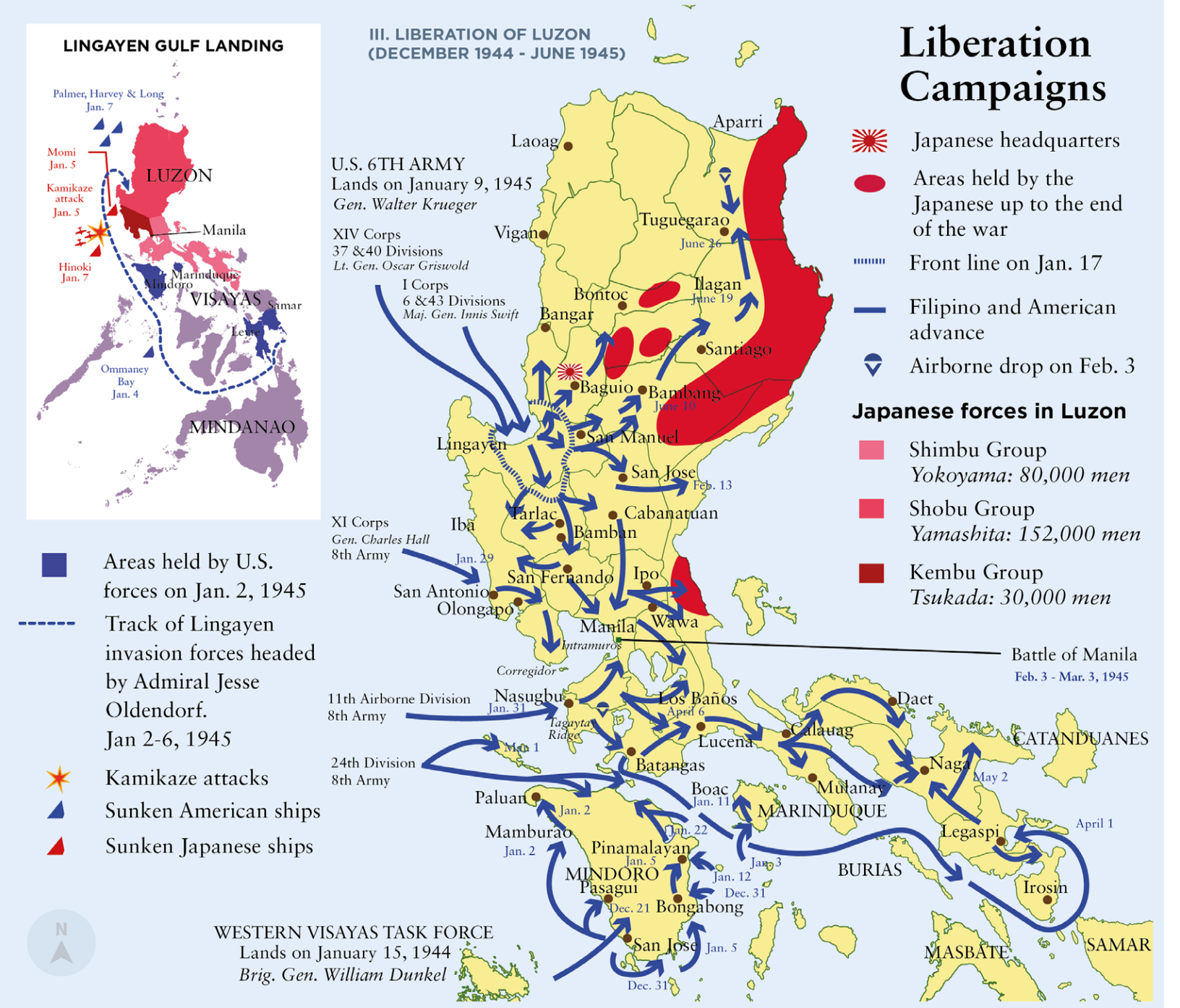
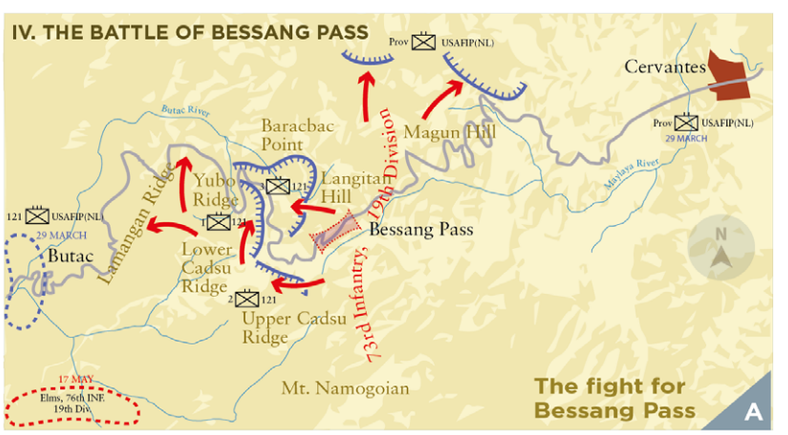
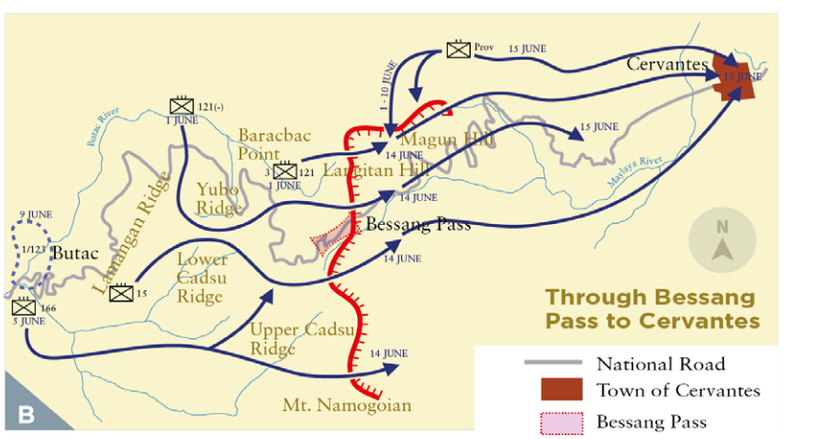

I. LEYTE LANDING (OCTOBER 20, 1944)
Tacloban
Airfield
WHITE
RED
7
12
5
8
CORPS RESERVE
Palo
34
19
San Joaquin
San Jose
ORANGE
BLUE
VIOLET
YELLOW
383
382
32
184
17
3
Dulag
Airfield
NORTHERN LANDINGS
SOUTHERN LANDINGS
Filipino and American Advance
Japanese line

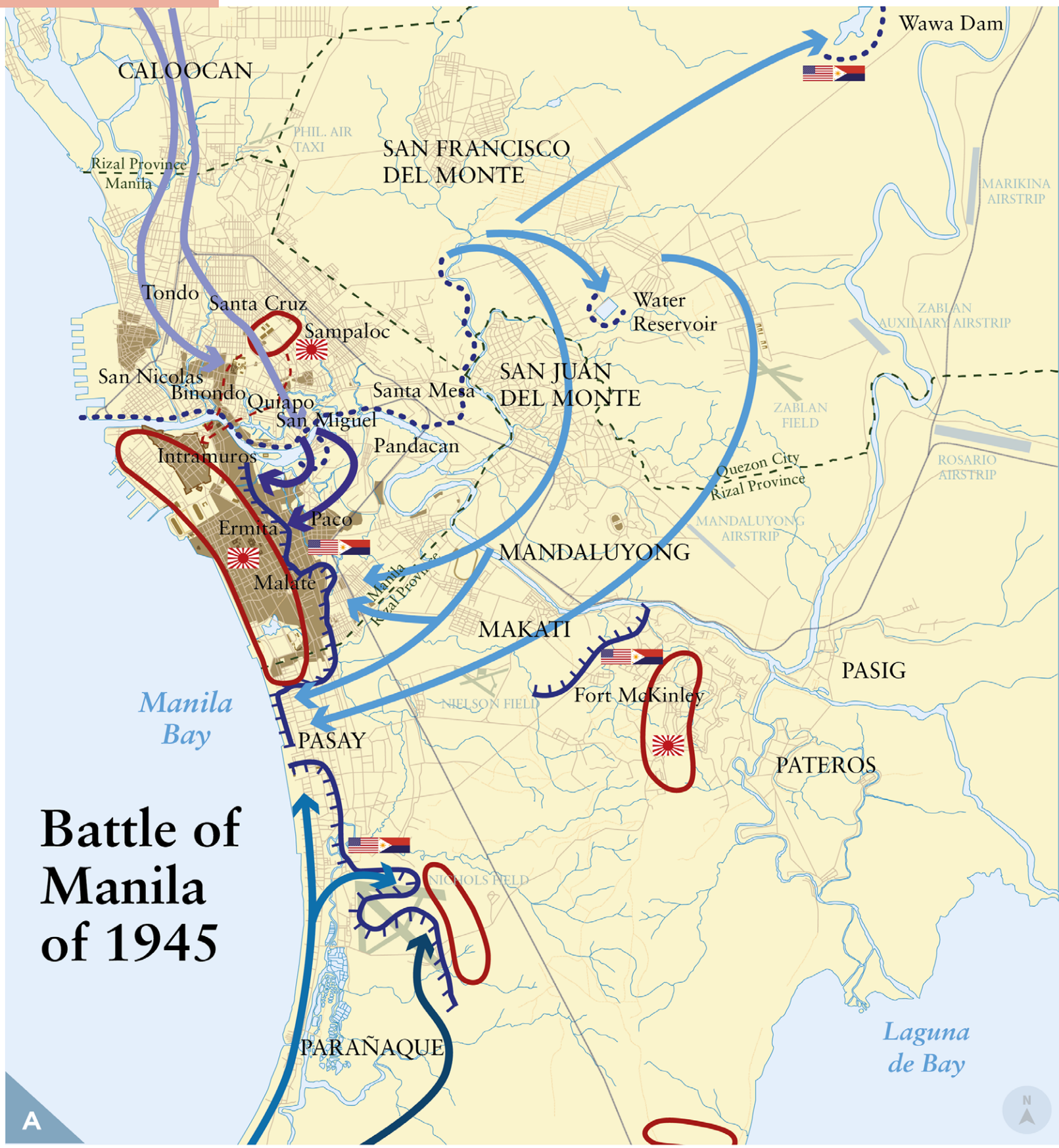
From Japan
II. BATTLE OF LEYTE (OCTOBER 23-25, 1944)
4
Zuikaku sinks
Zuiho sinks
Northern Force
Seven ship detachment
Third Fleet
Northern Force (Ozawa)
From Japan
Southern Force (Shima)
LUZON
Philippine Sea
Third Fleet (Halsey)
Third Fleet (Halsey)
Samar
Leyte
Panay
Mindoro
Negros
Palawan
Sulu Sea
Seventh Fleet (Kinkaid)
Surigao Strait
MINDANAO
Center Force (Kurita)
Southern Force (Nishimura)
From Brunei Bay
NORTH BORNEO
Brunei
BORNEO
1
LUZON
Sibuyan Sea
Mindoro
Center Force
Musashi sinks
Panay
2
Battleships
Cruisers
Destroyers
Leyte
Dinagat
Panaon
Shima
PT Boats
PT Boats
PT Boats
PT Boats
Nishimura
3
Center Force
Yamato flees torpedoes
Seventh Fleet carrier group
Gambier Bay sinks
Samar
Center Force retreats
This map is drawn for illustration purposes only and without prejudice to the delineation of other domains over which the Republic of the Philippines has sovereignty and jurisdiction.
N
American Forces
American attacks
Japanese Forces
American bomber planes
Sunken American ships
Sunken Japanese ships







A USAFIP (NL) UNIT LOCATIONS March 29, 1945
USAFIP (NL) POSITIONS (approx.) May 16, 1945
JAPANESE ATTACKS May 17-22, 1945
JAPANESE UNIT LOCATION May 17, 1945
B USAFIP (NL) ADVANCE June 1-15, 1945
JAPANESE MAIN LINE OF RESISTANCE (approx.)
USAFIP (NL) UNIT LOCATIONS June 9, 1945



A. THE CAPTURE OF MANILA *(The encirclement, February 3-12, 1945)*

Forces from the North
- February 3-4
- February 8-12

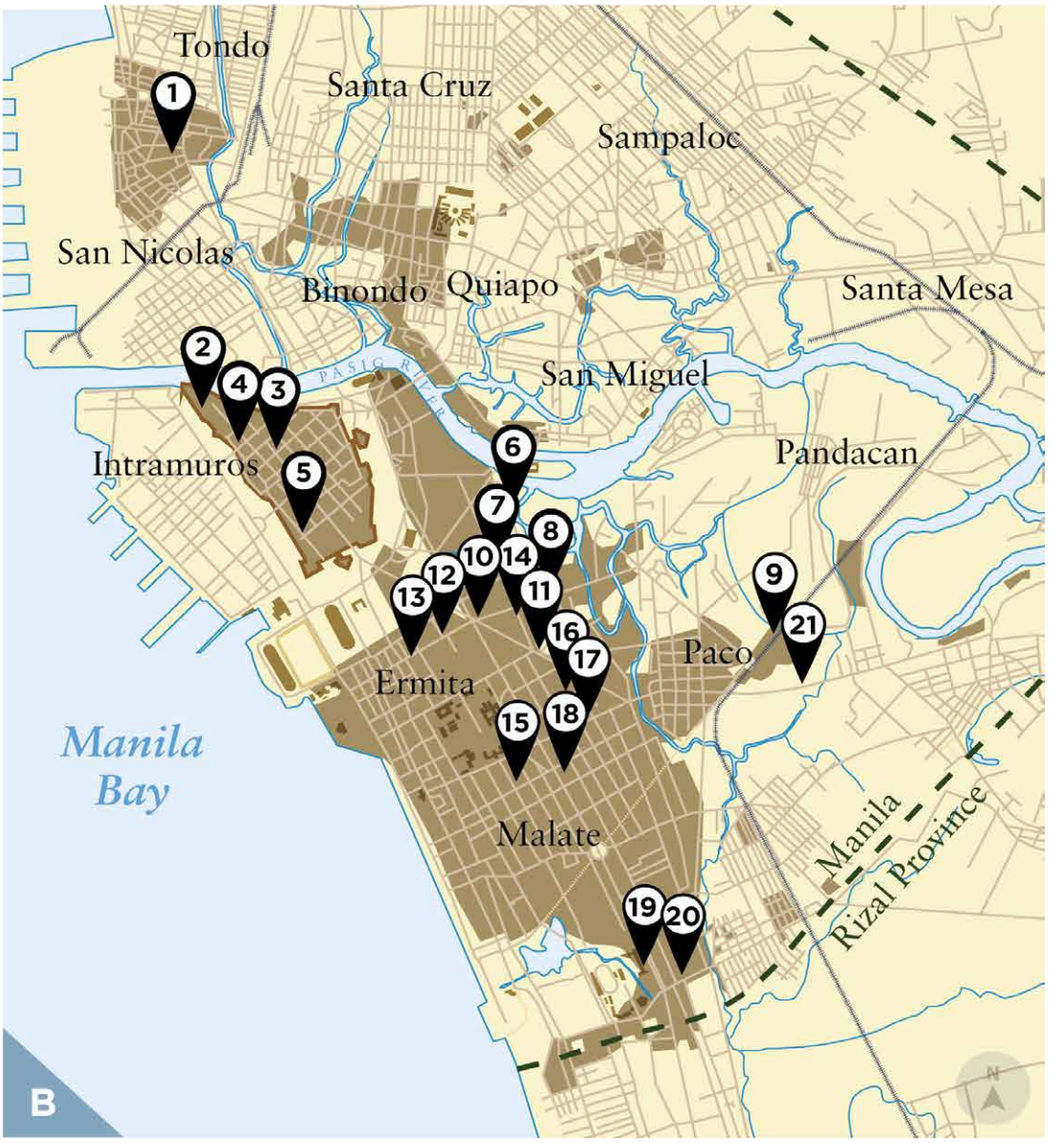
Forces from the East
- February 7-12

Forces from the South
- February 5-12
- February 7-12

- Japanese defense areas
- Japanese withdrawals
- PH-U.S. frontline Feb. 7
- PH-U.S. frontline Feb. 12
- Burned areas
- Selected structures
- Main roads
- Secondary roads
- Railways
- Boundaries
- Major airfields
- Auxiliary airstrips

B. ABRIDGED LISTING OF MASSACRE SITES IN MANILA

1. Dy Pac Lumber Yard
2. Fort Santiago
3. Manila Cathedral
4. Palacio del Gobernador
5. Ateneo College
6. Cigarette factory
7. Vincentian Central House
8. Asilo de Looban
9. Garage in Paco
10. Philippine Red Cross
11. Concepcion & Campos residence
12. Dr. Moreta's House
13. Tabacalera Building
14. German Club
15. Saint Paul College
16. Price Residence
17. Colorado Street
18. Scottish Rite Temple
19. De La Salle College
20. Carlos Perez-Rubio residence
21. La Concordia College



C. THE CAPTURE OF MANILA

(Eliminating the last resistance, February 23-March 3, 1945)

PH-U.S. Frontline, evening, Feb. 22

PH-U.S. attack Feb. 23-25

PH-U.S. attack Feb. 26-March 3

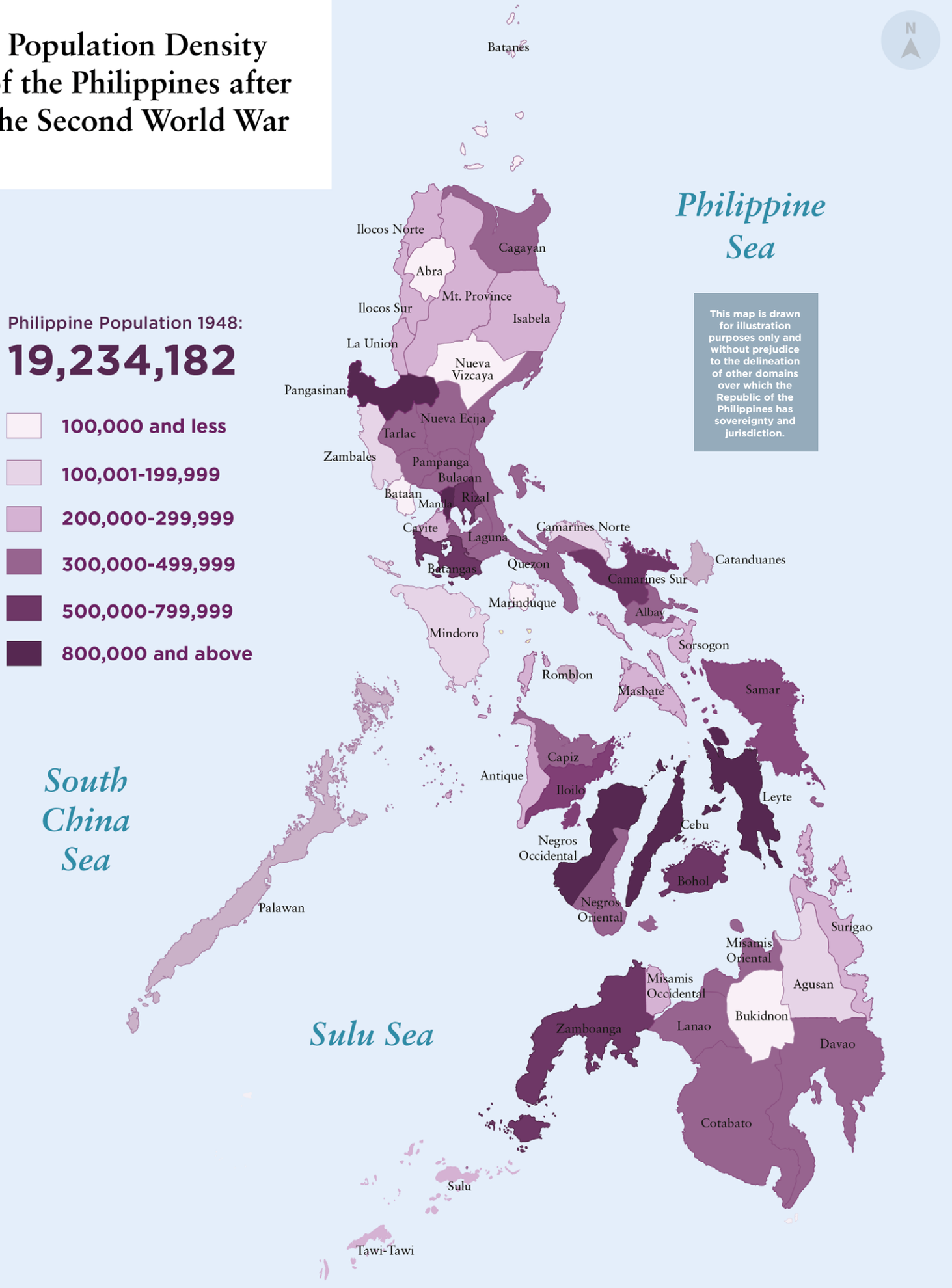
Structures

Burned areas

Roads

Military boats

Population Density of the Philippines after the Second World War



Data from the 1948 Census of the Philippines

Political Map of the Philippines under the Third Republic

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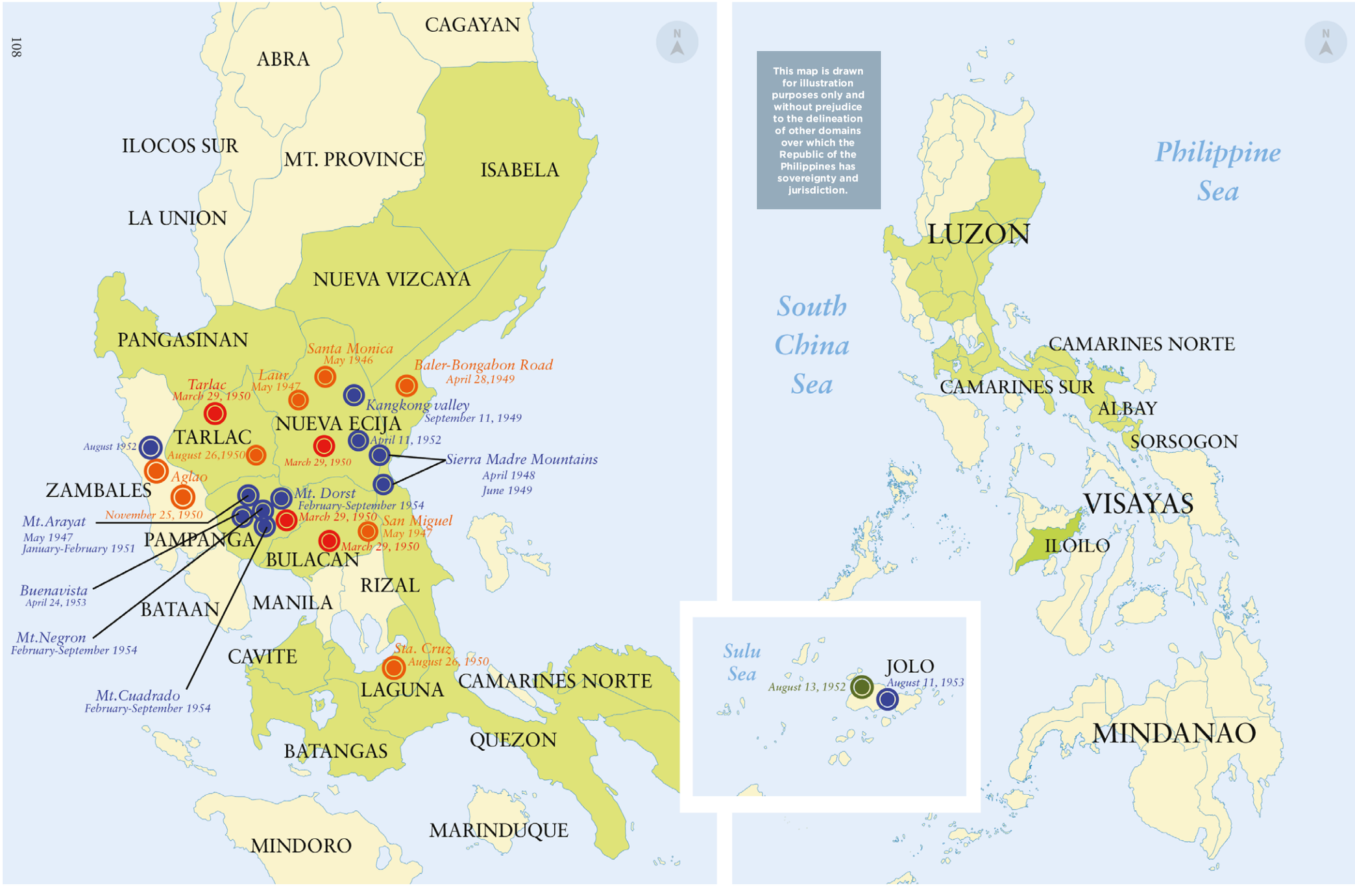


Huk and Kamlon Rebellions

- Huk Rebellion Geographical Centers
- Huk attacks
- Huk simultaneous attacks
- Kamlon Rebellion in Sulu
- Government offensive

Philippine Affliations to Southeast Asian Organizations

A. SEATO (1954-1977)

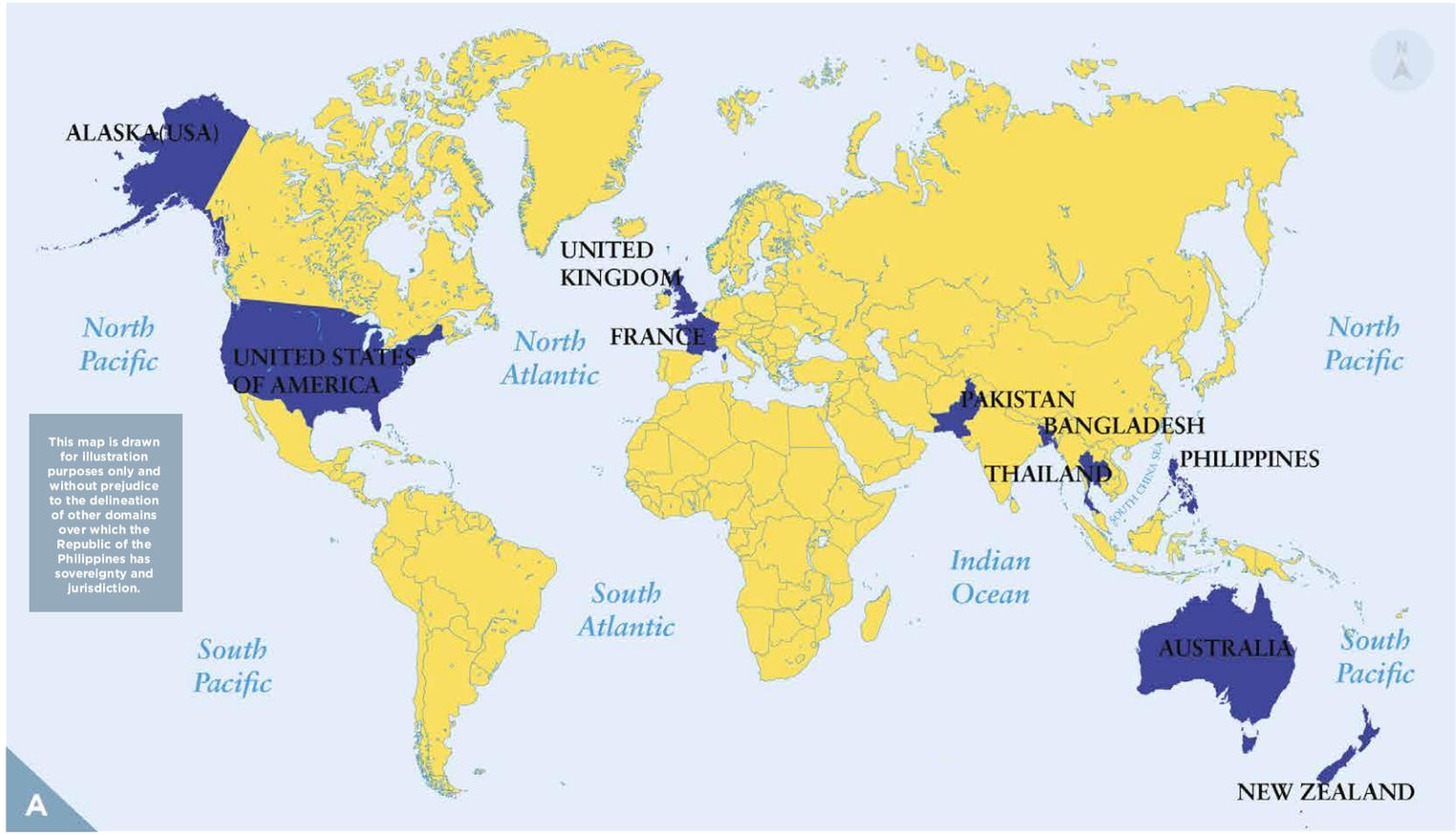
Member States

B. MaPhilIndo (1963-1964)

Member States

C. ASEAN (1967-present)

Member States



Countdown to Martial Law
September 20-23, 1972

SEPTEMBER 20, 1972

1 **Afternoon**
Final conference on Martial Law.

SEPTEMBER 21, 1972

2 **Morning: Legislative Building**
Senate and House leaders agree not to adjourn. They decide to extend their special session to a *sine die* adjournment on September 23.

Afternoon: Plaza Miranda
30,000 protesters march at Plaza Miranda, sponsored by the Concerned Christians for Civil Liberties.

SEPTEMBER 22, 1972

3 **8:00 p.m.**
Enrile convoy ambush.

4 **8:00 pm - 9:00 p.m.**
Marcos signs General Order No. 1 and Letter of Instruction No. 1.

SEPTEMBER 23, 1972

5 **12:10 a.m.**
Senator Ninoy Aquino is arrested.

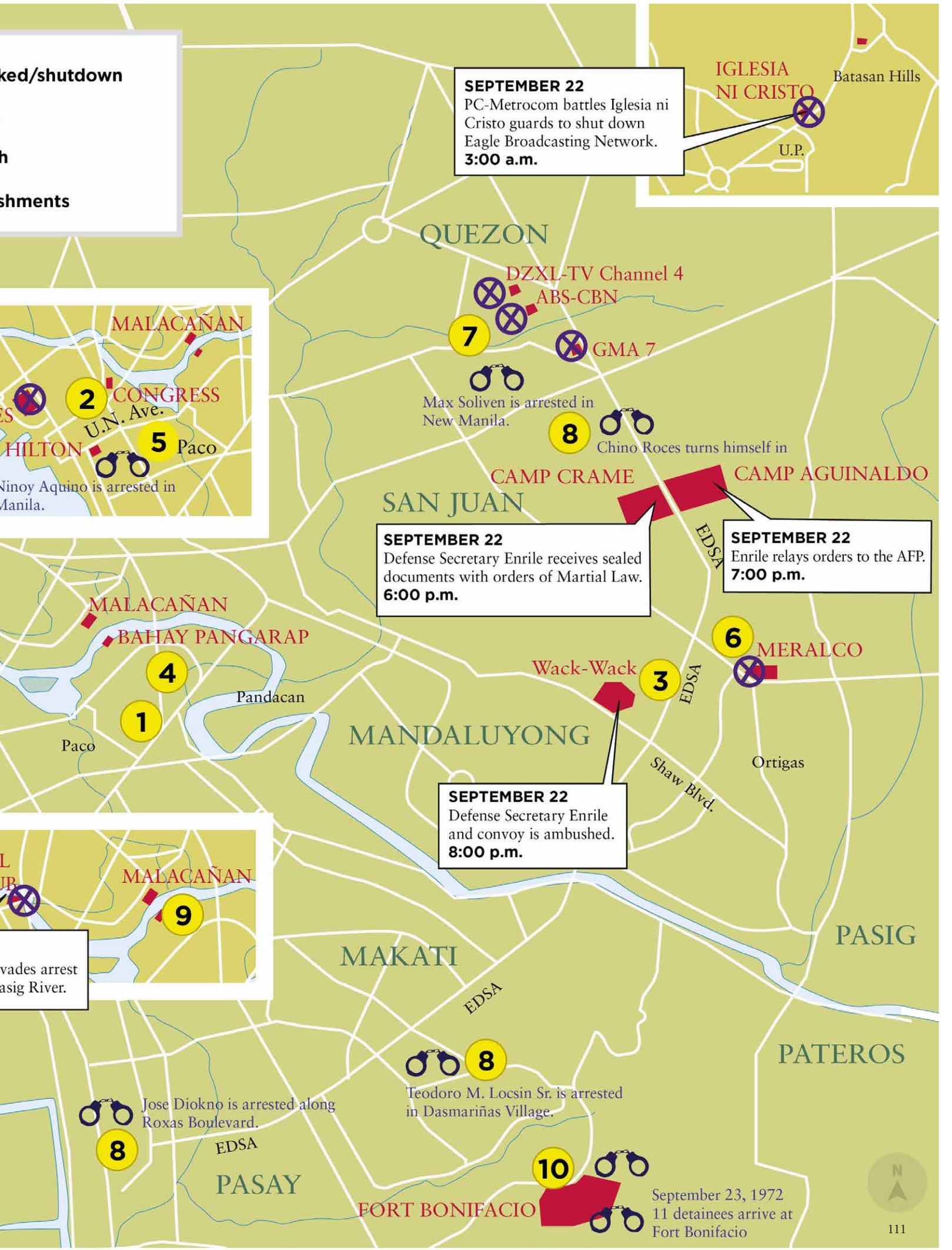
6 **12:30 a.m.**
AFP takes over MERALCO.

7 **1:00-4:00 a.m.**
Military shuts down mass media and radio stations. Newspaper offices were ordered to be closed. Flights were canceled, and incoming overseas calls were prohibited.

8 **1:00-5:00 a.m.**
Military arrests those considered threats to Marcos. They are brought to Camp Crame Gym

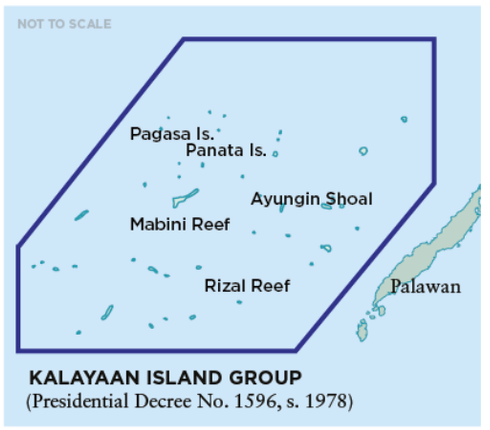
9 **7:15 p.m.**
President Marcos goes live on national television to announce Martial Law

10 **8:30 p.m.**
Detainee Senators Aquino, Diokno, Mitra, and Rodrigo arrive at Fort Bonifacio from Camp Crame and were kept in isolation.


ked/shutdown
h
shments
SEPTEMBER 22
PC-Metrocom battles Iglesia ni Cristo guards to shut down Eagle Broadcasting Network.
3:00 a.m.
IGLESIA NI CRISTO
Batasan Hills
U.P.
QUEZON
DZXL-TV Channel 4
ABS-CBN
GMA 7
7
Max Soliven is arrested in New Manila.
8
Chino Roces turns himself in
CAMP CRAME
CAMP AGUINALDO
SAN JUAN
EDSA
SEPTEMBER 22
Defense Secretary Enrile receives sealed documents with orders of Martial Law.
6:00 p.m.
SEPTEMBER 22
Enrile relays orders to the AFP.
7:00 p.m.
MALACAÑAN
2
CONGRESS
U.N. Ave.
HILTON
5
Paco
Ninoy Aquino is arrested in Manila.
MALACAÑAN
BAHAY PANGARAP
4
1
Pandacan
Paco
6
MERALCO
Wack-Wack
3
EDSA
MANDALUYONG
Ortigas
Shaw Blvd.
SEPTEMBER 22
Defense Secretary Enrile and convoy is ambushed.
8:00 p.m.
MALACAÑAN
9
vades arrest
asig River.
PASIG
MAKATI
EDSA
8
Teodoro M. Locsin Sr. is arrested in Dasmariñas Village.
PATEROS
Jose Diokno is arrested along Roxas Boulevard.
8
EDSA
PASAY
10
FORT BONIFACIO
September 23, 1972
11 detainees arrive at Fort Bonifacio
N

Political Map of the Philippines under the Marcos Regime

- Region 1
- Region 2
- Region 3
- Region 4
- Region 5
- Region 6
- Region 7
- Region 8
- Region 9
- Region 10
- Region 11
- Region 12
- NCR
- Provinces created under the Marcos Regime



KALAYAAN ISLAND GROUP
(Presidential Decree No. 1596, s. 1978)

Batanes
Ilocos Norte
Kalinga-
Apayao
Cagayan
Abra
Ilocos Sur
Mt. Province
Isabela
Ifugao
La Union
Benguet
Nueva Vizcaya
Quirino
Pangasinan
Aurora
Nueva Ecija
Tarlac
Zambales
Pampanga
Bulacan
Bataan
NCR
Rizal
Cavite
Laguna
Batangas
Quezon
Camarines Norte
Catanduanes
Camarines Sur
Albay
Marinduque
Mindoro Occidental
Mindoro Oriental
Sorsogon
Northern Samar
Romblon
Masbate
Samar
Eastern Samar
Aklan
Capiz
Antique
Iloilo
Leyte
Southern Leyte
Cebu
Negros Occidental
Bohol
Negros Oriental
Siquijor
Camiguin
Surigao del Norte
Agusan del Norte
Surigao del Sur
Misamis Oriental
Misamis Occidental
Agusan del Sur
Zamboanga del Norte
Lanao
Bukidnon
Lanao del Sur
Zamboanga del Sur
Davao del Norte
North Cotabato
Davao Oriental
Maguindanao
Sultan Kudarat
Basilan
South Cotabato
Davao del Sur
Sulu
Tawi-Tawi
Palawan
Sabah
Scarborough Shoal

South China Sea

Sulu Sea

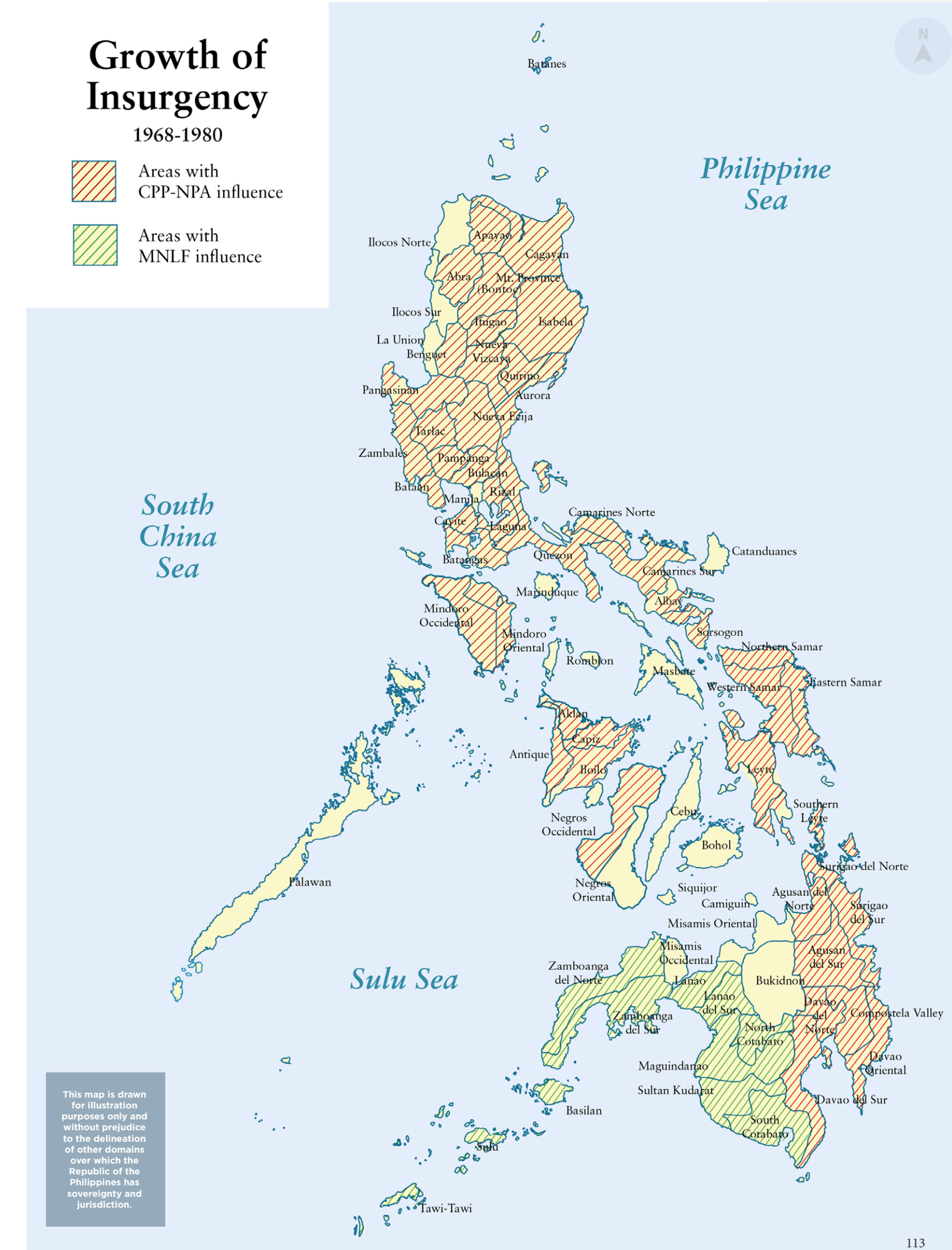
This map is drawn for illustration purposes only and without prejudice to the delineation of other domains over which the Republic of the Philippines has sovereignty and jurisdiction.

Growth of Insurgency

1968-1980

Areas with CPP-NPA influence

Areas with MNLF influence



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Ninoy's Final Journey

A. NINOY'S RETURN TO THE PHILIPPINES

August 13, 1983

1 Chestnut Hill, Newton, Massachusetts

August 13-15, 1983

2 Los Angeles, California

August 15-16, 1983

3 Tokyo, Japan

4 Hong Kong

5 Singapore

August 16-19, 1983

6 Johor Bahru, Malaysia

7 Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

8 Singapore

August 19, 1983

9 Hong Kong

10 Taipei, Taiwan

August 21, 1983

11 Manila, Philippines

Ninoy's flight path

B. NINOY'S ASSASSINATION, FUNERAL, AND INTERMENT

August 21, 1983 1:00 p.m.

1 Manila International Airport

August 21, 1983

2 Army General Hospital, Fort Bonifacio

August 22, 1983 6:00 a.m.

3 25 Times Street, Aquino Residence

August 24, 1983

4 Sto. Domingo Church

August 29, 1983

5 Hacienda Luisita Chapel and Tarlac Provincial Capitol

August 30, 1983 7:00 p.m.

6 Sto. Domingo Church

August 31, 1983 9:00 p.m.

7 Manila Memorial Park

NINOY AQUINO'S FUNERAL PROCESSION

- **A** 9:00 a.m. Sto. Domingo Church
- **B** 2:00 p.m. Plaza Miranda
- **C** 3:00 p.m. Rizal Park
- **D** 5:00 p.m. Quirino Avenue
- **E** 6:00 p.m. South Super Highway
- **F** 9:00 p.m. Manila Memorial Park

From Manila International Airport to Aquino Residence

From Manila to Tarlac and vice versa

From Sto. Domingo Church to Manila Memorial Park

EDSA People Power Revolution

February 22-25, 1986

FEBRUARY 22, 1986 (Saturday)

1. Cory campaigns in Cebu.
2. **6:30 p.m.** Enrile and Ramos gather nearly 400 men in defensive position in Camp Aguinaldo.
3. **9:00 p.m.** Cardinal Sin calls for support over Radio Veritas.
4. **10:30 p.m.** Marcos tells the rebels to surrender.
5. **11:00 p.m.** Thousands respond to the Cardinal's appeal.

Government owned facilities

Rebel owned/occupied facilities

FEBRUARY 23, 1986 (Sunday)

6. **5:30 a.m.** PC neutralizes radio transmitter of Radio Veritas.
7. **8:00 a.m.** 300,000-400,000 civilians show their support outside the rebel camps.
8. **2:20-2:47 p.m.** Cory returns to Manila. Marine division moves to arrest rebels.
9. **6:30 p.m.** Ramos forms new AFP.

Government attacks

Rebel attacks

Marcos loyalists movement

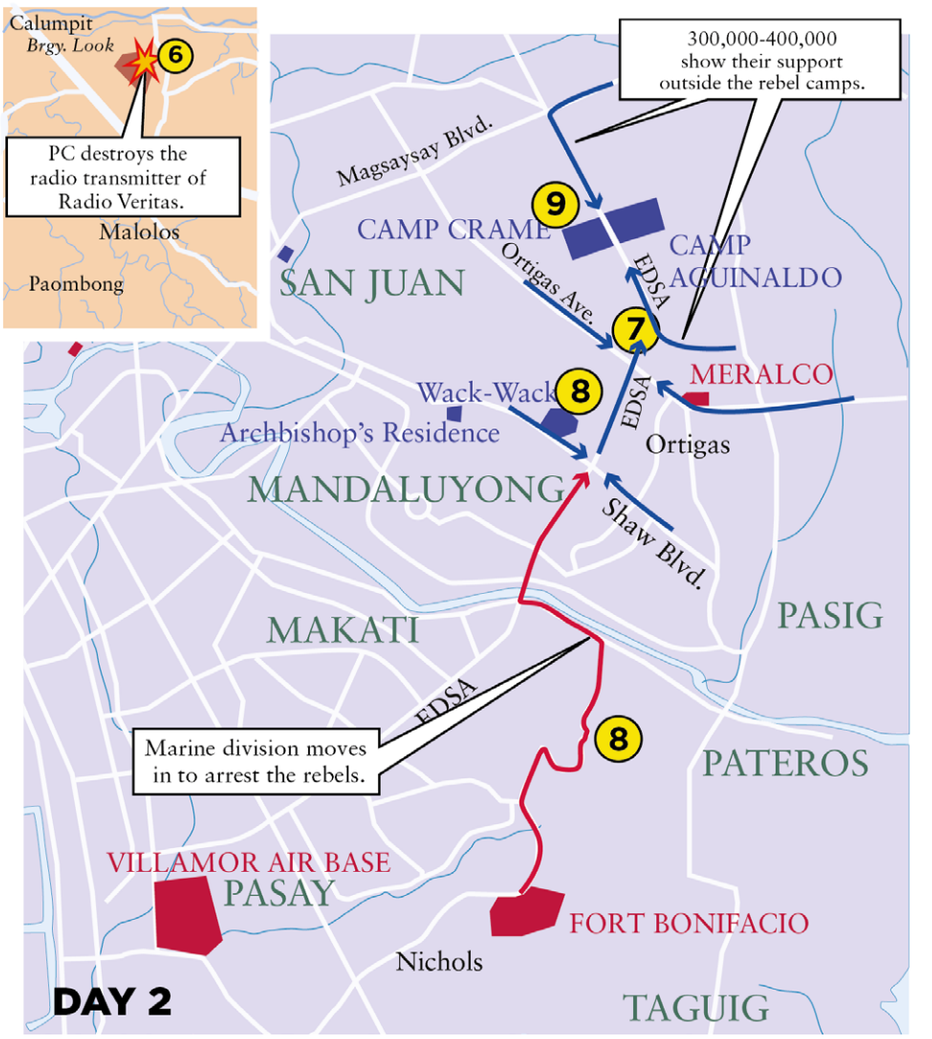
Crowd on day 1

Crowd on day 2

Barricades

Crowd on day 3

Marcos route of escape



FEBRUARY 24, 1986 (Monday)

10 **12:10 a.m.**
Radyo Bandido begins to broadcast.

11 **1:00 a.m.**
Ver orders all-out-attack against the rebels.

12 **3:30 a.m.**
At Camp Crame, nuns and priests block paths of APC's.

13 **5:15 a.m.**
Tear gas explode on Santolan Road.

14 **6:00 a.m.**
Air Force Strike Wing defects. Naval Defense Force show support to rebels.

15 **9:00 a.m.**
Marcos declares State of Emergency.

16 **10:15 a.m.**
A gunship attacks the Malacañan Palace.

17 **11:30 a.m.**
Protesters take over Channel 4.

18 **4:30 p.m.**
Cory addresses EDSA crowd. Thousand show their support.

FEBRUARY 25, 1986 (Tuesday)

19 **12:00 a.m.**
Planning of Cory's inauguration.

20 **6:00 a.m.**
Fighting erupts at Channel 9.

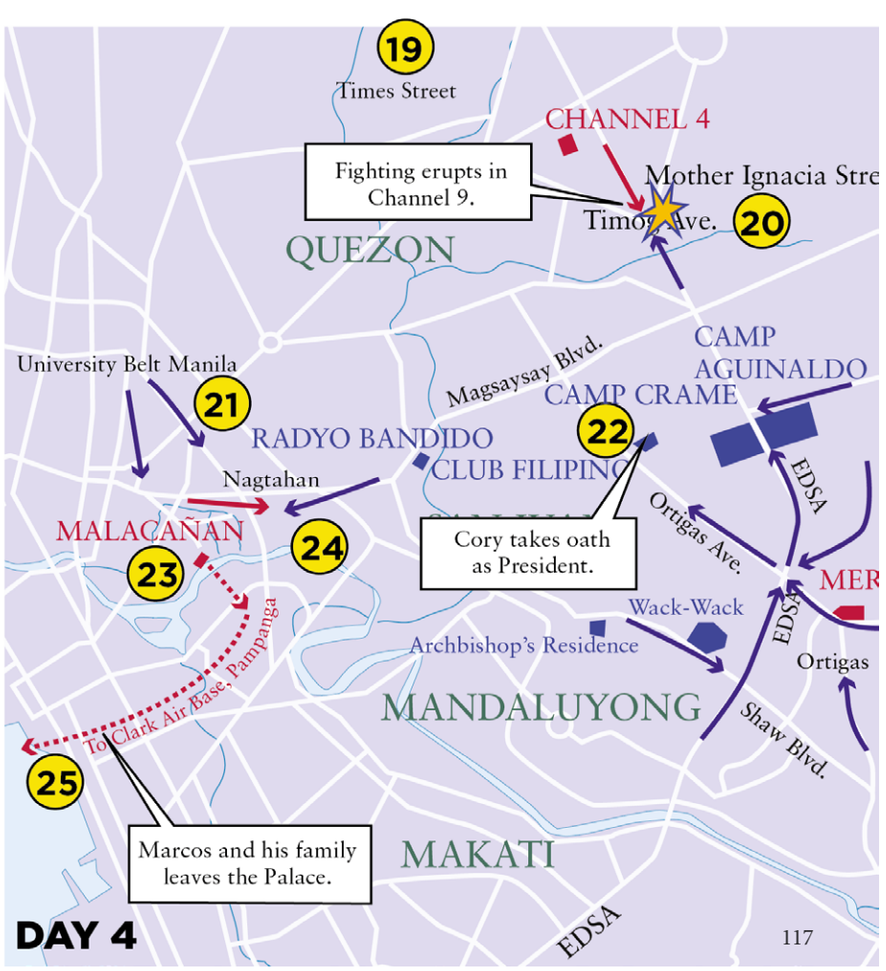
21 **9:00 a.m.**
Sampaloc filled with Cory supporters.

22 **10:46 a.m.**
Cory Aquino takes oath as President.

23 **11:55 a.m.**
Marcos takes his oath as President.

24 **1:30 p.m.**
Clash erupts between Aquino and Marcos supporters.

25 **9:05 p.m.**
Marcos and his family leaves Malacañang.



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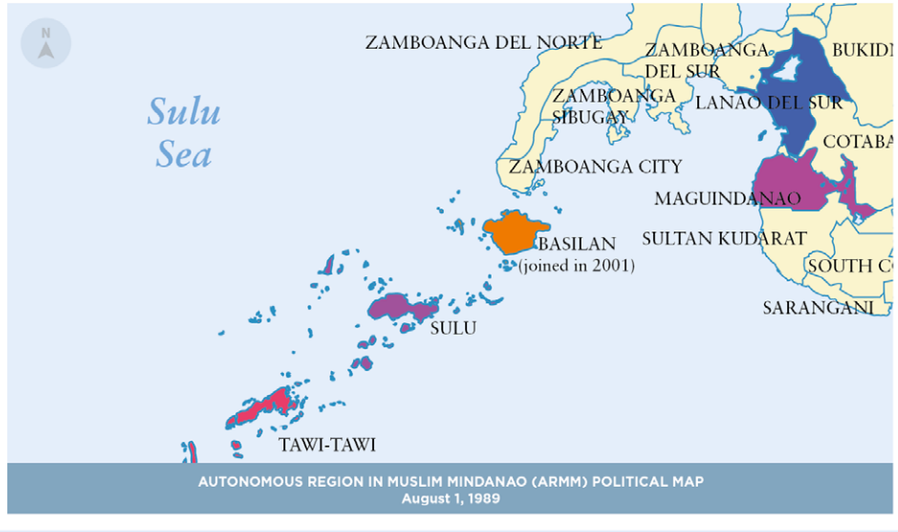
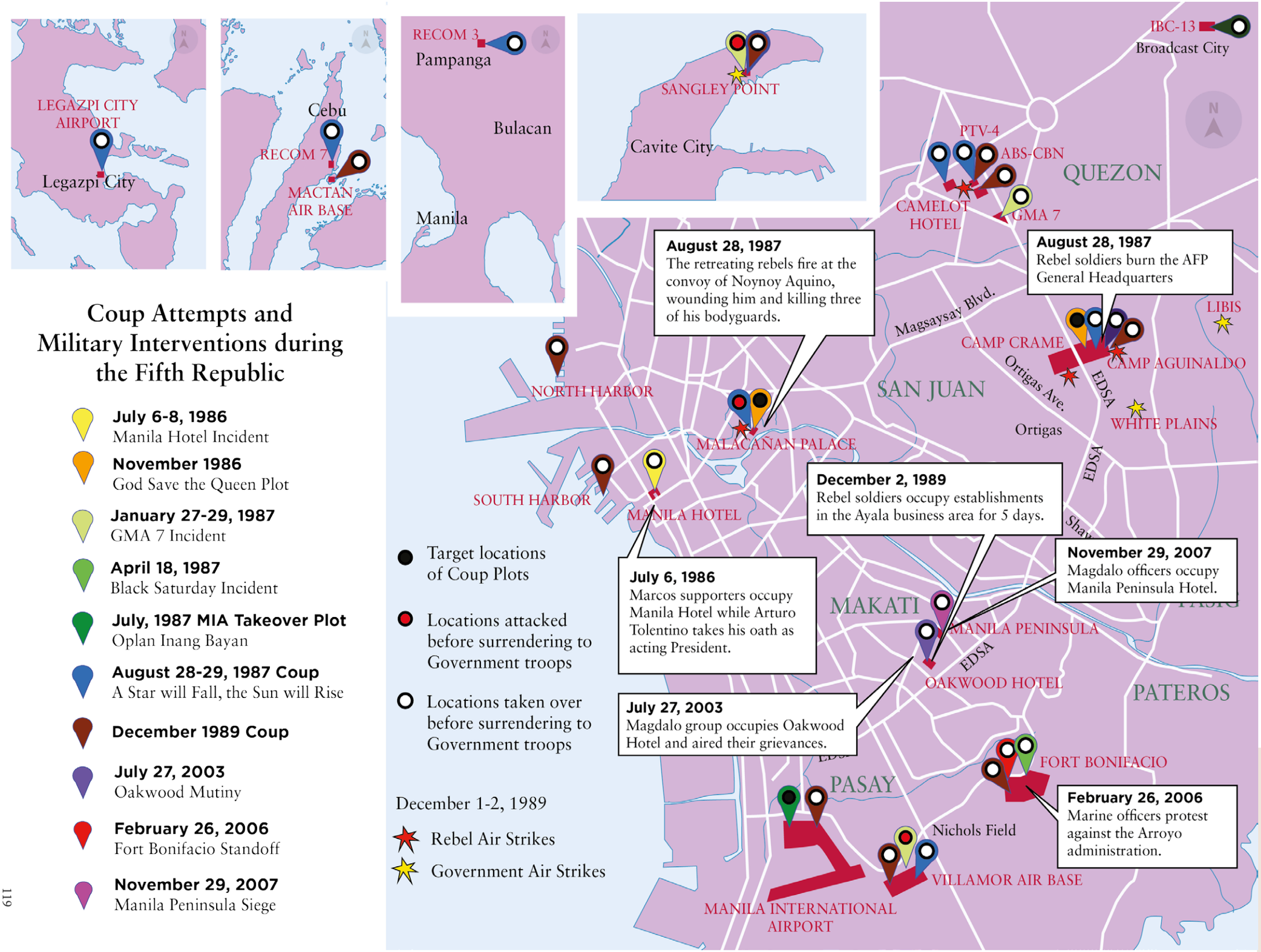
CORDILLERA ADMINISTRATIVE REGION (CAR) POLITICAL MAP
July 15, 1987



AUTONOMOUS REGION IN MUSLIM MINDANAO (ARMM) POLITICAL MAP
August 1, 1989

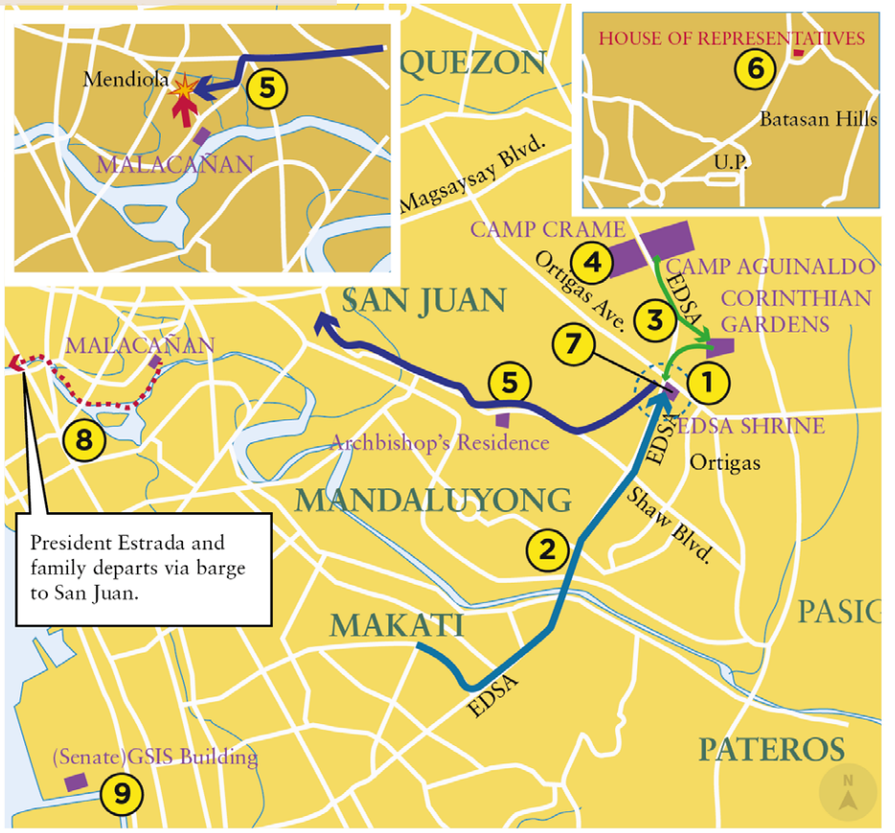
The Cordillera Administrative Region and Autonomous Region of Muslim Mindanao



Coup Attempts and Military Interventions during the Fifth Republic

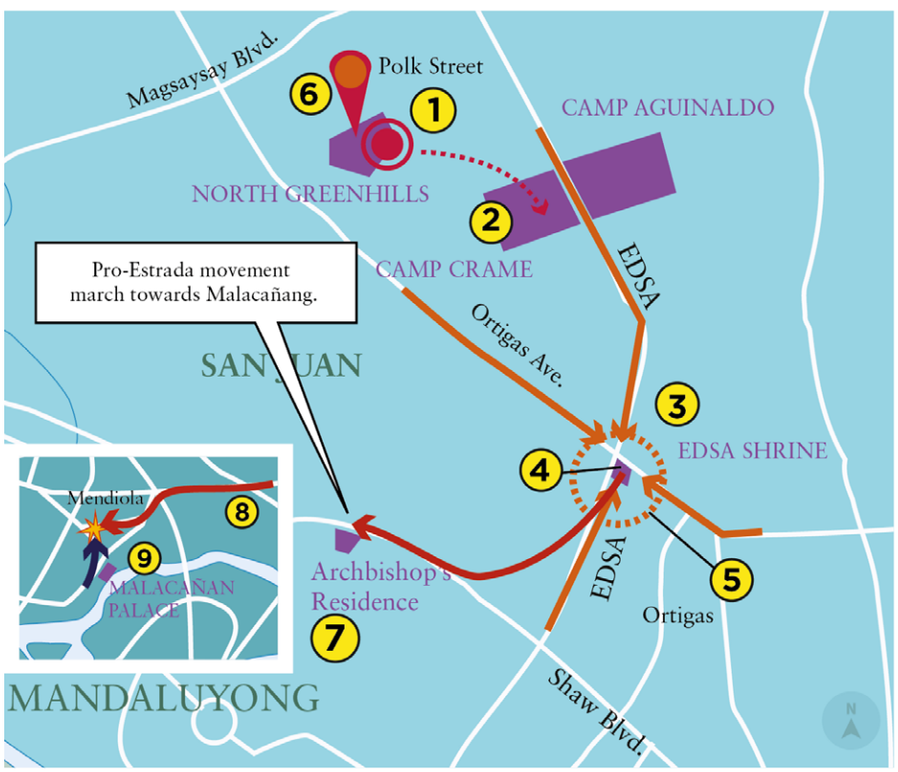
- **July 6-8, 1986**
  Manila Hotel Incident
- **November 1986**
  God Save the Queen Plot
- **January 27-29, 1987**
  GMA 7 Incident
- **April 18, 1987**
  Black Saturday Incident
- **July, 1987 MIA Takeover Plot**
  Oplan Inang Bayan
- **August 28-29, 1987 Coup**
  A Star will Fall, the Sun will Rise
- **December 1989 Coup**
- **July 27, 2003**
  Oakwood Mutiny
- **February 26, 2006**
  Fort Bonifacio Standoff
- **November 29, 2007**
  Manila Peninsula Siege

EDSA II and the May Day Rebellion



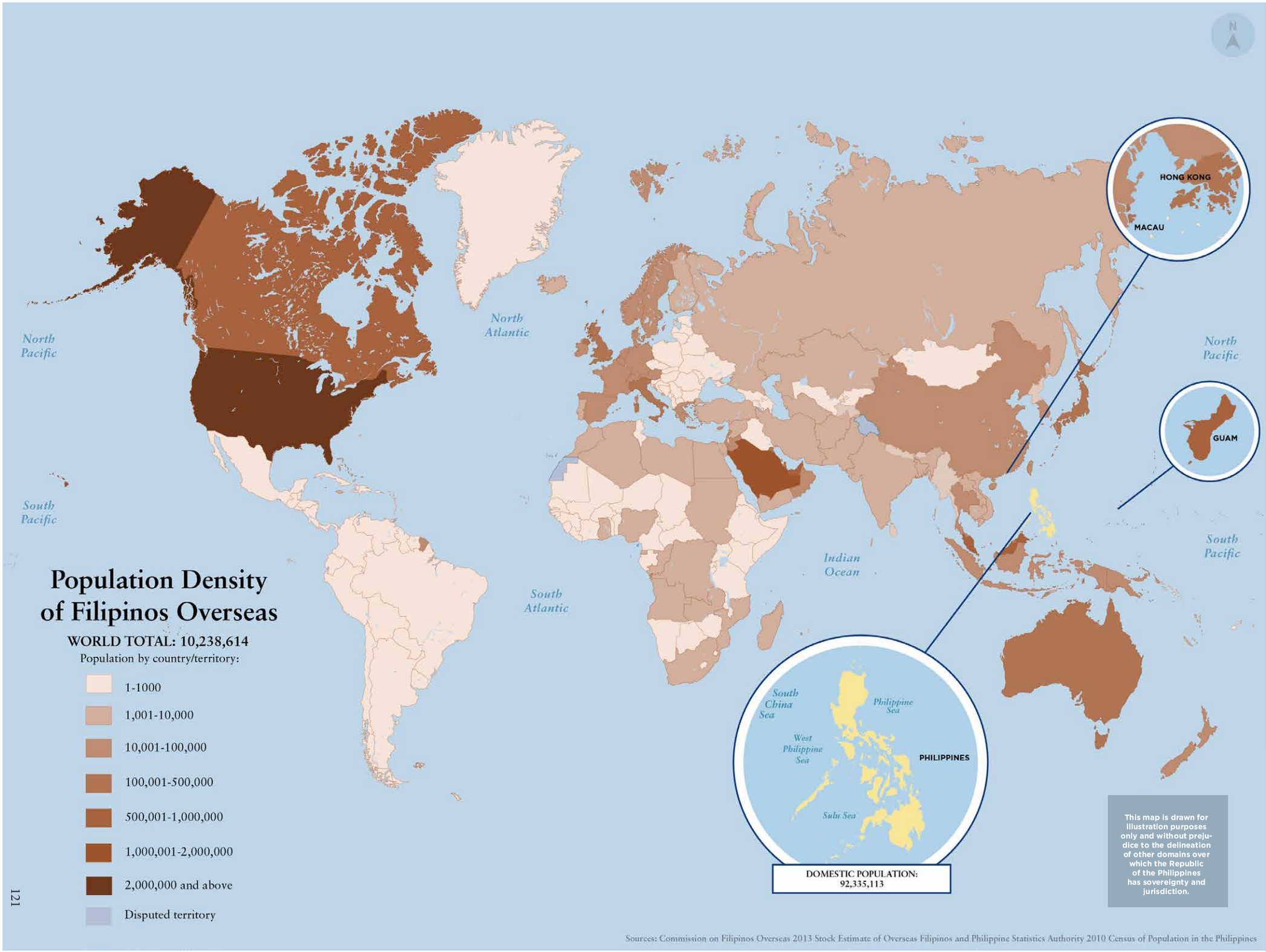
A. EDSA II

1. **January 17, 2001**
   Crowd gathers in EDSA.
2. **January 18, 2001**
   EDSA crowd swells, forms a 10-kilometer human chain from Ayala Ave. to EDSA Shrine.
3. **January 19, 2001**
   Defense Sec. Orlando Mercado and AFP Chief Angelo Reyes head to EDSA Shrine.
4. **January 19, 2001**
   PNP leadership withdraws support from the Estrada Administration.
5. **January 19, 2001**
   Protesters march from EDSA to Malacañang.
6. **January 20, 2001**
   Congress receives letter signed by Pres. Estrada entrusting the powers of the presidency to the Vice President.
7. **January 20, 2001**
   Gloria Macapagal-Arroyo takes her oath as President.
8. **January 20, 2001**
   Pres. Estrada and his family depart the Palace.
9. **January 20, 2001**
   Senate Pres. Aquilino Pimentel receives a copy of the letter of Pres. Estrada.



B. MAY DAY REBELLION

1. **April 25, 2001**
   Former Pres. Estrada is arrested for plunder.
2. **April 25, 2001**
   Former Pres. Estrada is detained in Camp Crame.
3. **April 25, 2001**
   Hundreds of Estrada supporters begin to gather at EDSA.
4. **April 27, 2001**
   Former First Lady Loi Estrada joins the crowd in EDSA.
5. **April 29, 2001**
   Around 3 million Estrada supporters gather in EDSA.
6. **April 29, 2001**
   Pro-Estrada movement plans for a march to Malacañang.
7. **April 30, 2001**
   Cardinal Sin appeals to the people to support the newly installed President.
8. **May 1, 2001**
   Around 70,000 protesters march from EDSA to Malacañang.
9. **May 1, 2001**
   Pres. Arroyo declares a State of Rebellion in NCR.



Sources: Commission on Filipinos Overseas 2013 Stock Estimate of Overseas Filipinos and Philippine Statistics Authority 2010 Census of Population in the Philippines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PRESIDENTIAL COMMUNICATIONS
DEVELOPMENT AND STRATEGIC PLANNING OFFICE