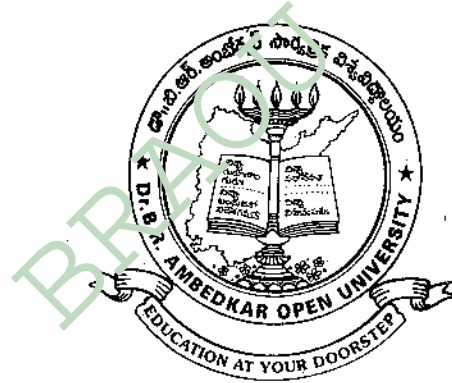


**HISTORY OF MODERN CHINA & JAPAN**  
**(1840 - 1964)**



**Dr. B.R. AMBEDKAR OPEN UNIVERSITY**  
**HYDERABAD**  
**1992**

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**COURSE TEAM**

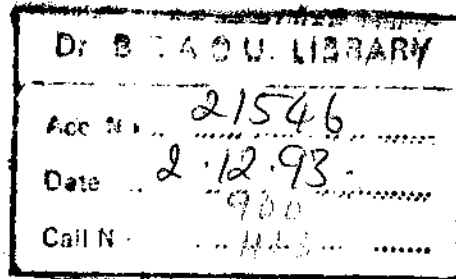
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# INTRODUCTION

The study of the History of China and Japan has acquired much importance in recent times. These two countries have in their different ways become prominent in the present day world. A study of the Modern History of these two Asian countries would prove useful for understanding many of the current issues in the world and our neighbours as well. These countries like India have rich and ancient cultures, and have been subjected to spells of foreign domination or influence. Hence, the present study should be of special interest to Indian students.

Starting with a discussion of the geographical, social and cultural background of the people of China, the condition of the state in the pre Modern period and the exposure of China to Western trading influence in the first half of the 19th century, the lessons in this volume cover the unsuccessful and feeble resistance of China to foreign encroachment, the clash of its interests with those of Japan, internal efforts at modernisation and reform, and the emergence of the Nationalist and Republican forces. Further, they deal with the participation of China in the two World Wars, the growth of the Communist Party, the outbreak of the Civil War and the formation of the People's Republic and its achievements. The lessons on the history of Japan followed more or less a similar pattern, commencing with a survey of the geographical, social and cultural background of the people of Japan, follow by a discussion of the condition of the state in the Medieval and Feudal age, the arrival of the foreign missions, Meiji Restoration and modernisation, growth of Japan into an Imperialist Power and its role during the two World Wars, and finally, the post-War reconstruction of Japan. In a nutshell, this volume traces the sweep of Modern History of China and Japan from 1840 to 1964 A.D.

This volume deals with the topics in the History of Modern China and Japan which are included in the syllabus for the Third Year of the B.A. Degree Course offered by the Andhra Pradesh Open University. These generally cover the core area of the subject to be studied in the Third Year of the Three Year Degree Course. The syllabus for the sake of convenience is divided into blocks each of which comprises a number of units. Each block generally covers a specific area of the subject. The lessons are prepared by specialists in accordance with a format so designed as to enable the student to read and understand them without much difficulty.

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## **BLOCK - I**

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### **CHINA BACKGROUND**

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This block consists of two units. The first unit is on the geographical features of china. In the same unit the characteristics of the people, society and culture of china are also explained. The second unit is on the salient features of Manchu rule.

**Unit - 1 : Geographical Features people, Society and Culture**

**Unit - 2 : Salient Features of Manchu Rule**

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# UNIT - 1 GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES, PEOPLE, SOCIETY AND CULTURE

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## Contents

- 1.0 Objectives
- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Geographical Features
  - 1.2.1 China Proper and its dependencies
  - 1.2.2 Geographical subdivisions
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- 1.3 Antiquity of the Chinese people
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- 1.7 Economic life
  - 1.7.1 Farmers
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- 1.8 Education, literature and science,
- 1.9 Art and Architecture
- 1.10 Religions of China
  - 1.10.1 Confucianism
  - 1.10.2 Taoism
  - 1.10.3 Mencius Neo-confucianism
  - 1.10.4 Buddhism
- 1.11 Chief Characteristics of the Chinese people
- 1.12 Let us sum up
- 1.13 Check your progress : Answers
- 1.14 Examination model questions
- 1.15 Books for further Reading

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## 1.0 OBJECTIVES

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By a study of this unit you should be able to

1. explain the geographical features of china
2. analyse the chief characteristics of chinese culture
3. Describe the social and economic institutions of china at the beginning of the 19th century.

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## 1.1 INTRODUCTION

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In this Unit the geographical features of china, the social, economic and cultural life of the chinese at the beginning of the 19th century are explained

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## 1.2 GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES

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China is the biggest country in size and population in East Asia. It is surrounded by the

Pacific Ocean in the east, in the west are Russia and Turkestan, in the north are the desert of Gobi and snow-covered Tundra region, and in the south are India and Indo-China

Geography exerted tremendous influence on the course of its history. It had given rise to a unique civilization in great isolation. The essential features of her civilization were developed on the banks of her northern river Hwang-Ho and its chief tributary the Wei, some four to five thousand years ago. This civilisation was indeed co-equal with the pre-historic civilizations of Sumer and Egypt.

### **1.2.1 China proper and its dependencies**

At the time of opening of China by the West, the Chinese Empire consisted of; (1) China proper, consisting of 18 provinces south of the Great Wall, (2) Manchuria divided into three provinces, (3) the dependent states like Tibet, Mongolia and Sinkiang and (4) The vassal states such as Korea and Annam (present Vietnam). Excluding the vassal states, but including the dependencies, China had a total area of 4,277,170 square miles of contiguous territory.

### **1.2.2 Geographical Sub-divisions**

The two broad geographical sub-divisions of China were, the regions north and south of Yangtze. The country is divided into two parts by the Gobi desert. The northern part is Outer Mongolia (today known simply as Mongolia). Since the Chinese Revolution, it has maintained its separate identity as an independent nation, with orientation towards the Soviet Union. The Southern part of Mongolia has been incorporated into China proper, and is now divided into four provinces.

### **1.2.3 Rivers and Mountains**

The river system has divided China into three distinct parts. North China is watered, and often inundated by the Hwang-Ho (Yellow river-so called because of the colour of its water) river "China's sorrow". South of the Yellow river lies the broad central area drained by the Yangtze river. This river is the greatest water-way of China, dividing the country north and south. Still farther south lies the basin of Sinkiang river and its confluents. These rivers have played an important part in the life of the Chinese people. They served as arteries of communications.

There are four main mountain ranges from the west to the south west the Tienshan, the Kwantun, the Hingan and the Himalayan, which distinguish, different geographical areas. They are the source of mineral wealth. The Western chain of mountains have served as barrier between China and the regions of the west. The mountain ranges make Szechuan province virtually an empire within China, cutting it off from contact with the rest of the China.

But within the country, the various geographical barriers such as mountains, hills, rivers and deserts did not constitute any serious obstacle to communication and to political unity.

### **1.2.4 Climate**

Within these broad divisions, there is a variety of climate and vegetation. North China experiences extremes of climate, severely hot in summer, and severely in winter. In central China, winter is mild and summer is hot.

The climate of China has made possible for the production of staple crops such as rice, cotton,

sugar, tea, wheat, barley, millet and other cereals. This enabled China to become self-sufficient in food production. The general climate of China is also favourable to the growth of civilization and culture, for the greater part of the country is situated in the temperate zone.

### 1.2.5 Mineral Wealth

China is rich in mineral wealth such as coal, iron, copper, tin, lead and silver. Gold, cobalt, zinc and potash sulphur, are not available adequately. In the pre-modern times, they sufficiently met the needs of the people. There are rich deposits of ores including uranium, which enabled China to emerge as a nuclear power. As a result of extensive search for oil, China is reported to have attained self-sufficiency in oil.

## 1.3 ANTIQUITY OF THE CHINESE PEOPLE

There are differences of opinion amongst the historians regarding the origin of the Chinese race. According to one theory, the ancestors of China were the inhabitants of the southern region of the Caspian Sea and from there, they migrated to the east in the 3rd century B.C. Others postulated that the civilized inhabitants of the valley of the Yellow river were the immigrants from the west. The archaeologists and anthropologists like Anderson, Arne, Gordon Childe and Frankfurt indicate that, similarities existed between the pre-historic people of China, and the people of the west. Babylonia was their original home, and that they were one of the sects of Sumerian civilization is another theory.

Majority opinion is that, the Chinese originally came from Central Asia, and settled in the yellow river valley pushing the aboriginal inhabitants farther south. After the movements of the people stopped, the blending process began. The original inhabitants such as the Miao people are found in south western China. Others driven south-east found their way into Indo-China, Siam and Malaysia. At the time of the Manchu conquest, the cultural assimilation had proceeded farther than the physical.



It is believed that according to many scholars, the Chinese belonged to the Mongolian race. Ninety four per cent of the present population in China belongs to the Han race. The five major groups now living in the country are the Hans, the Mongolians, the Manchus, the Tibetans and the Muslims.

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## 1.4 THE STATE

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The ancient China-state was like a family, which was called 'Kuo-Chia'. Emperor was the father of the family. There was absolute monarchy. The state was called the 'Celestial Empire'. The Grand Council, the six Ministers, Censor Board, Governor General and Governors, helped the Emperor in the administrative affairs.

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## 1.5 IMPORTANCE OF THE FAMILY

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Socially, China was organised on the basis of the family, rather than the individual. The joint-family consisted of great-grand father, grandfather, fathers and their sons, all under the control of the eldest male. A man of even fifty years, was not the master of his household. In this patriarchal conception of the family, the individual was not free to marry, or to remain single as he chose. But, his marriage was arranged for him at an early age to ensure the continuation of the group. One of the primary duties of the individual is to have sons to carry on the family name. The joint-family system sometimes gave rise to quarrels within the family.

The birth of a son was welcomed, but the birth of a daughter was disliked. The girls on marriage severed their connections with their own families, and merged their fortunes with that of their husbands. Divorce was rare. The religious practice of ancestor-worship grew out of the emphasis on the family.

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## 1.6 OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS IN PRE-MODERN CHINA

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The people of China were divided into five occupational groups. The scholars were the highest in the social scale. The farmers were the next important and the largest group who contributed for the maintenance of self-sufficiency. The third group were the artisans. The merchants and the traders were the fourth. At the bottom of the social ladder were the servants and the soldiers.

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## 1.7 ECONOMIC LIFE

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The entire economic life of the country was organised and controlled by the farmers, the artisans and the merchants.

### 1.7.1 Farmers

About 80% of the people of China were engaged in agriculture. They lived in the villages. The villages were usually named after one or two families. The life in the village was centered in the temple. The temple grounds usually provided the place for the weekly market. There, the people brought the surplus produce to exchange for the goods from also the seats for the theatrical entertainments which were the primary source of amusement for the people. The peace-talkers also met in the temples to settle the village disputes.

### 1.7.2 Artisans

The artisan class ranked next to the farmer. The artisans were divided into groups the employers and the workers. All work was done in a small establishment, which was a house as well as the shop. The large undertakings were operated on the basis of partnerships. The partners were jointly and severally responsible for the obligations of the firm. It has become almost proverbial that the **word** of a Chinese is as good as his bond.

### 1.7.3 Guild system

The guild system was prevalent. The guild organisation consisted of a president and an executive committee, and a **secretary**, who was the real administrator of the guild affairs. The guild controlled the prices, **fixed** the quality of the goods and determined the wages. There were meeting halls for the guilds. The disputes between the guilds and the guild members were settled by arbitration committees, sometimes with the intervention of the district magistrate.

### 1.7.4 Trade and Commerce

The traders and merchants were also organised in the same way as the artisans. The dealer in local products sold over the counter in front of his establishment, the **goods** produced in the year. The traders from different economic groups formed the provincial club or guild, but from the same area. This organisation helped the traders to come into association with others, and enabled them to maintain good dealings with officials.

Thus, the entire economic life of the country was largely self-controlled-the farmers in the villages, the artisans, the merchants and traders in the guild. There were the spinners' and weavers' guilds, the bankers' guild, the silk guild, the gold-beaters' guild, etc.

Internal trade flourished in pre-modern China, in spite of poor means of communication. Some of the rivers afforded admirable facilities for the shipping of goods from far off inland areas to the sea. The Yangtze river with its tributaries made trade possible throughout the great central basin. The west river served to the south, the Yellow river facilitated east and west communication.

The canals were used as a medium of transport in the north. The Grand canal from Peking to Hongchow afforded a north and south way. There were many smaller canals which helped in the moving of goods from one region to another.

There were no good roads. The donkey-carts were also used for short distances. In the south, goods were moved by human carriers.

### Check Your Progress - I

1. Mention the two important rivers of China.

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## 2. What was the basic unit of the Chinese Society?

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### 1.8 EDUCATION, LITERATURE AND SCIENCE

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Education and literature received much encouragement. The Emperors set up libraries, and established universities. In Chungum university, there were 30,000 students. Education in pre-modern China was mainly reproducing the ideas or sayings of the ancients, and the objective was only to prepare for the examinations. The examinations were based on the classics and literature. The education kept the social stability of the country, and the continuity of culture. It also attracted the men of ability to the public service. But, it was not receptive to new ideas and practices.

Mao Chiang and Ode were the famous historians at the time of the Hans. Shuo-Wen dictionary was written during this period. In the field of literature, the Tung period is called the golden age, because the men of letters received the royal patronage. Li-Po is compared with Keats. Tu Phu, Po-Chu-Yi were popular poets. In prose, Han-Yu is still remembered. It is said that during this period 2,300 poets wrote about 48,000 poems. Classical poetry was replaced by the romantic poetry during the Sung dynasty. Shui Hus, San Kao and Hsi Yu-Chi were some important romantic poets of this period. Wangyang Ming was a religious writer.

In pre-modern China, there was tremendous progress in all the branches of science. Water and sun watches were invented. An instrument was discovered to measure the extent of an earthquake. Theories about solar and lunar eclipses were also developed. In the field of medicine also, there was some research. Medicines to some types of fevers were discovered. The Chinese were able to classify 1,000 plant species. They used porcelain and glass since ancient times. There were paper industries, and they were the first people in the world to discover artillery.

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### 1.9 ART AND ARCHITECTURE

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Beautiful places and pagodas were built. The tomb sculpture and the art of engraving, were also encouraged. The picture of phoenix is noted for its beauty and perfection. The refined and attractive statues of gods and goddesses were made. The art of pottery and calligraphy also received much attention. It is said that about 220 painters flourished during the Tang period. Fan Kauns was a great painter during the Sung dynasty. Paintings of peaceful scenes were replaced by scenes of war during the Mongolian period. Music, drama and folkdance were the main sources of entertainment.

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### 1.10 RELIGIONS OF CHINA

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The history of ancient China was called the 'Age of Philosophers'. Sixth century B.C. was a period of reforms all over the world. The reformers raised their voices against the blind faith, social and religious evils which had been polluting the society. It was during this period that Confucius, Lao-Tsu, Mencius and Chang Ise came to the forefront, and gave their ideas for the collective welfare of the society. The people followed them with love and respect.

Originally, the people of China loved nature and worshipped it. The people respected

their forefathers. They had faith in the existence of the other world. They also believed in the transmigration of the souls. But, these ideas could not satisfy the people. During the period between seventh and fourth centuries B.C., the Chinese mind was full of ideas, concerning the problems of human life and destiny. The period is described as the period of free thinking and learning.

### 1.10.1 Confucianism

Kungfu Tzu (Kung, the teacher) latinised as Confucius, was born in 550 B.C. in Lu (modern Shantung) province. He was a self-taught man, and worked in the court of Lu. To promote good government, he travelled extensively. Even at the age of seventeen, he was considered a great scholar. He gave education to about 3,000 students till his death in about 480 B.C. at the age of 72.

Confucius wrote four books and five classics. The famous among them were 'Record of Rights', 'Book of Changes', 'The Book of History', 'The Book of Poetry', 'Spring and Autumn', 'The Book of Mencius', and 'Middle path'. His books were the authoritative pronouncements on political and social issues.

Confucius was conservative and tradition-bound. He believed that observance of traditional rites and festivals would provide social stability and prevent moral chaos. He laid down rules for correct relationship within the family. He said that men must have love and affection towards the neighbours, and care for the welfare of humanity. He was a humanist, and gave much importance to ethics and moral life of the individuals.

According to him, the Emperor ruled the country with the blessings of Almighty. The relationship between the ruler and his subjects, he said, is a replica of the father-son relationship, for the state in Confucian conception was the enlargement of the family. The ruling class must have high moral character. He added that the people have every right to revolt against the evil-minded king. Thus, in the socio-political system of Confucius, family and the state are welded into a broad unit.

Thus, apart from producing cultural homogeneity, Confucian philosophy has enabled China through the centuries to develop harmonious community life. It promoted learning and wisdom, and built stable society which armed China to meet any invasion, and tame any outsiders.

### 1.10.2 Taoism

The founder, Lao Tzu born in 604 B.C. in Hanan province. He was the author of the 'Tao Te King' (The Way of Life), which is the Bible of Taoism (Tao means The Way or the Universal Law). Lao Tzu gave emphasis on intuitive method, and rejected the rules and rites. Freed from all material and moral restrictions, man will be one with the Supreme Tao. According to him, true religious objectives can be attained through virtue, compassion, humility and non-violence.

The Chinese art, literature, social habits and sense of values, were much influenced by Taoism. Chung Tse the ablest exponent and disciple of Lao Tzu. He was a mystic and master of witty satires. He lived in the fourth and third centuries B.C. He condemned the institution of private property. According to him, death is only transition from one life to another. He said that compassion and love end miseries.

Mao Tse, the native of Lu province was another thinker who flourished shortly after the death of Confucius. His followers were called Maoists. He was the advocate of universal love

and pacifism. He said that the universe is governed by the Supreme Deity who is the very embodiment of love. He condemned the wickedness of war and selfishness of man. "The man who steals a pig" said Mao Tse, "is condemned, while a man who invades and appropriates a kingdom is a hero, and a model to posterity".

### 1.10.3 Mencius (Neo-Confucianism)

He belonged to the period between 372 B.C. and 28 B.C. *i.e.*, a century after Confucius. He also belonged to Lu province. He postulated the theory of Neo-Confucianism. Mencius was a revolutionary. He confined himself to moral and political speculation of the most radical type. He said that a good ruler should wage war not against another country, but against the common enemy of poverty. According to him, the reason for all the social evils were illiteracy, ignorance, and poverty. The king must reform himself before reforming the people. He accorded the people the right of rebellion against mis-government. He called for the removal of such a ruler who was treated as the enemy of the people.

The various rebellions throughout the course of China's history, after resulting in the overthrow of many a dynasty, are generally regarded as the outcome of Mencius's revolutionary doctrine.

### 1.10.4 Buddhism

Buddhism in both its forms—Hinayana and Mahayana—entered China during the later Han period. By the time of its introduction into China, the Buddha was already a shadowy figure, having been elevated to godhood. The concepts of paradise and salvation have become the main attractive features. The philosophies of Confucius and Lao Tzu could not provide a comparable solace to the soul as *Bodhisattva* could. The principle of Karma or fatalism became an integral part of people's way of life.

The alien dynasties of north China patronised Buddhism. It had become a state religion. Sixty Indian missionaries propagated the religion in China. They received permission and liberal grants from the rulers to build monasteries mainly in Changan and Loyang provinces.

Buddhism helped to bring China into closer relationship with India. It induced new thinking and broadened their mental horizon. India to the Chinese came to be known as the "Pure Land of the West".

As the land route to India was reopened by the foreign rulers in control of North China, many Chinese Buddhists developed a keen desire to visit the land where the religion originated. The notable pilgrims were Fahien, Hiuen-Tsang, I-Tsing, and Wang Huen-tse.

Buddhism also profoundly influenced Chinese art and philosophy. The cave temples at Yunkung and Lungmen, were the specimens of Chinese sculpture, which were influenced by the Gandhara school of art.

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## 1.11 CHIEF CHARACTERISTICS OF THE CHINESE PEOPLE

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There was much variety amongst the people of China. The differences in the spoken language and the lack of uniformity in customs and traditions, the diversity in food habits, developed among the people a sense of attachment to their locality. They were conservative and idealistic, based on Confucian philosophy.

The common bonds of union lay in the larger cultural life than in the political organisation. The pride of the Chinese was based on consciousness of achievements of their civilization. China radiated her culture, art and crafts in the surrounding lands, and hence, it is called the 'Middle Kingdom'. The Chinese regarded their culture as the highest, and the only suitable one to mankind. A people proud of such civilization, could hardly be expected to develop any interest in other civilizations.

Lin Yutang pointed out that Chinese written script solved the problem of Esperanto (International language). Therefore, there had never been any barrier to thought communication.

The history of China can be divided into three periods. Upto the downfall of the Manchus in 1912 is the ancient period; between 1912 and 1949 is the history of Republican China, and after 1949 is the history of Communist China.

### Check Your Progress - II

1. To which century did Confucius belong?

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2. Why did the Chinese call their country as the 'middle kingdom'?

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### 1.12 LET US SUM UP

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1. China is the largest country in East Asia, and ranks first in the world in population. The rivers and mountains in the country were not serious obstacles for political unity.
2. The Chinese have a long history and an ancient culture.
3. Family and not the individual was the basis of the Chinese society.
4. Farmers, artisans and merchants were the important sections in the society.
5. Confucianism, Taoism and Buddhism were the chief religions of China.

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### 1.13 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : ANSWERS

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- I. 1) Hwang-Ho (Yellow River) and Senxiang.
- 2) Family

- II. 1) 6th century B.C.
- 2) The Chinese were proud people and they thought that their country was in the centre of the world. Hence they described their country as the 'Middle Kingdom'.

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### 1.14 EXAMINATION MODEL QUESTIONS

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**I. Answer the following questions in about 30 lines each.**

1. Briefly describe the geographical features of China.
2. Write about the major occupational groups in pre-modern China.
3. Narrate briefly the views of some of the important philosophical schools of 6th century B.C. in China.

**II. Answer the following questions in about 15 lines each.**

1. Describe the condition of trade and commerce in pre-modern China.
2. Write about the progress of pre-modern China in the field of education and literature.
3. What was the scientific development in pre-modern China?
4. Describe the art and architecture of pre-modern China.
5. What do you know about Mencius (Neo-Confucianism)?
6. Write about the chief characteristics of the Chinese people in pre-modern period.

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### 1.15 BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING

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- |                          |  |
|--------------------------|--|
| 1. Ahmed, L.L.           | : A Comprehensive History of the Far East    |
| 2. Chatterjee            | : Modern China—A Short History               |
| 3. Claude & Buss         | : The Far East                               |
| 4. Clyde & Bears         | : The Far East                               |
| 5. Crofts & Buchanan     | : The Far East                               |
| 6. Latourette            | : A History of the Far East                  |
| 7. Panikkar, K.M         | : Asia and Western Dominance                 |
| 8. Shiv Kumar & Jain, S. | : History of Modern China                    |
| 9. Vinacke, H.M.         | : A History of the Far East in Modern Times. |

– Smt. T. Lakshmi Tulasi

---

## **UNIT-2 : SALIENT FEATURES OF MANCHU RULE**

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- 2.0 Objectives
- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 China up to the Manchus
  - 2.2.1 Shang Dynasty (1523 B.C. - 1027 B.C.)
  - 2.2.2 Chou Dynasty (1122 B.C. - 250 B.C.)
  - 2.2.3 Chin Dynasty (256 B.C. - 207 B.C.)
  - 2.2.4 Han Dynasty (207 B.C. - 9 A.D. & 23 A.D. 220 A.D.)
  - 2.2.5 Tang Dynasty (618 - 907 A.D.)
  - 2.2.6 Sung Dynasty (960-1297 A.D.)
  - 2.2.7 Mongol (Yuan) Dynasty (1267-1368 A.D.)
  - 2.2.8 Ming Dynasty (1368-1644 A.D.)
- 2.3 Rise of the Manchus
- 2.4 Administrative System
  - 2.4.1 Empire
  - 2.4.2 Emperor
  - 2.4.3 Censorate
  - 2.4.4 Bureaucracy
  - 2.4.5 Provincial Government
  - 2.4.6 Provincial Officers
  - 2.4.7 Revenue
  - 2.4.8 Army
- 2.5 Christian Missionary Activities
- 2.6 Early Trading Contacts with the west
- 2.7 Let us sum up
- 2.8 Check your Progress : Answers
- 2.9 Examination Model Questions
- 2.10 Books for further Reading

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### **2.0 OBJECTIVES**

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A study of this unit should enable you

1. to narrate briefly the land marks in the history of china up to 1912 A.D.
2. Explain the salient features of Manchu administration and
3. explain briefly the contacts of china with the west till 1842

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### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

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The lesson explains the rise of Manchus in China, their administrative system, the Chinese trading relations with the European countries and the Christian missionary activities in China. A brief history of China upto the Manchus is also given here.

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### **2.2 CHINA UPTO THE MANCHUS**

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The Chinese civilization, according to some historians, is 7000 years old. According to Treat, the history of ancient China can be divided into three periods. From 2852 B.C. to 206

B.C is called the period of expansion; from 206 B.C., to 1644 A.D. is the period of struggle with the Tartars and the modern period followed after 1644.

The ancient Chinese society was feudalistic in nature. Entire China was under the control of about 5000 feudal lords. Each lord had his own settlement, with his own army. The period of expansion started when the feudals began to fight with each other. Thus, the number of the independent feudals began to decrease, gradually giving place to strong kings.

One of the most serious difficulties in the study of history of ancient China is that, there is much of imagination in the construction of ancient history; because its history is 7000 years old.

Some legendary emperors shao, Yun and Yao were praised by the Chinese as paragons of virtue. The Chinese historians have compiled the history of China in the dynastic order. As early as in 2852 B.C., Lu Hsi was a powerful ruler in China. During his period, codes of marriage and education were formulated, and animal husbandary, music etc. developed. Shen Nung was another important Emperor of the age. The yellow Emperor Hnang Ti who ruled in the third century B.C., introduced the river boat and vehicular transport. Compass as well as the bow, arrow and coffin were used in that period. Shun was another important emperor who ruled in the second century B.C. He introduced many far reaching reforms. He banned corporal punishment of the students. Following were some of the important dynastiés which ruled in ancient China.

### **2.2.1 The Shang Dynasty (1523 B.C. 1027 B.C.)**

With the coming of this dynasty, the history of China really begins. This dynasty ruled for about 500 years in the valley of the Yellow river. There is definite proof that the art of writing was fairly in use during this time. This dynasty produced 28 emperors, of whom Wu Yi was the most important. Under Chou Hsin, the last emperor, the empire expanded to Shantung.

### **2.2.2 The Chou Dynasty (1122 B.C. 250 B.C.)**

Chou dynasty was founded by Wu Wang after the overthrow of the last Shang ruler, Chou Hsin. This dynasty ruled for about 800 years, and produced 37 rulers. They ruled in the valley of Wei, and their new capital was Loyang. They were perhaps a people of Tartar origin. China made rapid progress during this dynasty. The concepts of Heaven worship, ancestor-worship and paternal monarchy had generated during this period. Confucius and many other philosophers lived during this period.

### **2.2.3 The Chin Dynasty (256 B.C. 207 B.C.)**

In the third century B.C., the Chin dynasty came to power in China. It was founded by Tsin Shi. Shih Huang Ti was the powerful emperor. During his reign, the Huns began to invade China. He crushed many feudal lords and defeated the Huns. In order to check their menace, he constructed the massive Great Wall of China, which is 2800 miles long and 20 feet wide. It took ten years to complete the work. According to Voltaire, the Pyramids of Egypt fade before the Wall.

He paid full attention to good administration and to development of trade and commerce. Education and fine arts were encouraged. He unified the major portion of China, and also protected it by eliminating feudal violence and in roads of the barbarians. The Chin empire collapsed with the death of Shih Huang Ti in 210 B.C. In the midst of anarchy, a peasant leader and a bandit, Lin Peng emerged as the strong man, and grabbed the throne.

## **2.2.4 The Han Dynasty (207 B.C 9 A.D. and 23 A.D. 220 A.D.)**

The Han period in the history of China is spread over a period of 400 years early Han period, Han dynasty and later Han period. Lin Peng was its founder. Loyang was the new capital. Lin believed in Confucianism, and welfare of the people was his main objective. A code of conduct for the countries was approved.

Wu Ti (140 B.C 87 B.C.) was the most powerful ruler who saved the country from foreign aggression. He conquered Manchuria, Korea, Annam, Indo-China and Turkestan. He divided his empire into 13 provinces. Slave system was banned. Agriculture was developed. Trade with India was encouraged. Roads and bridges were built. He loved education and literature, and set up a library consisting of about 10,000 books. Wang Meng was another important ruler.

There was rapid cultural development under the Hans. Education and literature received encouragement. There was advancement in sciences and medicine. Trade was developed. Taoism was popular in the country during this period.

## **2.2.5 The Tang Dynasty (618-907 A.D.)**

Tang dynasty ruled over China for about 300 years, which is the golden period in the history of China, for "under the Tang, China was for centuries a unified, prosperous and highly civilized". The period in some times referred to as the second Renaissance. In the Tang regime, China had truly become the Middle Kingdom, radiating her political and cultural influences in all directions.

Tai Yuan was the founder of the empire. Tai Tsung took the boundaries of the Chinese empire upto Middle Asia, Korea and Japan. Turkestan and Afghanistan were part of his empire. He introduced many reforms. Wu-Hou was the Empress of this dynasty. Hsuan Tsung was another great Emperor.

## **2.2.6 The Sung Dynasty (960-1279 A.D.)**

The founder of the dynasty was king, Tai Tsu. Though the Sung era was one of political weakness, it was an era of cultural advancement. Neo-Confusionism was introduced in the religious philosophy. The Sung period witnessed rapid advancement in the field of literature and painting. Fan Kauns was a famous painter of this period.

## **2.2.7 The Mongol (Yuan) Dynasty (1267-1368 A.D.)**

The founder of the Mongol dynasty, Chenghiz Khan, was a cruel ruler. Mongols were one such race that they dwelt originally in the valleys of Amur river and north of Gobi desert. The people were brave and did not live at one place. They took the title of Khan.

Chenghiz Khan captured Nanking and defeated the Turks, and had extended his supremacy upto Tigris and Euphrates rivers, with Kiew as the capital. He invaded India also. He died in 1227 A.D.

## **2.2.8 The Ming Dynasty (1368-1644)**

Chu-Yaun-Chang was the founder of the Ming dynasty, Hui Ti, Cheng Tsu and I-Tsung were some important emperors. The last ruler of the dynasty was Tsung, who could not keep control over the armies and the Manchus replaced him in 1644.

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## 2.3 RISE OF THE MANCHUS

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The Manchu dynasty ruled over China for about 300 years, from 1644 to 1911 A.D. The Manchus remained on the throne till Dr. Sun-Yat-Sen forced the last Manchu Emperor to abdicate. With the commencement of the Manchu regime, the modern era of China's history was inaugurated. During this period, the opium wars were fought, the Taiping rebellion took place, and the Europeans began to take more interest in China's affairs. The Christian missionaries took a leading part in propagating Christianity. Thus, the Manchu period was a period of hectic activities.

The Manchus had their original home near Manchuria. Their ancestors were under the control of the rulers of Chien Chou. But, after the fall of the Mang, the rulers of Chien Chou also became weak, and the whole of Manchuria came under the control of the Manchus. In 1619, the Manchus inflicted a crushing defeat on the Mings, and the area near Liao Canal, Jehol, Chahar, Sui Yuan and Mingshia, were gradually occupied by the Manchus. By 1842, almost entire China had come under the control of the Manchus.

Though the Manchu rulers had consolidated their position, they had to face many revolts. The rulers who ruled over China from 1820 to 1912 were called the later Manchus. During the time of Hsien-Feng, the Arrow war started. From 1816 to 1908, Chich was ruled by a very powerful and ambitious Empress, Tsu-Hsi.

### Check Your Progress - I

1. Who constructed the great wall of china?

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2. During which period did the Manchu dynasty rule over china?

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## 2.4 THE ADMINISTRATIVE SYSTEM

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### 2.4.1 The Empire

The united **Chinese** Empire under the Manchus consisted of 4 units-the first unit consisted of 18 provinces, the second part consisted of Manchuria, and the third part consisted of Tibet, Mangolia, and Sinkiang which accepted the supremacy of the Manchus, and the fourth part consisted of the southern dependent countries like Korea, Annam, and Formosa. They paid revenue, and were under the influence of the Chinese rulers. The traditional relationship between the Chinese and her dependencies cannot be described in terms of modern concept of

suzerain-vassal relationship.

### 2.4.2 The Emperor

The political system of the Chinese Empire is described as an "autocracy superimposed on democracy". The Emperor theoretically exercised the power of an autocrat. He was the supreme law-maker of the state. The executive and administrative functions were exercised under his discretion and control, and he was the fountain of justice. In a real sense, he governed by 'divine right'. He had neither parliament nor any other elected body, to whom he could be held responsible. It was said that Heaven bestowed upon him a 'mandate' to rule. In theory, the Emperor was the active ruler, but in practice, his role was passive. At the same time, the Emperor was not an autocrat. He could not go beyond certain well-established customs of the country. Secondly, the people had a right to revolt against him, if the king failed to improve their conditions. It was also believed that if the king did not enjoy the blessings of Almighty, he would be dethroned by the people.

A few quotations of Confucian classics illustrate the character of the old Chinese political institutions - "Heaven hears as the people hear. Heaven sees as the people see". Again, "in a political state, the people are the most important, institutions come next, the monarch is the least important, of all".

There were other restrictions and limitations on the absolute power of the Emperor. In the exercise of his supremacy, he was restricted by the Imperial House Law, and by the edicts of his predecessors.

The Emperor was assisted by two bodies - the Grand Secretariat, and the Grand Council. The former was of little importance in the actual Salient Features of Manchu Rule government. The Grand Council was a very important advisory body which consisted of six members. Each one was the president of a single administrative board. The six boards were in the charge of Civil appointments, Revenue, Rites, War, Punishments and Works. After the forcible opening of the country to commercial and diplomatic intercourse with the West, a seventh Board to deal with the foreign problem, called the Tsungli Yamen was added. It was through the administrative boards that the actual administration of the Empire was carried on.

### 2.4.3 Censorate

One of the powerful organs of the Central Government was the censorate which has been described as the 'eyes and ears' of the Emperor. There were 24 censors in Peking, and 56 in the provinces. The function of the censor was to criticise, which was exercised freely. The entire official system from the highest Emperor to the lowest district magistrate, could not be exempted from its criticism.

The provincial censors acting like spies reported on the conduct of the officials in the provinces, so that the Emperor could reward those who were faithful, and punish those who were suspected of disloyalty.

### 2.4.4 Bureaucracy

The Emperor appointed the highest category of officials who had qualified themselves in the examinations. Educational qualifications were the criteria for making appointments. Merit and not birth was the basis for appointment to high positions. Appointments were made on the

basis of competitive examinations.

The officials were appointed according to a general rule, for three years before transfer to another post. No official was appointed at his native place, This prevented the development of a sense of independence, and the possibility of an attempt to detach the province from the Empire. These practices helped the maintenance of the Imperial rule, in spite of the large discretionary powers vested in the officials.

It is, however, unfortunate that the last Manchu rulers did not adhere to the general rule of rotation of Public servants for every three years. With the result, the officials became corrupt.

#### **2.4.5 Provincial Government**

There was political unity in China before 1842. The Empire was divided into provinces. The province was a political as well as an administrative subdivision of the state. They were the semi-autonomous units in the Empire, because the means of transport and communication were inadequate.

The Viceroy or the governor was the head of the province. Most of the provinces were grouped into viceroalties. Viceroy was a kind of superior colleague to the governor. In spite of the fact that the viceroys or governors belonged to the royal family, though they exercised absolute authority in their area, they were subject to the same general limitations as the Emperor. They had many powers and great responsibilities. At the same time, they were limited in their authority, by the presence of the other provincial officers who were appointed and controlled directly by the Central Government. These officers served as a check on the governor. The policy of frequent transfers also curtailed their disloyalty.

#### **2.4.6 Provincial Officers**

In the discharge of his functions, the Governor was assisted by a Treasurer. He was the nominal head of the civil service, and was responsible for keeping an account of income and expenditure of state revenues. There were judges for the administration of justice. The Salt Comptroller was in control of the manufacture, movement and sale of salt. There was a Grain Intendent, controlling the collection of grain tribute.

The provinces were subdivided into prefectures (Fui), which in turn, combined into circuits (tao). In the 18 provinces, there were about 184 prefectures, and 95 circuits. Each prefecture consisted of several districts (hsien). The district was the political and the administrative unit, which consisted of several villages.

Each circuit was administered by an official, called the Tao-tai. The prefecture was supervised by the Prefect together with his deputies.

The real administrative head of the empire at the bottom of the official ladder was, Hsien or the district magistrate. He was the most important official in many respects in the entire system. His functions were many and diverse. He was the police magistrate and he was the court of first instance in all civil and criminal cases. He was also Sheriff, jail warden, collector of land and grain tribute, registrar of the land, famine commissioner, local representative of the Board of works and provincial treasurer. He was the main connecting link between the people and the political system of the country. In one word, he was "the father and mother official".

The relationship between the various officials in the hierarchy was responsible for the smooth

functioning of the entire administrative system. The delegation of responsibility is well illustrated by Parker, in the following specimen proclamation: "The magistrate has had the honour to receive instructions from the Prefect, who cites the instructions of the **Tao-tai**, moved by the Treasurer and the Judge, recipients of the commands of thier Excellencies, the Viceroy and the Governor, acting at the instace of the Foreign Board, who have been honoured with His Majesty's Commands". Sailent Features of Manchu Rule

The officials in China ware not paid high salaries to enable them to support their establishments adequately, or to provide for their own future. The salary was supplemented by an allowance.

#### **2.4.7 Revenue**

The Imperial Government did not tax the individual directly, but it apportioned its needed income among the provinces, according to their ability to contribute. Finally, it was the magistrate who actually fixed the taxes to be collected from the individuals.

The Chinese revenues consisted of land tax, grain tribute, tax on salt and customs. There was widespread corruption among the officials, because of the meagre salary paid to them. The tax collected from the peasantry by the tax collector, was often two or three times more than the assessed rates. They lived on the sweat and blood of the farmer.

#### **2.4.8 Army**

China being a big country, maintained a strong army to defend the country from outside aggressions, and to maintain law and order in the country. The army in the capital not only kept peace, but also acted as body guards of the king. In Manchuria, there were 4 lakh soldiers. Each province had its own army to maintain peace and order. In the provinces, there were 6 lakh soldiers.

But, it was unfortunate that the army could not take advantage of the scientific discoveries of the European nations in the first half of the 19th century. This resulted in disadvantage to the Chinese army, which sub sequently could not face the European armies, and suffered heavy defeats.

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### **2.5 CHRISTIAN MISSIONARY ACTIVITIES**

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The Roman Catholic missionaries were the Jesuits who entered China as philosophers and men of science, rather than as priests. They established themselves firmly in the country, by largely adopting their religious views to the practices and traditions of the Chinese. By 1601, Matteo Ricci was able to convert some higher officials. Thus, many conversions took place in the provinces also.

After the Catholic missionaries secured a firm hold, there arose some conflicts between the Christians and the natives, because some preists were drawn into public positions, which gave rise to serious internal disturbances. The most serious one was the controversy over the legitimacy of the continuance of ancestor-worship by the native Christians. The new religion was considered detrimental to the authority of the Emperor. Consequently, in 1724 an edict was issued prohibiting the propagation of Christianity.

A few missionaries remained, and Christianity itself was not completely eliminated. The Catholic missionaries gained importance only when the ban was lifted in 1844. After the promise

of obedience and good conduct, the Emperor changed the established procedure.

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## 2.6 EARLY TRADING CONTACTS WITH THE WEST

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From the middle of the 18th century until 1842, the Chinese empire was closed to foreigners except at Canton and Macao. The rest of the vast empire was sealed off against any contact with the 'barbarians'. The Chinese silk, tea, and pottery were very much in demand in many parts of the world. But, the Chinese did not import any commodities from the outside world. The Romans were interested in the Chinese trade.

Later, many European countries felt sore about it. In the early sixteenth century, the European traders entered China. From the middle of the eighteenth century onwards, pressure of the Occident on the Orient had begun. In course of time, the mighty empire of China yielded to the superior armies and dynamic civilization of the West. The complacent Chinese at first looked upon the European sea-men with disdain. The belief in fate as in India, dictated the policy of restricting commercial contacts to the minimum, and keeping the foreigners at arm's length.

The increased productivity of the industry brought about by the Industrial Revolution and the need for eastern products, intensified the European pressure on China. They demanded the removal of trade barriers between nations. Thus, a new concept of right to trade had gained ground. Thus, the foreigners entered China.

The Portuguese were the first Westerners to reach China by sea in 1516. They were followed by the Dutch in 1604, the English in 1637, and the Americans in 1784.

In 1715, in order to establish the China trade on regular footing, the East India Company opened a permanent factory at Canton. 'Factory' was the term which denoted the establishment of merchants residing in a foreign country, from where they carried on their business. A very lucrative trade developed at Canton.

The beginning of opium trade with the Britishers was a step in the direction of making China to import some commodities from the outside world.

### Check Your Progress - II

1. Which official in china was known as the Father and mother official?

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2. Who were the first Europeans to reach china?

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## 2.7 LET US SUM UP

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1. China has a long History which can be traced back to around 2800 B.C. the commencement of the rule of the Manchu dynasty in 1644 A.D., is considered as the beginning of the modern period in Chinese History.
2. The Chinese Government under the Manchus is described as 'autocracy superimposed on democracy' appointments in China were made on the basis of competitive Examinations.
3. Christian Missionaries were banned entry into China from 1724 A.D. The ban was lifted in 1844 A.D.
4. Till 1842 A.D. the Chinese empire was closed to the foreigners except at Canton and Macao.

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## 2.8 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : ANSWERS

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- I.
  1. The Manchu dynasty ruled over China from 1644 to 1911 A.D.
  2. During the time of Emperor Shi Huang Ti the Great Wall of China was constructed.
- II.
  1. Hsien
  2. Portuguese

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## 2.9 EXAMINATION MODEL QUESTIONS

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- I. Answer the following questions in about 30 lines each.
  1. Briefly describe the geographical features of China.
  2. Write about the major occupational groups in pre-modern China.
  3. Narrate briefly the views of some of the important philosophical schools of 6th century B.C. in China.
  4. What was the condition of ancient China under the various dynasties who ruled before the Manchus?
  5. Discuss the salient features of the administrative system under the Manchus.
- II. Answer the following questions in about 15 lines each.
  1. What do you know about the antiquity of the Chinese people?
  2. Describe the condition of trade and commerce in pre-modern China.
  3. Write about the progress of pre-modern China in the field of education and literature.
  4. What was the scientific development in pre-modern China?
  5. Describe the art and architecture of pre-modern China.
  6. What do you know about Mencius (New-Confucianism)?
  7. Write about the chief characteristics of the Chinese people in pre-modern period.

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## 2.10 BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING

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1. Ahmed L.L : A Comprehensive History of the Far East
2. Chatterjee : Modern China-A Short History

3. Claude & Buss : The Far East
4. Clyde & Bears : The Far East
5. Crofts & Buchanan : The Far East
6. Latourette : A History of the Far East
7. Panikkar, K.M. : Asia and Western Dominance
8. Shiv Kumar & Jain S. : History of Modern China
9. Vinacke, H.M. : A History of the Far East in Modern Times.

– Smt. T. Lakshmi Tulasi

BRAOU

## **BLOCK - II**

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### **CHINA'S CONTACT WITH THE WEST AND ITS EFFECTS**

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This block has 6 units i.e. unit 3 to unit 8. The coming of the westerners to china as traders and the effects of china's contacts with the west are analysed in the different units of this block. The opium wars, the Taiping Rebellion, Efforts at modernisation of china, the scramble among the western powers for concessions in china. The sino-Japanese war which are directly or indirectly connected to china's contacts with the west are explained in the six units, of this block.

**Unit - 3 : Western Traders**

**Unit - 4 : Opium Wars-Causes and Effects**

**Unit - 5 : Taiping Rebellion**

**Unit - 6 : Efforts at Modernisation**

**Unit - 7 : Sino-Japanese War**

**Unit - 8 : Concessions and spheres of Influence**

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## **UNIT-3 : WESTERN TRADERS**

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### Contents

- 3.0 Objectives
- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Early contacts of the chinese with the west and causes for the western interest in trade with china
- 3.3 Arrival of the portugese
- 3.4 Arrival of the Dutch
- 3.5 Arrival of the British and the Americans
- 3.6 Chinese attitudde towards the early western traders
- 3.7 Nature of the early trade of westerners of china
- 3.8 Conditions of trade in canton, co-Hong
- 3.9 Let us sum up
- 3.10 Check Your Progress : Answers
- 3.11 Examination model questions
- 3.12 Books for Further Reading

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### **3.0 OBJECTIVES**

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A study of this unit should enable you to

1. explain the causes of western interest in trade with china
2. give an account of the arrival of the portugese, Dutch, British and the Americans in china
3. explain the chinese, attitude towards the early western traders and
4. describe the nature and conditions of the early western trade in china.

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### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

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China or the celestial empire, or 'the Middle Kingdom' and 'the Greece and Rome of the Far East', is the largest of all the Asian countries. With more than 4000 years of recorded history, China is one of the few existing countries that also flourished economically and culturally in the earliest stage of world civilisation. Edward H. Schafer, aptly observes that "China taught the world and learned from it through the centuries ....., and its contribution to world civilization ranged from mechanical clocks and fire works to porcelain and poetry. One thing is clear, however, ideas and goods flowed both in and out of China from the earliest times".

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### **3.2 EARLY CONTACTS OF THE CHINESE WITH WEST AND CAUSES FOR THE WESTERN INTEREST IN TRADE WITH CHINA**

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The history of Western contacts with China is a long and fascinating one. But, it is not known with certainty at which time Europe obtained first hand knowledge of China. Paul H. Clyde suggests that 'perhaps it was in the sixth or, even the seventh century B.C. There was remarkable overland trade in silk between China and the Roman world till the 6th century A.D. But, the growth of silk industry at Costantinople put an end to trade between China and Rome. It is not known with certainty, when Christianity reached China. But, it can be said with certainty that Nestorian missionaries arrived in China about 635 A.D. For two centuries, they appear to have been tolerated by the Chinese emperors. The Sung emperors who ruled China from 960

A.D. to 1267 A.D. rigidly controlled and encouraged foreign trade, and obtained a substantial revenue from it. During their period, foreign trade was conducted at Chuan-Chow in Fukin, and at Canton in Kwangtung. The Moslem Arabs and Jews controlled foreign trade at that time in China. During the 13th century once again, trade routes from Europe to China were opened. The motives that inspired this new European interest in China were various. We may agree with Clyde that "Faith, fear and the desire for material gain combined to inspire the embassies which Europe was soon to despatch into Central Asia and the Far East".

Europeans representing religious, political or commercial interests reached the capital of the Mongol Empire during the 13th & the 14th centuries. But, with the collapse of the Mongol rule in 1368 A.D., the European interest in China and the missionary activity received a setback. Europeans wished to find a sea-route to the east from A.D. 1291, but it took more than two centuries for the Europeans to fulfil their dreams. By the last decade of the 15th century, the Portuguese were the first to find a new sea-route and to land in the southern coast of China.

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### 3.3 ARRIVAL OF THE PORTUGUESE

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The Portuguese were the first Westerners to reach China by sea in modern times. They reached China from Malacca in 1514. This trip appears to be a commercial and unofficial enterprise, and even without landing, they appear to have obtained good profit by disposing of their goods. It was followed by an official Portuguese mission headed by Thomas Pires in 1517. This mission was well received at Canton, and he sought permission to proceed to Peking. In 1519, he was ordered to proceed to Peking, but very soon, he was asked to go back to Canton, and there he was imprisoned. In 1522, the Chinese attacked and destroyed the Portuguese trading post at Canton. The Portuguese established another trading station at Lappa, and survived for some years. Later, the Portuguese traders were driven from Ningpo and Amoy. The Chinese imprisoned and drove away the Portuguese because they came to be convinced that the Portuguese were not interested in peaceful trade, but were intent on loot and conquest by force. Further, their suspicion was strengthened by the insolent behaviour of Simon d' Androde, a Portuguese merchant, who indulged in piratical adventures along the coast towards the Chinese officials. Clyde aptly describes that the Portuguese are to be blamed for their diplomatic and commercial failure. Despite the harsh treatment meted out to the Portuguese, they persisted and established themselves at Macao in 1557. Here, the Portuguese traders were made to live under absolute Chinese control-territorial, judicial and fiscal. They remained so till 1849, and in that year, they started claiming exclusive jurisdiction over it. It was recognised as a Portuguese territory in 1887 by the protocol of Lisbon.

The missionary interest of the Roman Catholic Church began to be intensified with the landing of the Portuguese in China. Francis Xavier was the first Christian missionary who attempted to convert the Chinese to Christianity. Xavier was followed by Matheo Ricce, an Italian Jesuit who reached Macao in 1582, in the garb of a Buddhist monk. He succeeded in establishing his influence in China through his scholarship. The Kang-hsi emperor gave freedom of worship to the Roman churches throughout the empire, a century after Ricco's arrival at Canton. In spite of official favours, in 1616 and in 1664, some of the Jesuits were expelled from Peking, and forced to retire to Canton or Macao.

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### 3.4 ARRIVAL OF THE DUTCH

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At the beginning of the 17th century, the Dutch attempted to open trade at Canton in 1604 and in 1607, but on both occasions, permission was denied to them by the Chinese. There

is every reason to suspect that the Portuguese at Macao might have instigated the Chinese not to allow the Dutch to trade at Canton. Consequently, in retaliation, the Dutch attacked unsuccessfully, Macao under the Portuguese in 1622. The Dutch succeeded in establishing themselves at Pescadore islands near Taiwan, and carried on attacks against the Portuguese. The Dutch were forced to retire to Formosa in 1624, but in 1662 they were driven away from Formosa by the last aspirant of the Ming rulers. The Dutch appeared to have helped the Manchus in overthrowing the Ming rule, and were permitted to trade at Amoy along with the British.

The Dutch despatched four embassies to Peking in 1656, 1667, 1685, 1785-86 and 1795, seeking formal contacts with the Manchu court, and commercial concessions. From 1729, the Dutch traded regularly at Canton.

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### **3.5 THE ARRIVAL OF THE BRITISH AND THE AMERICANS**

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The first British vessel to reach Canton was despatched in 1635 by the British East India company. The Courteen Association despatched a squadron of British vessels, commanded by Captain John Waddell. Waddell arrived at Macao in 1637 and proceeded to Canton. Initially, he was opposed by the Chinese, but later he was permitted to carry on trade. The British began to send ships regularly to Canton from 1699 A.D.

Later, the first French ship arrived at Canton in 1698, the first Danish ship in 1731, the first Swedish ship in 1732, and first Russian ship in 1753. The last to enter the race for trade with China were the Americans. The first American ship, 'Empress of China', sailed for China in 1784.

#### **Check Your Progress - I**

1. What were the motives which inspired the westerners to have contacts with china during the 16th and 17th centuries?

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2. Who was the first missionary leader who converted the chinese to christianity?

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### **3.6 THE CHINESE ATTITUDE TOWARDS THE EARLY WESTERN TRADERS**

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By the time, the Portuguese entered China, it was being ruled by the Ming dynasty. The Ming emperors maintained China's traditional feudal relationships with foreign people. The Chinese took for granted that their emperor was every one's overlord, and they expected foreign rulers to honour their emperor. The Mings also regarded themselves as superiors, and treated the Westerners as 'Barbarians'. So, they did not encourage contacts between the local Chinese

and the foreigners. In its efforts to enforce its laws, the Ming court closed all maritime trade centres except the one at Kuang Chow.

The Ming dynasty was overthrown by the Manchus or the Ching dynasty. During the rule of the Ching dynasty, a controversy arose in China, known as the 'Rites controversy'. It was a dispute over the propagation of Christianity, and its compatibility with the Chinese traditional rites and ceremonies. Jesuits tried to maintain harmony with the religious and conventional traditions of China. But, this policy was opposed in 1630s by the Dominicans and Fransiscans. As a result of this controversy, the door was closed on Christianity. In 1724, an edict was issued, prohibiting the propagation of the religion of the Lord of Heaven.

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### **3.7 NATURE OF THE EARLY TRADE OF WESTERNERS IN CHINA**

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The early trade of the Westerners in China was one-sided. The Chinese did not desire European products. But, the Westerners were willing to make long voyages, and ready to take grave risks to secure Chinese goods. There was great demand in European countries for Chinese silk, porcelain, and tea. Consequently, there was export of Chinese goods in large quantities, and was created a favourable balance of payments to China. This situation created a feeling among the Chinese that the Europeans were dependent on the Chinese. So, the Chinese allowed the Westerners to trade in China as a privilege granted to them, not as a right. Further, the Chinese firmly believed that they could issue a threat to stop the trade, when it was not at all advantageous to them. Slowly and gradually, the one-sided trade gave place to exchange of goods needed by the Chinese. By the middle of the 19th century, as a result of the consumption of opium in large quantities, the balance of payments became unfavourable to China. It created a great alarm in the minds of the Chinese, and they decided to check it.

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### **3.8 CONDITIONS OF TRADE IN CANTON, CO-HONG**

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The Chinese Empire was closed to foreigners except for peep holes at Canton and Macao, from the middle of the 18th century to the middle of the 19th century. Though the Manchus, by an edict of 1685, permitted foreigners to trade at all ports, later they decided to restrict access to the country. Till 1757, the Chinese government only passively permitted, rather than actively encouraged, the entry of foreigners for trade and propagation of Christianity into China. The Manchu rulers issued an edict in 1757 by which the foreign trade was confined to Canton. The edict was issued by the Manchus to keep the foreigners away from Peking. At Canton, the foreign merchants were not permitted to reside throughout the year. The merchants were forced to live with their families at Macao. The foreign factories were situated on the river bank, just outside the walled city, at Canton. Foreigners were denied access to the city. Foreigners' movements at Canton were confined to the narrow limits of the factory grounds.

The Chinese set up a monopoly organisation through which the above trade could be carried on. In 1702, an individual known as the 'Emperor's merchant' was appointed as the sole agent to deal with the foreign traders. As this system proved unsatisfactory, it was replaced by 'Co-Hong', the guild of 13 Chinese merchants, who engaged in foreign trade. The Co-Hong continued till 1842. According to the system, each foreign trader had to be 'secured' by one of the 'Hong' merchants. The foreigner could buy and sell goods through the Co-Hong only. The Co-Hong acted as the intermediary between the foreign community and the Chinese official world. The 13 merchants were the sole medium of communications between the factories and the Viceroy, Governor, and magistrate. Letters and petitions about complaints could be submitted through the Co-Hong only. The Co-Hong controlled both exports and imports, subject to official

control. Thus, the Co-Hong exercised unlimited control over the foreigners, and exploited the foreign merchants. Though the foreigners hated the social restrictions imposed on them and the Co-Hong, they continued trade because they earned enormous profits despite restrictions, monopoly, malpractices and usurious extractions.

### Check Your Progress - II

1. What was the attitude of the ming emperors towards the westerners?

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2. What was the main function of the Co-Hong?

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### 3.9 LET US SUM UP

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1. Religious and commercial motives prompted the westerners to have contacts with china during the mediaeval and early modern periods.
2. The chinese looked at the westerners as 'barbarians' and were not eager to have close contacts with the westerners.
3. Early trade with china was one sided ~~in other~~ words the westerners purchased chinese goods like tea and porcelein goods and there was nothing that the westeners could supply to the chinese.
4. From the middle of the 18th century to the middle of the 19th century, western traders in china were confined to canton and Macao.

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### 3.10 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : ANSWERS

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- I
  1. Desire to spread christianity and **ambition** for material gains through trade were the chief motives of the westerners to have contacts with china in the 16th and 17th centuries.
  2. Francis Xavier.
- II
  1. The ming emperors considered the westerners as 'barbarians' and did not encourage contacts between the chinese and the foreigners.
  2. The Co-Hong's main function was to act as an intermediary between the foreign traders and the chinese officials.

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### 3.11 EXAMINATION MODEL QUESTIONS

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I. Answer the following questions in about 30 lines each.

1. Describe the early contacts of the Chinese with the West.
2. Explain why the relations between the West and the Chinese were hostile.
3. Explain the conditions of the Western traders at Canton.
4. Describe briefly the causes for the First Opium War.
5. Discuss the course and results of the First Opium War.
6. Discuss the provisions of the Treaty of Nanking and explain the significance of the Treaty.
7. Discuss the causes for the Second Opium War of 1856-60.
8. Explain the provisions and significance of the Tientsin Treaties and Peking treaty.

II. Answer the following questions in about 15 lines each.

1. Explain how and why the Portuguese arrived in China.
2. Describe the nature of the early trade of Westerners in China.
3. Explain what is meant by the 'Canton Trade' and state the restrictions imposed on the foreigners at Canton.
4. What is 'Co-Hong' and how did it cause inconvenience to the Westerners?

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### 3.12 BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING

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1. Clyde Paul, H. : The Far East
2. Clyde Paul, H  
Burton F. Beers : The Far East
3. Edured H. Scheper : Ancient China (Life time books, New York)
4. Gupta R.S. : History of Modern China
5. Gray, Jack : Rebellions and Revolutions/in china from 1800 to 1980.
6. Immanual C.Y. Hsu : The Rise of Modern China,
7. Siva Kumar &  
Saroj Jain : History of the Far East in Modern Times
8. Vinacke H.M. : A History of the Far East in Modern Times.

– K.S. Kameswar Rao

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## UNIT-4 : OPIUM WARS - CAUSES AND EFFECTS

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- 4.5 Let us Sum up
- 4.6 Check Your Progress : Answers
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- 4.8 Books for further Readings

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### 4.0 OBJECTIVES

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From a study of this unity you should be able to

1. analyse the causes and results of the two opium wars and
2. estimate the significance of the two opium wars

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### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

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In this unit the causes, results and significance of the two opium wars between china and Britain are explained. These two wars shaped the future course of chinese modern history. Hence they are of great historical significance. The first war started in 1840 with the British

using force against the Chinese in support of their interest in China. The war ended with the Nanking treaty in 1842. The second war which started in 1856, came to an end in 1860 with the conclusion of the treaty of Tientsin.

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## **4.2 FIRST OPIUM WAR**

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### **4.2.1 Causes**

#### **4.2.1.1 Background**

The First Opium War, or the First Anglo-Chinese War that took place between 1839 A.D. and 1842 A.D., was an inevitable outcome of longstanding conflicting attitudes between the Chinese and the British. In order to understand the origins of the First Opium War, it is necessary to recollect the factors that contributed to mutual distrust between China and Great Britain.

#### **4.2.1.2 Restrictions on Trade of Foreigners in China**

For thousands of years, the Chinese proudly claimed their kingdom as the Middle Kingdom and Celestial Empire. They also firmly believed that other kingdoms surrendered to their Middle Kingdom only as tribute paying kingdoms to their Celestial Emperor. This belief made the Chinese regard others as unequals, and also made them believe that their civilisation and culture was superior to other civilisations and cultures. They considered Westerners as 'Barbarians'. While the Chinese were entertaining such an arrogant attitude towards the Westerners, the latter were keen on obtaining Chinese silk, tea and porcelain which were in great demand in Europe. Along with the Western traders, the Western missionaries also attempted to land in China to propagate their faith. The lingering doubt which the Chinese had about the real intentions of the Westerners, made them take precautionary measures. Though the Ching dynasty in 1685 passed an edict allowing the Westerners to trade in all ports, later they reconsidered their decision, and restricted them to trade only from Canton.

#### **4.2.1.3 The Co-Hong**

Even at Canton, they were asked to carry on their trade through an "Emperor's merchant" appointed in 1702. As this system failed, it was replaced by 'security merchants' or 'Co-Hong': the guild of 13 Chinese merchants, who were engaged in foreign trade. Though, it was formally abolished in 1771, it was revived in 1782, and continued upto 1842. The creation of the Co-Hong increased the mistrust between the Chinese and the British. Further, the Chinese imposed social restrictions on the mobility of foreigners at Canton. The way in which the Chinese treated foreign merchants, created discontentment. The British wanted the Chinese to treat them as equals, but China was not prepared to accept their demand. The relations between the Chinese and the British were further strained by the incident of the 'Lady Hughes'.

#### **4.2.1.4 Incident of the 'Lady Hughes'**

In the year 1784, a gunner of the English vessel, 'Lady Hughes' accidentally killed a Chinese. The Chinese brought pressure on the British, and forced them to hand over the gunner to the Chinese. The Chinese authorities punished him by awarding a death sentence by strangulation. The way in which the British sailor was treated, created the question of jurisdiction. The British claimed that the jurisdiction of the Chinese over their citizen was unlawful, but the Chinese

claimed that they had the right to treat him in accordance with Chinese law, as the incident took place on their ground. The tension created by this incident between the Chinese and the British paved the way for the Opium War.

#### **4.2.1.5 The Terranova Case**

The Terranova case or affair is another illustrative case of jurisdictional conflict which made relations between the Chinese and the Westerners very delicate. Terranova was an Italian by birth, employed by the American ship, Emily of Baltimore. In 1821, he was accused by the Chinese of killing a Chinese woman. The American merchant counsel and officers of the ship surrendered Terranova, when the Chinese stopped American trade. As expected by the Americans, Terranova was strangled to death. This method of awarding punishment was considered barbarous by the foreigners. But, the Chinese said that there was no reason to show leniency towards the Westerners. Thus, the Terranova case increased the conflict between the Chinese and the Westerners.

#### **4.2.1.6 Macartney Mission**

Macartney mission was one of the missions despatched by the British to Peking to establish a more reasonable system of trade. This mission to China between 1792-94 failed. Macartney wrote at the end of his journey that "Nothing could be more fallacious than to judge China by any European standard". When he pleaded for trade links in 1793, the Chinese officials replied in the following manner: "Our celestial empire possesses all things in prolific abundance, and lacks no product within its own borders". This reply and the failure of the Macartney mission increased the disagreement between China and Britain, and paved the way for the Opium War.

#### **4.2.1.7 Napier Episode, 1834**

The Napier episode of 1834 further widened the gulf between China and Great Britain. Lord Napier, who was appointed First Superintendent of British trade at Canton was required to announce his arrival 'by letter to the Viceroy'. He was instructed not to arouse Chinese prejudice which could harm British trade, but he was advised by Palmerstone that 'the establishment of direct communication with the imperial court at Peking could be desirable'. When Napier announced his arrival by letter, the Viceroy refused to acknowledge it. Napier violated the three cardinal principles that guided the Chinese foreign relations, and the refusal by the Viceroy appeared to be natural. Napier died of sickness, and for a period of 5 years after his death, both the Governments followed "the policy of indecision and drift".

Thus, by 1839, the relations between China and Great Britain were ready to be broken on any simple pretext. The problem of opium trade gave the pretext for both the parties to come out openly. As the result of the introduction of the opium traffic into China by the British, the balance of payments turned favourably towards the British. Further, on moral, health and hygienic grounds, the Chinese objected to the largescale import of opium into China, but the British never bothered to look at the opium trade from the Chinese point of view, and continued their trade. At that juncture, the Chinese appointed Lin Tse Hsu as commissioner to handle the menace of opium. Lin demanded that the banned opium be handed over to the Chinese administration and he took by force 20 thousand boxes of British opium. Lin then threw them into the sea. The British merchants felt annoyed at his action. He further demanded the British and foreign traders to give an assurance in writing that they would not bring opium in future to China. The traders refused to accept the demand by Lin. Further, the British traders

brought pressure on the British Government to demand compensation from China for the opium destroyed by Lin. Consequently, all contacts with the factories were brought to an end by prohibiting food, water and personal service. The British merchants, finally withdraw, and settled at Hongkong, under instructions from their superintendent of trade. The Americans agreed to the modified form of bond, and so trade was reopened with them. The British, who were clever began to discharge their cargoes through the Americans. Thus, active hostilities developed out of this controversy of prohibition of opium. The initial hostilities started in November, 1839. Thus, from the Chinese point of view, the sole question at issue was that of the importation of opium. But, from the British point of view, the opium question was decidedly subordinate to the broader question of the establishment of political relations with the empire. Clyde and Beers opine that there is no definite answer to the question of whether the warfare of 1839-1842 should be called the Opium War or the First Anglo-Chinese War. It is a matter of historian's individual judgement based on the reading of the evidence. Certainly, the opium trade was the immediate occasion of the hostilities, but there were many other factors of longstanding and of an explosive nature. According to Clyde & Beers, the underlying conflict was not opium, but rather the clash between China's tribute system and the Western theory of the equality of the States.

#### **4.2.1.8 Immediate Cause**

In such a highly explosive situation, a quarrel took place on July 7, 1839 between British and Chinese traders resulting in the death of a Chinese. The patriotic Commissioner Lin demanded Elloit, superintendent of British trade, to hand over the culprit. Elloit refused to comply on the ground that it was very difficult to identify the culprit in a group quarrel. Lin dealt with them seriously, and so the British retired from Canton to Macao. Thus, started the First Opium War.

#### **4.2.2 Course of the War**

The British Government decided to use force in February, 1840. The British appointed Rear Admiral George Elloit as First Commissioner and plenipotentiary to China. In June, 1840, 16 war ships arrived in Hongkong, and sailed to the mouth of Pei Hai Ho to press China with its demands. But, no agreement was reached. In May, 1841, the British attacked the walled city of Canton. But, the Chings could not employ effective tactics against the powerful British navy. The British then attacked Chinese garrisons and blockaded the mouth of the Yangtze. This advance of the British army resulted in the removal of Lin, and was replaced by Chisan. Negotiations took place between both the parties. In January, 1841, an abortive convention was signed. According to the convention, Hongkong was transferred to the British, diplomatic equality accepted, and China agreed to pay an indemnity to the British. She also agreed to resume trade with Britain. But, both the Chinese and the British were dissatisfied. So, the War was renewed in a second campaign from August, 1841, to August, 1842. Meanwhile, Elliot was called back, and Sir Henry Pottinger arrived off the coast, as the representative of Great Britain. He campaigned northward, seized Amoy, Tunghai and Ningpo. Reinforced from India, he resumed action in May, 1842 and took Wunsung, Shanghai and Chin Kiang. Nanking yielded in August, 1842 and peace was established with the Treaty of Nanking.

#### **4.2.3 Results of the War**

The First Opium War and defeat of China at the hands of the British exposed the military weakness of China. It established the naval supremacy of Great Britain. China was forced to

give up the policy of isolation, superiority of culture, and made to open China for penetration of Western trader on the basis of equality.

#### 4.2.3.1 Provisions of the Treaty of Nanking

The formal settlement of the First Anglo-Chinese War or Opium War, was embodied in two treaties. The Treaty of Nanking, August 29, 1842, and the supplementary Treaty of Hoonun China, signed at Bogue on October 8, 1843.

1. The Chinese agreed to open five ports, Amoy, Foochow, Ningpo and Shanghai for trade, and for the residence of British merchants in those places.
2. Britain was given permission to appoint consular officers to these ports.
3. China agreed to cede the island of Hongkong to Great Britain in perpetuity.
4. China agreed to abolish Co-Hong, and British merchants were given freedom to carry on their mercantile transactions with anybody they pleased.
5. China agreed to pay a total indemnity of \$ 21,00,000 - \$ 6,00,000 for the surrendered opium, \$ 3,00,000 to cover the debts owed by Hong merchants to British subjects, and \$ 12,00,000 for the expenses of War.
6. Correspondence between the chief British representative and high Chinese officers was to be under the term "a communication", not a petition.
7. China agreed to a uniform and moderate tariff on exports and imports, which came to be known as the 5% *advalorem* treaty tariff.

According to the Treaty of Bogue, Britain was provided with extra-territorial jurisdiction in criminal cases. Further, Britain secured the principle of the most-favoured nation treatment also.

### Check Your Progress-I

1. What was the immediate cause for the first opium war?

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2. Which ports were opened to the British for trade after the Nanking treaty?

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### 4.2.3.2 Significance of the Treaty

The Nanking and the Bogue Treaties occupy a significant place in the history of modern China. They mark the opening of China, and the beginning of unequal treaties. They mark the beginning of economic imperialism which reached its zenith by the end of the nineteenth century. As a result of the Nanking and Bogue Treaties, China was forced to enter into treaties, with America, France, Norway and Sweden, between 1844-1847. They initiated the process of the cutting of 'the Chinese melon' as Vinacke described it. They also made China open its doors to the foreigners.

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## 4.3 SECOND OPIUM WAR 1856-60

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The Westerners were not fully satisfied with the Treaty of Nanking, and the subsequent Treaties of Wanghia and Whampoo. Though they secured some privileges in China, they wanted still more. On the other hand, China was not happy with the continuance of the opium trade, and smuggling of opium into China, and further, the Chinese were unhappy about the cooly trade, and the prevalence of piracy on the South China Seas. As a result of these conflicting and opposing interests, a war between China and Britain became inevitable.

### 4.3.1 Causes

#### 4.3.1.1 Opium and cooly trade

One of the causes for the outbreak of the Second Opium War was the continuous import of opium, and its smuggling into China, by the British. Though trade was banned, it was carried on by the British. Naturally, this provoked the Chinese to protest against it. The Chinese were also unhappy that their people were sent to other countries, by the foreigners, as coolies.

#### **4.3.1.2 Difficulties of Foreigners in trade**

Another cause for the outbreak of the Second Opium War, was the difficulties faced by the foreigners and the Chinese in Canton trade. The Chinese disliked the foreigners, and the foreigners hated the Chinese. As a result, relations were very strained.

Further, the creation of an Inspectorate of Customs controlled by foreign officers to collect maritime customs duties, caused friction and bitterness among the Chinese and the foreigners over the issue of jurisdiction.

#### **4.3.1.3 Misuse of extra-territorial jurisdiction**

The misuse of the rights of extra-territorial jurisdiction by the foreigners, which resulted in foreign criminals not being duly punished, caused unhappiness to the Chinese.

#### **4.3.1.4 Demand for revision of treaties**

Besides the above causes, the demand for the revision of treaties, legalisation of the opium trade, demand of free access to the interiors of China, and demand to regularise the cooly trade, also created unhappiness among the Chinese.

#### **4.3.1.5 Missionary activities**

The missionary activity gave rise to frictions. Missionaries were attacked some times by the natives. This led to diplomatic controversies. Sometimes, action taken by the foreigners against the natives was also disliked by the Chinese. The murder of the Chapdeleins sparked off the Sino-French quarrel.

#### **4.3.1.6 Immediate causes**

The immediate cause for the outbreak of the Second Opium War were : (A) Lorcha Arrow incident and (B) murder of Abbe Chapdelaine. Lorcha Arrow is the name of a ship. It carried an English master and flew the English flag. The Chinese took it under their custody as it was engaged in smuggling and forbidden trade. The Chinese Viceroy got the crew arrested, and sent them to jail. The British considered it an insult to their sovereignty, and demanded their release. But, the Chinese Viceroy rejected their demand. This made the British despatch an expedition against China. At the same time, Abbe Chapdelin, a French Catholic missionary, was put to death in China for inciting revolt against the Chinese Government. Immediately, the French Government objected, and demanded compensation. When France failed to obtain compensation, she joined hand with England.

#### **4.3.2 Course of the War**

Thus, the Joint-Anglo-French Armies bombarded, and occupied Canton by the end of December, 1857. Its Viceroy was captured, and escorted to India, where he died. Canton was brought under the joint control of France and England. Thus, ended the Second Opium War, and China signed the Treaties of Tientsin.

#### **4.3.3 Results**

##### **4.3.3.1 Provisions of Tientsin Treaties**

(1) China agreed to the stationing of a British resident Ministry at Peking, or for the right of the Ministry, at the discretion of the British Government, to visit the capital. The British said that their Minister should not be called upon to perform any ceremony derogatory to him as the representative of the sovereign of an independent nation. China agreed to it.

(2) China agreed to the right of the Britishers to travel in all parts of the interior, under passports issued by the British consulate and countersigned by the local Chinese authorities.

(3) China agreed to the right of foreign ships to trade on the Yangtze river, and opened the ports of Chefoo, Chinkiang, Hankou, Kiungohow, New Chowang, Swatow, Wenchow and Nankien.

(4) China agreed to protect the right of the missionaries to carry on their religious activities. Further, the British succeeded in legalisation of the opium trade.

The ratification of the Treaties of Tientsin was to take place at Peking, but China evaded the issue of ratification, and requested the foreign powers to secure ratification at Canton or Shanghai or Tientsin, but its request was turned down. Once again hostilities started. Anglo French forces burnt and destroyed the famous Summer Palace of the Manchu rulers. They threatened to occupy Peking. Emperor Hsien-Feng was forced to take shelter in Jehol. Consequently, the Chinese pleaded for peace, and the treaties of Peking were concluded in 1860, and China reluctantly agreed to terms of equality with the West. The Treaty of Peking ratified the Treaty of Tientsin. China agreed to the right of the foreign envoys to reside permanently and pay an additional indemnity to the allies.

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#### **4.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE TREATIES OF TIENSIN AND PEKING**

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China's administrative inefficiency, military weakness and unpreparedness to cope with superior naval and military strength, was thoroughly exposed. They ended Chinese isolation, and marked the beginning of political and diplomatic intercourse with China on an equal footing. Indirectly, they fanned the culminated in the Revolution of 1911-12. Thus, a new chapter begins in the History of China with the Treaties of Tientsin and Peking.

#### **Check Your Progress-II**

1. What was Lorcha Arrow?

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2. Did opium trade with china come to an end after the second opium war?

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## 4.5 LET US SUM UP

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1. The Opium wars were an **inevitable** outcome of the conflicting attitude of the Chinese and the British in the fields of trade and other areas.
2. The first opium war which started in 1840 came to an end with the conclusion of the Nanking treaty in 1842. The Nanking treaty was the first of the unequal treaties between China and the Western powers. It heralded Western imperialism in China.
3. Many factors like the demand of the Westerners for revision of treaties, the misuse of extra-territorial rights by the Westerners in China, resulted in the outbreak of the second opium war in 1856. The *Lorch* Arrow incident and the murder of the French missionary leader Abbe Chapdelaine in China were the immediate causes.
4. The Tientsin treaties concluded by China with the Western powers, after the defeat of China, provided more concessions to the Westerners in China. The British were allowed to have their resident at Peking (Beijing), foreigners were allowed to travel anywhere in China and the restrictions on their trade were removed.

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## 4.6 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : ANSWERS

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- I
1. The seizure of opium from the British and the confinement of the British traders in China by the Chinese Commissioner Lin, in 1839, was the immediate cause for the war.
  2. Canton, Amoy, Foochow, Ningpo, and Shanghai.
- II
1. *Lorch* Arrow was an English ship.
  2. No. Import of opium into China by the British did not end after the second opium war. On the other hand it was legalised after the war.

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## 4.7 EXAMINATION MODEL QUESTIONS

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- I. Answer the following questions in about 30 lines each.
1. Describe the early contacts of the Chinese with the West.
  2. Explain why the relations between the West and the Chinese were hostile.
  3. Explain the conditions of the Western traders at Canton.
  4. Describe briefly the causes for the First Opium War.
  5. Discuss the course and results of the First Opium War.
  6. Discuss the provisions of the Treaty of Nanking and explain the significance of the Treaty.
  7. Discuss the causes for the Second Opium War of 1856-60.
  8. Explain the provisions and significance of the Tientsin Treaties and Peking Treaty.
- II. Answer the following questions in about 15 lines each.
1. Explain how and why the Portuguese arrived in China.
  2. Describe the nature of the early trade of Westerners in China.
  3. Explain what is meant by the 'Canton Trade' and state the restrictions imposed on the foreigners at Canton.

4. What is 'Co-Hong' and how did it cause inconvenience to the Westerners?
5. Explain the provisions of the Treaty of Nanking.
6. Explain why the Second Opium War continued after the Treaties of Tiensin.

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#### **4.8 BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING**

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1. H. Clyde Paul & Burton F. Beers : The Far East
2. Edured H. Scheper : Ancient China (Life time books, New York.)
3. Gupta R.S : History of Modern China
4. Immanual C.Y. Hsu : The Rise of Modern China
5. Siva Kumar & Saroj Jain : History of the Far East in Modern Times
6. Vinacke, H.M. : A History of the Far East in Modern Times

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## **UNIT-5 : TAIPING REBELLION**

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- 5.12 Exam Model Questions
- 5.13 Books for Further Reading

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### **5.0 OBJECTIVES**

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A study of this unit should enable you to

1. analyse the causes of the Taiping Rebellion
2. give an account of the course of the Rebellion
3. explain the causes for its failure
4. analyse its effects and
5. estimate its significance

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### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

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The Taiping Rebellion which took place in the middle of the 19th century is an important land mark in modern Chinese history. It had political, economic social and religious causes. It lasted for more than a decade and had important consequences in all fields of life.

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### **5.2 CONDITIONS IN CHINA IN THE FIRST HALF OF THE 19TH CENTURY**

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In the first half of the 19th century, the Celestial Empire was confronted with many perplexing problems, arising out of contact with the Western countries. The doors of China were forcibly opened by defeating her in two wars in two decades. The Manchu Government which was

weakened and humiliated by these wars, was shaken to its foundation by the outbreak of the most serious rebellion, between 1851-1864. It broke out eight years after the Opium War, in 1850. It was an attempt to overthrow the Manchu dynasty.

By 1850, most of the foreigners in the five ports regarded the first treaty settlement as inadequate. They demanded that the Nanking Settlement should be revised.

The economic, military and social injustices arising from the rank corruption in administrative circles, were the basic causes of this rebellion. One main reason for this uprising was the scarcity of food, due to the population problem. By 1800, the population of China was probably three times as large as it had been in the beginning of the dynasty. But, the expansion of agriculture, industry and commerce could not keep pace with the growing population. This resulted in acute food shortage.

The Government was growing corrupt and inefficient. Taxes grew heavier, and the officials squeezed the people. The burden became unbearable. The great rebellion of the White Lotus Society broke out (1796-1803) in the Western provinces, which was suppressed with great slaughter. It was followed by many lesser uprisings.

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### **5.3 CAUSES OF THE REBELLION**

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Both the internal and external causes were responsible for this rebellion.

#### **5.3.1 Weakness of the Manchu rulers**

There was innate hostility between the Manchu rulers and the people of China. The Manchus were regarded as aliens. With them, they never fully reconciled. The later Manchu kings were weak, which was the root cause of the trouble. The rulers were leading a life of luxury and indifference to public welfare. At the outbreak of this rebellion, Tsien-Feng was the Emperor of China. He was not only incapable, but also unwilling to devote his time and attention to public affairs. The slogan of the Secret Societies was 'Rebel against the Manchus and restore the Ming'.

#### **5.3.2 Corruption in administration**

The administrative system in China under the Manchus was inefficient and corrupt. 'As the King, so are his subjects', was not without substance. Incompetent persons were appointed to high offices. They never reported true conditions of the people to the emperor. Imperial officials were busy in filling their pockets by bribery and illegal gains. They were unmindful of their duties towards the people and the state.

#### **5.3.3 Social and economic reasons**

The increase in population resulted in the shortage of food, which hit hard the poorer sections. This was an uprising of the poorer section of the society against the rich people. The population was rising. There was a decline of cultivation. The life of the people was one of misery and oppression. The rebels wanted to establish a new social order in the national life. They were merciless in dealing with the Manchu officials.

##### **5.3.3.1 Heavy taxation**

There were many internal disturbances. The peasants were heavily taxed. The tax burden

was increased after the Government agreed to pay war indemnity to the British, after the Opium War. At the same time there was no increase in production. They had to sell their lands to pay the debts and taxes. These landless peasants had become bandits. They were very active in the provinces.

The traders were also very much discontented, because they were not able to compete with the European traders, who dumped the China markets with new, beautiful and cheap commodities. China's trade was in shambles.

### **5.3.3.2 Floods and Famines**

South China was badly affected by floods and famine. Hardly, a year passed without floods and droughts. The hungry masses in desperation joined the bandits in large numbers spreading disorder. It appeared the state machinery would collapse by "the corruption of the ruling classes, the stagnation of national economy, the dislocation of social relations and disorder in every department of national life". The severe famines in 1840s in Kwantung and Kwangsi, left behind dreadful memories.

### **5.3.4 The First Anglo-Chinese War**

To resist the English in the First Anglo-Chinese War, the Manchu rulers engaged militia and patriotic volunteers. But, after the War, they were disbanded without confiscating the war weapons from them. These disbanded soldiers who could not find employment, joined in the rebellion with their war weapons. The Treaty of Nanking was a painful reminder of national humiliation and disgrace. The people wanted to take revenge against this.

### **5.3.5 Military weakness**

The whole military system had become shattered. The feudal lords never maintained the number of regular soldiers. At the time of inspection, they produced coolies and labourers. They were indisciplined, ill-equipped and corrupt. They used to disturb and probe the people all along their route. The military weakness of China was badly exposed, when China had to fight the European badly exposed, when China had to fight the European traders. They suffered a crushing defeat. It greatly undermined the prestige of the government.

### **5.3.6 Secret Societies**

The government was not able to maintain the law and order against the league of pirates and gangsters. They joined in secret societies which flourished in large numbers. The 'Hakka' groups which migrated from the north, were always at logger-heads with the local people. The secret societies had a common aim to overthrow the corrupt Manchu dynasty. "Small Pax Chu", the White Lotus Society, and "Heaven and Earth Society" goaded the people to revolt.

### **5.3.7 Religious Cause-Hsiu Chuan**

The leader of the revolutionary faction, Hung-Hsiu-Chuan was a Hakka. He was a native of Canton province, and the youngest and the brightest son of a farm family. Young Hung passed the local examinations, but failed repeatedly in the provincial tests. To his background of disappointment and failure, added illness, visions, and some contacts with the American Baptist missionary at Canton.

Influenced by Christianity, he founded a religious organisation known as "the Association of Good worshippers". Gradually, this organisation became political to overthrow the Manchu dynasty. The Chinese Emperor proclaimed himself as "Heavenly king", and declared his intention to found "perfect peace" (Taiping) dynasty. The followers of Hung were called long-haired rebels. They followed the policy of terror and bloodshed.

### 5.3.8 Immediate Cause

The discontent was already widespread, and the ground for the rebellion was ready. At this juncture, a group of charcoal workers who were the followers of Hung, clashed with a battalion of troops at Kwangsi. The troops attempted to get forced contribution from the workers. This incident spread like a wild fire and engulfed the country with the rebellion.

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## 5.4 COURSE OF THE REBELLION

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The Taipings captured Hanyang, Wuchang and Wuhu, and declared Nanking as the capital. They began to rule from there. It is called "Taiping-Tien-Kuo" (Heavenly Kingdom of Great Peace). They brought 18 more provinces under their possession. Hung, who called himself as Tien-Wang (messiah king), appointed a number of subordinate kings to act as local rulers. At first, they easily defeated the Manchu forces.

The rebels reached Tientsin and Peking. But, under the inspiring leadership of Tseng-Kuo-Fan and Li-Hung-Chang, the Taipings were forced to turn back. The rebellion was suppressed by 1864.

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## 5.5 TAIPING REFORMS

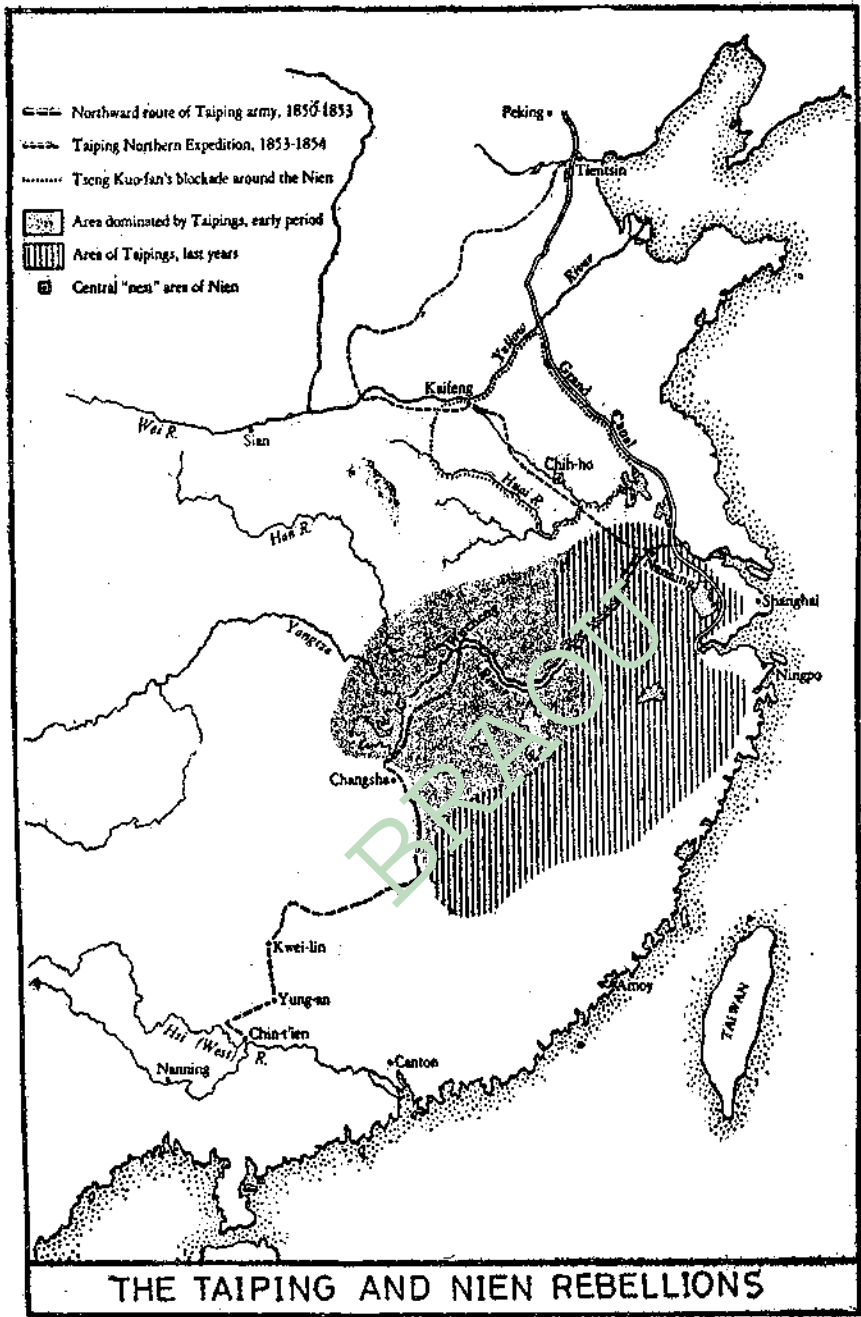
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Though the Taipings failed in the north, they consolidated their position in the south. Nanking remained the Taiping capital for eleven years. Hung maintained a court in a semi-imperial state. The Taipings established a theocratic government, the Heavenly King being the spiritual and temporal ruler. They attempted numerous reforms in the agrarian, economic, administrative and social spheres.

The three goals of the reforms were : public ownership of the land, equal allotment of surplus money and food, and self-supporting economy. The principles of collective ownership provided the foundation on which, Mao could raise the superstructure of Modern China. Women were given equal rights. They were also given land for cultivation. They could hold high offices in the government. Foot-binding, prostitution and institution of concubines and harlots were forbidden, and monogamy was established. The traditional superstitions were discarded. Hung always said : "The Empire is God's empire, not that of barbarian Manchus; the people, their clothing and their food belonged to God, rather than to the Manchus".

### Check Your Progress - I

1. What were the important economic causes for the rebellion?
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2. What were the goals of the Taiping reforms?  
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## 5.6 ATTITUDE OF THE FOREIGNERS

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In 1853-54, Shanghai, situated on the very borders of the foreign settlement, was captured by a rebel band. A rebellion so widespread as the Taiping, could not but command the attention of the foreign powers. At first, the Protestants were favourable towards the Taipings for their supposedly Christian tendencies. But, the Roman Catholics were indifferent. The foreigners were neutral in the beginning, because they thought that the Taiping rebellion was a divine scheme to open the doors of China for them. They expected that it would result in the downfall of the Manchus, and the rise of a Christian Republic in China.

But soon, the foreigners realised that the Taipings were as much anti-foreigners, as anti-Manchus. Hung compelled them to give money to him for the fulfilment of military needs. The rights granted to the foreigners under the Treaty of Nanking were negated by the Taipings. The British ambassador, Frederick Bruce wrote to his Chief that the Taipings had no interest in trade, excepting the purchase of arms and ammunition. Because of the growing fear of the Taipings, the foreigners by 1859, made common cause with the Manchus in suppressing the movement to safeguard their trade and commerce.

An alliance was formed with the Manchus against the rebels. Under the leadership of Tseng-Kuo-Fan and Li-Hung-Chang, "Ever Victorious Army" was formed. This joint military operation by the British and the French destroyed the Taiping rebels. The Heavenly King committed suicide. This ended the rebellion.

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## 5.7 CAUSES FOR THE FAILURE

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The failure of the Taiping Rebellion cannot be ascribed to a single factor.

The rebels wanted to introduce revolutionary changes in their 'Heavenly Kingdom'. But, they could not put their theories into practice correctly. Discarding the traditional Confucian ideas, and their attempt for radical restructuring of the society through nationalism and equalitarianism, alienated the entire Chinese ruling group as well as other influential classes.

After the death of Hung, there was no strong leadership. There was no discipline among the rebels, and they were ignorant of the war strategy. As a result, there were internal conflicts. The imperial forces took advantage of these differences. On the other side, Tseng-Kuo-Fan could suppress the rebellion successfully with his well-equipped and highly disciplined army. A militia of 'Hunan Braves' played a major role in checking the Taiping onslaught.

Within a short time, the people realised that the new regime was also equally bad. They

were also habituated to the prevalent Chinese corruption, nepotism, provincialism, and the old Chinese habit of conservatism and fixed ideas.

The people of China were largely the followers of Confucianism. But, Christianity was a religion of the Europeans for them. Hung preached such religious principles which were very close to Christianity. Owing to this religious element in it, the Taiping rebellion could not assume the shape of a national revolt. Many Chinese did not support the Taipings for their religious belief.

The traders at the later stage withdrew their support to the rebels. Their profits went down, and they had to pay heavy taxes as before.

The Taiping programme became destructive. Their cruelty alienated both the Chinese and the foreigners. They destroyed other religious institutions. Once the foreign powers decided to intervene, the fate of the Taipings was sealed.

The foreigners extended their support to the weak Manchu ruler, and the ruler with the support of the alien arms, crushed the rebellion. It was difficult for the Taipings to hold on for long against the combined might of foreigners and the Manchus.

The entire nation never joined in the rebellion; especially, the northern states remained aloof. Moreover, the Taipings could not understand the language of the north, as they belonged to the south.

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## **5.8 NATURE OF THE REBELLION**

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There were differences of opinion among the historians regarding the nature of the rebellion. The Western historians have called this movement, a peasant rebellion against the corrupt imperialist administration and the Chinese hatred of the Manchus.

Many others have glorified it as a democratic and progressive movement for the liberation of China from age-old conservatism and against the intolerable condition of flood, famine, over-population and mal-administration. M.N Roy says, "The character and achievements of the Taiping insurrection clearly show that it was essentially a democratic movement".

The reforms introduced by the Taiping Government were very much the same, which were subsequently preached by the Communists. Thus, this rebellion had both immediate as well as far-reaching effects on the political, economic and social life of China. It paved the way for the establishment of Kuo-Min-Tang.

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## **5.9 EFFECTS OF THE REBELLION**

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Though the rebellion was not successful, it left its imprint on the country for many years.

It destroyed the collection of revenue for many years, even after the suppression of the rebellion. The government had to collect extra taxes, like *likin* even to run the administration. The people of China were already overtaxed, and this created much discontentment in the society.

As an alternative, government raised loans from the foreign governments. Subsequently, it created many political and economic problems in the country.

During this rebellion, the imperial administration was so disorganised that it could not collect customs duties in Shanghai. As a temporary measure, a foreign service, called the Imperial Maritime Customs Service, was organised to collect customs. It remained in force upto 1920.

The rebellion completely exposed the weakness of the central authority, and its inability to carry out its primary duty of maintaining law and order in the country.

During these difficult days, there was uncertainty prevailing in the country. It hindered the industrial development. Trade and commerce also received a serious set-back.

Such widespread uprising generally precedes the end of a system of government. The governmental machinery was not able to maintain law and order. Therefore, robbery, dacoity etc., became common. It posed a serious threat to the country's unity.

This rebellion ravaged many provinces, and the loss of life is estimated between 20 and 30 millions the most destructive in the history of the world. This massacre had one beneficial effect. For a generation or two, it reduced the pressure of over-population which was China's ever-recurring curse.

The far-reaching reforms introduced by the Taipings created a profound impression on the Chinese minds. Many of these ideas were remembered, and carried into effect.

The Central Government strengthened the local armies and militia. In place of central and unified military system of the Manchus, a decentralised military system gradually came into existence.

The power of the provincial authorities was greatly increased by securing real military control as well as by the decentralisation of the army. This ultimately led to the downfall of the Manchus.

This rebellion seriously weakened the ability of the Manchus to preserve their power internally, and to protect the country against external attack.

The rebellion administered a crippling blow to the Chinese economy, for it left central and south China desolate and depopulated. The trade was disrupted, and many cities and towns were in ruins. The country emerged culturally poorer. Some of the best works of art and architecture perished in the holocaust. The temples with their priceless images of Gods and heroes were destroyed. Vandalism was committed in the name of an ideology i.e., Christianity. It was one of the reasons why Christianity failed in China. The Chinese remained hostile to the Christian faith. The three famous imperial libraries, which contained rare books and manuscripts, were destroyed. Monuments like Porcelain Pagoda at Nanking, were also destroyed. Thus, the Taiping Rebellion was an event of tremendous destruction.

### Check Your Progress - II

1. What was the attitude of the foreigners towards the Taiping rebellion?

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2. Mention the important political effects of the Taiping Rebellion

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## 5.8 LET US SUM UP

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1. Political, economic, social and religious causes brought about the Taiping rebellion, which took place between, 1851 and 1864.
2. Hung-Hsiu-Chuan, who was the important leader of the rebellion, established an association known as 'the Association of God worshippers. He styled himself as heavenly king and established the 'Heavenly kingdom of great Place'.
3. The Taiping leaders tried to introduce certain economic and social reforms.
4. The foreigners in the beginning were neutral towards the rebellion. But later they joined hands with the Manchu Government to put down the rebellion.
5. The Taiping rebellion had different Characteristics It was **religious**, democratic, political and economic in nature.
6. The Republic failed mainly because it was not properly organised and also because of the 'help of the foreigners to the Manchu Government.
7. The Rebellion weakened the manchu Government, increased its dependence on foreigners, resulted in much loss of property and destruction and in later times inspired social and political leaders.

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## 5.9 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : ANSWERS

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- I
  1. Increase of population resulting in shortage of food supplies, heavy taxation, the heavy competition to native traders from the foreigners, the disastrous effects of floods and famines were the important economic causes for the rebellion.
  2. Public ownership of land, self-supporting economy economic equality, elimination of social evils like prostitution were some of the goals of the Taiping reforms.
- II
  1. In the beginning the foreigners were neutral towards the rebellion. But in course of time they joined hands with the Manchu Government and in putting down the rebellion.
  2. Lawlessness, and political uncertainty prevailed in many parts of china due to the rebellion. The Manchu Government became weak and its dependence on foreign powers increased due to the rebellion.

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## 5.10 EXAMINATION MODEL QUESTIONS

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- I. Answer the following questions in about 30 lines each
  1. Give a short account of the causes that led to the outbreak of Taiping Rebellion.
  2. What were the causes that contributed for the failure of the Taiping Rebellion?
  3. State the effects of the Taiping Rebellion.
  4. What were the efforts of the Chinese to modernise the army, navy, communication and industries?

5. Analyse the work of the Burlingame Mission and its effects.
6. Write briefly about the events leading to the Chefoo convention and the arrangement it has brought about.

**II. Answer the following questions in about 15 lines each**

1. Describe the conditions in China in the first half of the 19th century.
2. What was the attitude of the foreigners towards the Taiping Rebellion?
3. State the nature of the Taiping Rebellion.
4. Write about the role played by Dowager Empress Tzu Hsi in the history of the Manchu dynastic rule.
5. What were the modernisation efforts carried out in the field of education?
6. State the circumstances that led to the conclusion of the Li-Fournier Convention.

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**5.11 BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING**

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1. **Clyde Paul, H** : The Far East
2. **Clyde Paul, H & Burton F. Beers** : The Far East
3. **Edured H. Seheper** : Ancient China (Life time books, New York)
4. **Immanuel C.Y. Hsu** : The Rise of Modern China
5. **M. Vinacke H.** : A History of the Far East in Modern Times
6. **Siva Kumar & Saroj Jain** : History of the Far East in Modern Times
7. **Gupta, S.R.** : History of Modern China

– Smt T. Lakshmi Tulasi

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## UNIT-6: EFFECTS AT MODERNISATION

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- 6.0 Objectives
- 6.1 Introduction
- 6.2 Dowager Empress Tzu Hsi
- 6.3 Efforts at Modernisation
  - 6.3.1 The Army and the Navy
  - 6.3.2 Education
  - 6.3.3 Law
  - 6.3.4 Industrialisation
- 6.4 Burlingam Mission
- 6.5 Chefoo Convention
- 6.6 Lifournier Convention
- 6.7 Let us sum up
- 6.8 Check Your Progress : Answers
- 6.9 Examination Model Questions
- 6.10 Books for further reading

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### 6.0 OBJECTIVES

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A study of this unit should enable you to

1. give an account of the efforts to modernise China during the second half of the 19th century;
2. estimate the significance of the Burlingam mission and to;
3. analyse the provisions of the Li Fournier and Chefoo conventions.

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### 6.1 INTRODUCTION

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The years between 1864 and 1894 were the years of the domestic peace in China. After the Taiping rebellion, some local uprisings occurred in the country. During the Anglo-Chinese War, the Emperor Hsien-Feng fled to Jehol, where he died in 1861. His concubine, Yehonala, later came to be known as the Western Empress or the Empress Dowager Tzu-Hsi, had a son, who was then fifteen years old. He was made heir apparent, and took the reign name 'Tung Chih'. Though the Regency Council was formed under Su-Shun to manage the affairs of the state during the minority of the Child-Emperor, the real power was wielded by Tzu Hsi and her few eunuchs for about 30 years. Prince Kung, brother of the late Emperor, served as a prince-counsellor in the beginning.

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### 6.2 DOWAGER EMPRESS TZU HSI

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When the Emperor Tung Chih died in 1874, without leaving any heir, a three-year old infant, known as Kuang Hsu, was placed on the throne. Though he attained maturity, the actual power of the government was under the strict control of the Empress Dowager. Till his death in 1908, the Empress remained a virtual prisoner in the hands of Tzu Hsi.

Empress Tzu Hsi played a vital role in the history of the Manchu dynastic rule in China. Her reign was very eventful. The power of Tzu hsi depended entirely on the Confucian ethics that

gave great authority to elders. Men like Tseng-Kuo-Fan, Li Hung-Chang and Tso-Tsung-Tang, strengthened the position and power of the Empress. She preserved the old order, and did not allow the reformists to be successful. Lichin-Nung wrote, "Tzu-Hsi gave rein to her passions without limit, and allowed her favourite eunuchs to participate in the Government, from 1860 onwards. The Manchu emperor became no more than a figure-head. From this time, to the end of the Ching dynasty, the real power of the central government was actually wielded by a woman and a few eunuchs".

Her fateful reign witnessed Western aggression, rivalry among the powers, growing Russian ambitions in East Asia, the new Japanese imperialism, the revolt of China against the old order, the reform movement, and natural calamities. Unruffled by these events and problems, she continued her rule in China till her death in 1908. The long period of her rule saw the death of the old order, and the fierce struggle for the birth of a new order.

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### 6.3 EFFORTS AT MODERNISATION OF CHINA

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In the new world of Western diplomacy, the educated Chinese tried a conciliatory policy with the powerful aliens, to protect their own culture. The Western impact on China was complicated by two factors—the Chinese attitude of superiority to the Western 'barbarians', and the military capacity of the West to approach the Chinese question.

From Marco Polo to Burlingame, the Westerners were of the opinion that China was bent upon mastering the fundamentals of Western civilization. The Canton crisis of 1834-1840 revealed China's original intellectual response to the West. It did not mean that China might profit by the learning from the West. Chinese tradition was self-sufficient.

In 1839 itself at Canton, Lin realised the necessity to purchase and manufacture Western armaments, hire foreign technical advisers, and train Chinese technical personnel. Later, the policy of conciliation through negotiations was adopted by the imperial Manchu clansman, Chi-Ying. It was not regarded as a concession to Western ways, or as a reform of the Chinese ways. It was a traditional procedure.

Some new type of officials were on friendly terms with the foreigners. At the same time, they were denouncing the 'barbarians' and their religion.

The first efforts at modernisation can be seen in the new Chinese institutions such as Tsungli Yamen, and the expansion of the customs service to cope more effectively with foreign affairs. Efforts were also made at rehabilitation and relief from excessive taxation.

A new leadership capable of adjusting to the aggressive West, was in command in Peking and in some of the provinces. These hopeful signs led to 'Restoration', not a revolution. It was a theory of self-strengthening—revival of good, but traditional Confucian ideas through scholar-government. In the restoration, there was no desire to create a new society.

One of the famous propounders of modernisation was, Feng-Kuei-Fen, a SooChow Scholar. He possessed a cosmopolitan interest in modern scientific knowledge. He knew many foreigners. Along with Tseng-Kuo-Fan and Hi-Hung-Chang, he opened a school of Western Languages and Sciences at Shanghai. He expounded that Western languages and sciences must be learnt to supplement the Chinese knowledge within the technical limits.

### **6.3.1 The Army and Navy**

The Western "Know-how" theory of Feng-Kuei-Fen was shared by Tseng-Kuo-Fan and Li-Hung-Chang, who encouraged the use of Western weapons. Tseng never refuted the Confucian ideal. His formula was only to adjust with the foreigners, and Confucian virtue. In 1863, Li-Hung-Chang said "if only China had two items, guns with explosive shells, and steam ships, the Westerners would immediately behave themselves". Subsequently, as a result of their efforts, several defence establishments were inaugurated from 1865 to 1888. A machine factory at Tientsin, a ship-yard at Foochow, a Naval Academy, Military Academy, Steam Navigation Company and an organisation of the China merchants at Tientsin, were established. The students from the Naval Academy were sent to use of modern weapons. The Navy 'Yamen' was created exclusively to promote naval interest. Tso-Tsung-Feng was the architect of the Foo-chow shipyard on Western lines.

### **6.3.2 Education**

The Chinese educational system was also reformed as a result of her contact with the West. There was a dramatic break in the traditional educational system. A language school, Tung-Wen-Kuan was opened at Peking. The young and brilliant men from Hanlin Academy were selected to study foreign languages, astronomy, mathematics, science, engineering and ship-building. Prince Kung opined that Science was the secret of Western strength. To imbibe Western science and knowledge, Chinese students went to various Western countries. Yung Wing was the first Chinese graduate from the American Yale University. An institute to train interpreters between China and Western countries, was set up at Peking; foreign nationals were appointed to impart education in China. Some language schools were also opened at Shanghai, Canton and Foochow. Thus, education built cultural bridges across China and the West, through which came the ideas of modernisation, liberty and equality. Tao's formula was to learn from the 'barbarians', but not to rely on them.

### **6.3.3 Law**

China made some efforts to learn Western international Law, not because the Western law in itself was good or superior to the Chinese law, but because the Chinese might use it to confound the 'barbarians' with their own rules.

### **6.3.4 Industrialisation**

The Chinese leadership felt that the idea of the use of Western arms and armaments, must be replaced by the manufacture of arms through proper industrialisation. In 1872, China Merchant Steam Navigation Company was established. The Company opened the Kaiping Coal mines near Tientsin. It also stressed the necessity for the railroad construction for the transportation of coal.

A great variety of industrial enterprises were planned, and some were actually established between 1863 and 1890. These included the technical schools, arsenals, shipyards, machine factories, Western style of fortification, coal, and iron mines, a steam company, a telegraph line from Taku to Tientsin, plans for a navy and naval school, the construction of railroads, and a dockyard, and the establishment of textile mills. But, on the whole, the movement towards industrialisation was slow and ineffective.

### Check Your Progress - I

1. Who were the prominent Chinese who advocated the westernisation of China?

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2. Explain the early efforts at industrialisation of China.

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### 6.4 BURLINGAME MISSION, 1867

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After 1860, the Chinese relations with the Western powers were improved to some extent. The Europeans also followed a policy of mutual cooperation among themselves. Mr. Anson Burlingame, the representative of the U.S.A., was responsible for it. According to him, the cooperation among the treaty powers could preserve the integrity of China, and would also serve their interests well.

The cooperative policy stood for the united diplomatic activity that forced China to observe the treaty terms. It also prevented the powers from taking individual advantage of the weakness of China. This was to the advantage of the U.S.A., which was unable to intervene in Chinese affairs due to the Civil War in the country.

The Western powers in China posted their envoys at Peking, and in turn, China also sent her representatives abroad to present her problems before them.

In 1867 when Mr. Burlingame retired from Peking, he was requested by the Manchu government to lead a Chinese mission to the West. Accordingly, a Chinese mission headed by Mr. Burlingame visited different countries.

Burlingame first went to his mother country, the U.S.A., and had talks with the Secretary of State, Mr. Seward. As a result, an agreement called the Seward-Burlingame Treaty was concluded between China and America. The terms of the agreement were:

1. China would keep her representative of trade in U.S. ports.
2. She would offer religious freedom to the citizens of other countries staying in China.
3. The missionaries would be given full freedom.
4. The Chinese and the Americans would enjoy equal travel and settlement rights in their respective countries.
5. America would not interfere in the internal affairs of China.
6. Chinese labourers would be allowed to migrate to U.S.A. to work in its industries.

From the U.S.A., Burlingame visited England, France, Germany, Russia and some other countries of Europe. He suddenly died at St. Petersburg. Burlingame was over-optimistic about the mission. It did some good to the Chinese cause. He got the assurance of the British government also in this regard. Though Burlingame was criticised by the Westerners, he was applauded by the Chinese as the preserver of the integrity of China.

In practice, the treaty was a failure. It was primarily because, the Chinese labourers migrated to the U.S.A. in large numbers for livelihood. In the beginning, America in grave need of labour to work in their industries, welcomed them. There was also a brisk coolie trade. The labourers were loaded into ships under inhuman conditions. Hence, the number of Chinese labour in America went on increasing. As their number increased, the resentment against the labourers also increased in America, which became widespread. They were assaulted, and sometimes murdered.

Later, the American government was compelled to take some action to prevent it. To lessen the severe burden of Chinese labour on American economy, the government enacted a law. This act curtailed the number of Chinese labour to 15 in each ship. China concluded a fresh treaty by which, the government of America was empowered to regulate the entry of labour traffic into her country. Thus, the agreement was short-lived.

China established embassies in Germany, France, Russia and America. This ended her age-long policy of seclusion, and she became a regular member of the family of Nations.

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## 6.5 CHEFOO CONVENTION : 1876

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During the years 1864-94, China had to establish diplomatic relations with the Western countries. But, China was kept under constant pressure by Western powers, for getting more and more privileges and concessions. They tried to open new ports for trade, and also wanted to have extensive, extra-territorial rights in China. They wanted to acquire, if possible, a part of Chinese dependencies. The constant clash between the foreign powers and China, had thrown China into a difficult situation. Whenever any unfortunate incident occurred, they took advantage of it, and forced China to concede to their further privileges. Thus, China was a helpless victim of the imperialists. It started the trimming of the fringes of the Celestial Empire.

By the toleration clause of the Tientsin Treaties of 1858, the Christian missionaries obtained a legal status inside the Chinese Empire. The activities of the missionaries were so awful that they were very much resented by the Chinese. They were suspicious of Christianity which had conflicts with the fundamental concepts of Chinese social and religious life. This distrust led the masses to attack the lives and properties of the missionaries. The enraged Chinese mob attacked and destroyed a Roman Catholic orphanage, and killed some foreigners including the French Consul.

For a long time, the foreign traders were exploring the possibilities of reaching the Western provinces of China, by a land route through upper Burma. In this attempt, Great Britain took the initiative. She sent the first mission which reached the Upper Irrawaddy region. The second expedition to Yunan was organized under H.A. Brown.

Later, under Mr. Augustus Raymond Margary, a fact-finding mission about safe travel was sent to Yunan. The five Chinese associates of this mission, together with Mr. Margary, were murdered in 1876, with the knowledge of the Chinese government. It was difficult to say who was responsible for this murder.

This unfortunate incident gave an opportunity to Britain, to exploit it to her advantage. She declared this murder as a great diplomatic offence, and demanded adequate explanation and compensation. The British Minister at Peking, Mr. Wade demanded the setting up of a Commission of enquiry, with a British representative in it.

The enraged British armies once again appeared in China. The Government of China thought it most appropriate to come to terms, rather than to fight with Britain. Therefore, a treaty was concluded at Chefoo on September 13, 1876. By the Chefoo Convention:

1. China paid an indemnity of 2,00,000 taels to Britain;
2. China agreed to send a mission of apology to London;
3. A code of procedure was to be evolved to ensure proper treatment of foreign representatives at Peking and other treaty ports; and
4. Six new ports along with better trade facilities were opened to Britain.

China thus lost much by this Convention. The British influence in China increased. France's advance in South-East Asia alarmed Great Britain. So, to make secure India's eastern frontier, Britain occupied Burma, the vassal state of China in 1886. China recognised the British annexation of Burma, and lost another of her dependencies.

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#### **6.6 LI-FOURNIER CONVENTION : 1884**

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Annam (Vietnam) had been a vassal state and an integral part of China, since 1427. But, France was showing interest in Annam. After the Treaty of Tientsin, the French ambition was turned towards Annam, Tongking and the South-Western provinces of China.

France established a protectorate over Cambodia, and forced Annam to cede some provinces of Cochin-China to her. Thus, she obtained full sovereign right over Cochin-China, the right of trade through Tongking to Yunan, extraterritorial rights and many other privileges from Annam.

China did not like the rapid French advance. She tried to reassert her authority by blocking the Red-river route. This led to a clash between the Chinese and the French troops on the borders of Annam and Tongking. China realised that she was no match to the French, and started negotiations.

On behalf of China, Li-Hung-Chang signed a treaty with the French commandant, Li-Fournier. The Li-Fournier Convention recognised the Chinese supremacy over the South-Western border of the country. She withdrew her troops from that territory. China in turn agreed to recognise the French protectorate over Annam.

When the French Government demanded an indemnity of 250 million francs, China refused, and an undeclared war followed. The French army suffered defeats in Longson, and signed a treaty in Tientsin in 1885. This treaty ratified the Li-Fournier Convention. The indemnity was waived and the Pescadores returned to China.

#### **Check Your Progress - II**

1. What is the significance of the Burlingame mission?

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- .....
2. Which vassal state did China lose to Britain by the Chefoo convention?
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- .....
- .....
- .....

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### 6.7 LET US SUM UP

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1. Efforts for modernisation of China in the second half of the 19th century were directed towards modernisation of army and navy, introduction of western education including study of western law and industrialisation.
2. The Burlingame mission of 1867 resulted in a treaty between China and America, which permitted the migration of Chinese labourers to U.S.A. and allowed freedom to the Americans in China for religious propagation and for trade.
3. China lost much to Britain by the Chefoo convention which was signed by China with Britain in 1876. China agreed to pay huge indemnity and open 6 new ports to Britain.
4. The Lioufournier convention was signed in 1884 between the French and the Chinese. By that China agreed to recognise the French protectorate over Annam and in return the French recognised Chinese supremacy over the south western border of China.

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### 6.8 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : ANSWERS

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- I.
  1. Feng-Kuci-Fen and Tseng-Kuo Fon, the scholars of China were the prominent supporters of westernisation.
  2. Early industrialisation efforts in China were directed towards manufacture of arms required for China, in their own country. The Chinese merchants steam Navigation company established in 1872 did pioneering work in China in the field of industrialisation.
- II.
  1. The Burlingame mission is important because it helped China in having diplomatic relations and tried to get the co-operation of the treaty powers for the preservation of the integrity of China.
  2. Burma.

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### 6.9 EXAMINATION MODEL QUESTIONS

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- I. Answer the following questions in about 30 lines each.
  1. What were the efforts of the Chinese to modernise the army, navy communication and industries?
  2. Analyse the work of the Burlingame Mission and its effects.

3. Write briefly about the events leading to the Chefoo convention and the arrangement it has brought about.

**II. Answer the following questions in about 15 lines each.**

1. Write about the role played by the Dowager Empress Tzu Hsi in the history of the Manchu dynastic rule.
2. What were the modernisation efforts carried out in the field of education?
3. State the circumstances that led to the conclusion of the Li-Fournier Convention.

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**6.10 BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING**

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1. Chatterjee : Modern China-Short History
2. Claude & Buss : The Far East
3. Clyde & Beers : The Far East
4. Crafts & Buchanan : The Far East
5. Latourette : A History of the Far East
6. K.M. Panikkar : Asia & Western Dominance
7. Shiv Kumar & S. Jain : History of Modern China
8. Vinacke, H.M. : A History of the Far East in Modern Times.

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## UNIT-7 : SINO-JAPANESE WAR, 1895

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- 7.0 Objectives
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- 7.2 Formal Relations between China and Japan:  
Clash in Loochoo islands
- 7.3 Causes of the war
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  - 7.3.3 Li-Ito convention
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  - 7.3.5 Economic interest of Japan
  - 7.3.6 Internal disorder in china
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- 7.6 Effects of the war
- 7.7 Let us sum Up
- 7.8 Check your progress : Answers
- 7.9 Examination model questions
- 7.10 Books for further reading

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### 7.0 OBJECTIVES

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A study of this unit should enable you

- 1 To explain the causes for the sino-japanese war of 1895
- 2 Narrate the course of the war and
- 3 Analyse the results of the war including the provisions of the treaty of shimonoseki, 1895.

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### 7.1 INTRODUCTION

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The relations between China and Japan upto 1895 veered around Korea. The bone of contention between China and Japan was Korea. The conflict for the sake of Korea ultimately resulted in a war. It was something like a clash between a 'giant and a dwarf'.

From the beginning, China was a powerful country. She regarded Japan as a vassal state, and much inferior to her. But, the situation completely changed in the second half of the 19th century, when Japan began to consolidate her position. After overcoming her internal difficulties, Japan started to aggrandize at the expense of China. The self confident Japan tried to secure a privileged position in China like the Western powers. Thus, Japan after Meiji Restoration set her house in order through an overall measure of reforms, and learnt Western methods, and took advantage of them.

On the other hand, the Chinese Empire was trimmed considerably, and there was utter disorder in the country. She was not responsive to Western techniques and methods of war. Following the policy of isolation, China fell a victim to Western imperialism.

The Chinese were however unwilling to give Japan the most favoured nation treatment, and the right to the Japanese to travel freely in China.

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## **7.2 FORMAL RELATIONS BETWEEN CHINA AND JAPAN : CLASH IN LOOCHOO ISLANDS**

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In the beginning, the Chinese were unwilling to have commercial relations with Japan. But, Japan sent a mission to China to establish friendly and trading relations with her. After some negotiations, a treaty was concluded at Tientsin in 1871. This treaty provided reciprocal extraterritorial rights to China and Japan. On account of Japan's ambition to play an aggressive role in China on the lines of the Western imperialists, relations between China and Japan were strained.

The first conflict between China and Japan started over Loochoo islands in 1874. Some ship-wrecked inhabitants of Loochoo were killed on the coast off Formosa. Japan declaring her overlordship over these islands, demanded compensation from China for their death. Protesting against the claim of Japan over the islands, China asked Japan to hand over the islands to her. Ambitious Japan sent an army against China. But, the timely intervention of Great Britain averted hostilities. Sir Thomas Wade, the British representative settled the dispute, and an agreement was concluded. China agreed to pay some compensation to Japan. It confirmed that the Loochoo islands belonged to Japan.

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## **7.3 CAUSES OF THE WAR**

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The real cause for the conflict between the two countries was over Korea-the hermit kingdom.

### **7.3.1 Korea - 'Land of Morning Calm'**

Geographically, the peninsula of Korea is situated between China and Japan. It is separated from Manchuria by the Yalu river. South Eastern Korea projects into the sea, approaching Japan. Due to this geographical position, Korea had been in contact with China for more than twelve centuries. Thus, her threads of history were interwoven with those of her immediate neighbours-China and Japan.

Korea has a long history of ancient civilization. It was called hermit kingdom. In a world full of hostilities, it was not possible for a hermit kingdom to maintain her independence for long. Korea had to accept the suzerainty of China, and paid tribute to China.

### **7.3.2 Japan's motives**

Japan was interested in Korea mainly for three reasons :

1. Russia established a big naval station at Vladivostok, north of the Korean border. Japan was afraid that it would become a spring board for an attack upon it. To prevent that, Japan wanted to have control over Korea.

2. After the Restoration of the Meiji Emperor, Japan had become ambitious. She wanted to become an imperialist country. Japan had dreamt of an Empire. To realise the imperialist ambitions, Japanese rulers wanted Korea.

3. To adjust her increasing population, Japan considered Korea an outlet. Korea was also seen as a good commercial market for Japanese goods. Thus, Japan had economic motives also

in Korea.

But, in the latter half of the 19th century, the growing interest of Russia in Korea alarmed the Japanese. Russia wanted to establish her supremacy in Korea. She consolidated her position in Anus Valley, which further increased Japan's concern over Korea. Thus, Japan, China and Russia had designs over Korea.

Japan would not mind an independent Korea. But, Korea under the domination of a strong power like Russia, was a potential danger, and would threaten the integrity and peace of Japan. It was like a 'pistol pointed at the heart of Japan'.

Gradually, Korea slipped out of China due to her non-interference policy, in her internal affairs. Taking advantage of this nominal control of China, Japan concluded the Treaty of Kingwa with Korea in 1876. By this Treaty, Japan received free port and extra-territorial rights in Korea. In this Treaty, Korea was specifically mentioned as an independent sovereign state.

Realising Japan's ambition over Korea, the Viceroy Li-Hung-Chang of Tientsin advised the Korean king to conclude treaties with the Western countries to combat Japanese intrigues. Korea entered into a series of agreements with some Western powers. This new development was not liked by Japan. To realise her aims, she began to create disorder in the country. At the same time, China sent Yuan-Shi-Kai to tighten her authority over Korea. He was also successful in spreading anti-Japanese feeling.

The enraged Japanese in Korea used the progressives in Korea as instruments to propagate her objectives. But, the old order led by Taiwunkun resisted it. Japan tried to create trouble in the country. The situation had become so serious that both China and Japan were prepared for an armed clash. But, neither Japan nor China was ready to be involved in a war for the sake of Korea.

### **7.3.3 Li-Ito Convention**

Count Ito, the famous Japanese statesman, went to Peking to sign on the Li-Ito Convention in 1885. By this Treaty, both the countries agreed to withdraw their armies from Korea within four months.

They also agreed not to interfere in the internal affairs of Korea, without prior intimation to each other. This Convention reduced the control of China over Korea.

### **7.3.4 Russian demand of Lazaroff and Trans-Siberian Railway**

In the decade following the Convention, the relations between China and Japan became increasingly strained, and the war clouds began to gather.

Russia demanded port Lazaroff from Korea as a compensation for her military aid, as that would provide Russia with an ice-free naval base. Russia had already constructed the Trans-Siberian railway line. Japan considered all this as a serious threat to her security.

### **7.3.5 Economic Interest of Japan**

Korea was a surplus rice-producing country. As her requirements increased gradually, she put a ban on rice export. Japan was in need of food to meet the requirements of her growing population. She also developed shipping and trade interests in Korea, by controlling 40% of her

imports. Hence, Japan desired to bring Korea under her sphere of influence.

### 7.3.6 Internal disorder in China and Japan

The doctrine of continental expansion was preached as a part of Meiji Restoration programme. The leaders like Prince Yamagata and Count Ito, reiterated the necessity to strengthen Japan at home before undertaking any continental adventure.

In the political arena, Count Ito as Prime Minister had become so unpopular that he tried to divert the attention of the opposition to some other direction, if possible, even by involving Japan in a foreign war.

China, already a great loser, was not prepared to give up her legitimate rights over Korea. Li-Hung-Chang was also interested in a war to maintain his position and prestige in the court. The Li-Ito Treaty created dissatisfaction in both the countries. To make it null and void, war had become inevitable.

On account of the scramble for power between the Western countries, Japan hastily endeavoured to increase her control over Korea.

### 7.3.7 Immediate cause : Tonghak Rebellion

The immediate cause of the Sino-Japanese War was the outbreak of an uprising in Korea, called Tonghak Rebellion. It was a religious movement, and conservative in nature. Later, it took a political turn. It demanded that corrupt officials should be sacked. The murder of the arch-rebel, Kim-Ok-Kuin added further fuel to the fire. Japan felt that the political turmoil in the country was a danger to the internal conditions of Korea, and also the bordering states. Further, this state of unrest in Korea directly invited continuous interference in Korea, of powers stronger than Japan and China.

The Rebellion was so violent that the Korean Government was not able to suppress it, and solicited Chinese aid. At her request, China sent her armies to Korea as per the terms of Li-Ito Treaty, and Japan also sent her armies. Before the two armies reached Korea, the Revolt was crushed. The Korean Government asked for the withdrawal of both the armies. But, they could not reach an agreement regarding the withdrawal. Japan insisted that the Korean Government should introduce some reforms, but failed to convince China.

#### Check Your Progress - I

1. Why was Japan interested in establishing her hegemony over Korea?

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2. What were the points of agreement between Japan and China in the to convention.

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## **7.4 COURSE OF THE WAR : DEFEAT OF CHINA**

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On July 23rd Japanese troops suddenly entered Seoul, and seized the king in the palace, and forced a treaty on him, authorising Japanese troops to expel the Chinese from the country. Thus, the Sino-Japanese War had begun.

Japan occupied Seoul. She defeated the Chinese army in the battle of Pyongyang. The road to Manchuria across the Yalu river was opened. Both from land and sea; a combined attack was made on the naval base of China, at Port Arthur. The Chinese fleet was destroyed. Admiral Ting committed suicide because of intolerable humiliation.

The people of south Yangtze river did not cooperate with Li-Hung-Chang, as they considered the War as a private affair of Li. They refused to participate in the struggle. Li expected foreign intervention. The proposal of Great Britain to join hands with her in intervening to restore peace, was refused by the U.S.A. and Germany.

At this juncture of the Japanese invasion into China proper, the Manchu Government sued for peace. Accordingly, Li-Hung-Chang was sent to Japan to conclude a peace treaty with her. The Treaty of Shimonoseki which ended the War, was signed on 17th April, 1895.

The result of the War made the entire world spell-bound. China had inexhaustible manpower and vast resources; but, she was hopelessly defeated by Japan. Japan's well-trained fighting forces, her modernised war weapons, her valiant leadership, both on land and sea, and her strategy and tactics, made her a tremendous success over China.

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## **7.5 PROVISIONS OF THE TREATY OF SHIMONOSEKI-1895**

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Shimonoseki is Japan's port of entry, opposite Korea. Victorious Japan played a leading role in dictating terms. It contained the following main provisions:

1. China recognised the complete independence of Korea.
2. China surrendered Formosa, Pescadores and Liaotung peninsula in Southern Manchuria, together with Port Arthur to Japan.
3. A heavy war indemnity of 200 million taels was to be paid to Japan by China, and Weihaiwai was to be under the Japanese until this indemnity was paid.
4. China agreed to open for foreign trade, four new ports-Shansi, Chungking, Soochow and Hangchow.
5. The Treaty nullified the previous treaties between China and Japan.
6. China extended extra-territorial rights and the most-favoured nation treatment to Japan.
7. Japan got the freedom to carry on trade and industry in all the trading ports of China.
8. The Japanese commodities manufactured in China, were exempted from all taxes.
9. It was also agreed that Japan could ship all kinds of machines freely to China, after paying customs duty.

Ceding Liaotung Peninsula to Japan was the most humiliating article in the Treaty. It is like a pistol pointed towards Peking. It is only 200 miles away from Manchuria, threatening the home of the ruling family and brought a foreign power very close to Peking itself.

China was the loser in the War, and it was threatened with partition. France and Germany compelled Japan to give up Liaotung in return for an additional indemnity from China, on the plea that her possession of the Peninsula would be a menace to peace in the Far East. This caused great resentment in Japan.

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## 7.6 EFFECTS OF THE WAR

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The Sino-Japanese War and the Treaty of Shimonoseki opened a new chapter in the history of the Far East.

The result of the War exhibited the weakness of China. It had a disintegrating effect on China. It shook the very foundation of the Manchu dynasty. The rulers became unpopular, and could not defend the country against even tiny Japan.

The Chinese relations even with their Far Eastern neighbours were guided by the Western concepts of treaties and international law, after the War. The Chinese seriously thought that the Western war techniques, modern equipment and method of war should be introduced to strengthen their country once again, and also to maintain her independence as a sovereign state.

The loss of Korea and Pescadores to Japan further trimmed the fringes of the Celestial Empire.

The victory gave new vigour and indomitable confidence to Japan. The modern war techniques and nation's determination was the root cause of her success in the war against Japan.

Japan utilised the war indemnity paid by China exclusively for increasing her military and naval strength. As a result, within the next few years, Japan became a predominant country in naval power, and defeated even the Russian fleet.

The war indemnity hastened China's national bankruptcy, and compelled her to beg foreigners to raise the money required by her.

The Treaty started a fresh conflict in Japan between the diplomats and the militarists. The army had brought honour to the country. But, what the army had gained by occupying Liaotung, the diplomats had to surrender under diplomatic pressure from Russia, France and Germany. In this way, the Government was defeated at the diplomatic level. This was responsible for the rise of militarists in Japan.

The first victory of Japan led to the formation of an alliance between an Oriental country-Japan, and an Occidental country-England. The loss of Liaotung Peninsula to Russia by this triple intervention of Russia, France and Germany shattered the relations between Russia and Japan.

The rise of Japan put a check on the aggressive activities of European powers. The Western powers realised that a new star had risen on the political horizon of the East, which would challenge their authority in Asia.

The Japanese strength was acknowledged by the Western powers. It was proved within ten years when she faced mighty Russia. The War increased national and international prestige of Japan. It enabled Japan to sit in equal status with the powerful European countries to settle

the international issues. "The War marked the reception of Japan as an adult member of the Society of Nations".

Till this historic event, the world had wholesome respect for the potential, if not the actual power of China. No nation had dared to wake up the "sleeping dragon". The "largest, oldest and the most populous country in the world" was exposed to such humiliation by an Asian nation, the Japanese-the "renegades", the 'dwarfs' she despised. Kang-Yu-Wei described his country as the 'sick man of Asia'. She had become another Africa for partition among the Europeans. But, China escaped the fate of Africa. With this War, the East Asia became linked to European politics.

### Check Your Progress - II

1. What were the important causes for the success of Japan against china?

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2. How was china politically affected by her failure in the war?

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### 7.7 LET US SUM UP

1. The bone of contention between China and Japan was korea. The Sino-Japanese war in 1895 broke out due to the conflict between the two countries over the issue of hegemony over korea.
2. The surprise victory of Japan over china due to her possession of modern weapons.
3. By the treaty of Shimonoseki a) China surrendered formosa, pescadores and litung Pennsula with port Anthur to Japan.
  - a) Korea's independence was recognised
  - b) Japan was allowed to carry on trade in all trading ports of china and was granted most-favoured nation treatment.
4. The war had disastrous political and economic effects on china.

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### 7.8 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : ANSWERS

- I 1. Japan was interested in establishing her hegemony over korea.
  - a. to prevent Russian aggression over Japan
  - b. to realize her imperialist ambitions and

- c. to provide an outlet for the excessive population in Japan.
2. By the its convention Japan and china agree to
  - a. withdraw their armies from korea with four months
  - b. not to interfere in teh internal affairs of korea without mutual agreement.
- II 1. Japan was successful in the war because of her modern weapons, and superior military strategy.
2. China became politically weak and the 'sick man of Asia' as a result of her failure. The threat of partitioning of china among European powers and Japan became real due to china's defeat.

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### 7.9 EXAMINATION MODEL QUESTIONS

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- I. Answer the following questions in 30 lines each.
  1. Discuss the Sino-Japanese relations before the Sino-Japanese War f 1895.
  2. Narrate briefly the causes of the Sino-Japanese War of 1895.
  3. What were the effects of the Sino-Japanese War of 1895.
- II. Answer the following questions in about 15 lines each.
  1. Why was Japan interested in Korea?
  2. Write about the immediate cause that led to the Sino-Japanese War of 1895.
  3. Trace the course of Sino-Japanese War of 1895.
  4. Bring out the provisions of the Treaty of Shimonoseki.

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### 7.10 BOOK FOR FURTHER READING

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- |                         |   |   |
|-------------------------|---|---|
| 1. Chatterjee           | : | Modern China-Short History                |
| 2. Claude & Bids        | : | The Far East                              |
| 3. Clyde & Beers        | : | The Far East                              |
| 4. Crofts & Buchanan    | : | The Far East                              |
| 5. Latourette           | : | A History of the Far East                 |
| 6. Panikkar K.M.        | : | Asia & Western Dominance                  |
| 7. Shiv Kumar & S. Jain | : | History of Modern China                   |
| 8. Vinacke, H.M.        | : | A History of the Far East in Modern Times |

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## **UNIT-8 : CONCESSIONS AND SPHERES OF INFLUENCE**

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- 8.0 Objectives
- 8.1 Introduction
- 8.2 Impact of the Sino-Japanese War
- 8.3 Battle of Concessions
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- 8.4 Spheres of Influence
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- 8.6 The Open Door Policy, 1899
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- 8.8 Results and Impact of Open Door
- 8.9 Let us sum up
- 8.10 Check Your Progress : Answers
- 8.11 Examination Model Questions
- 8.12 Books for Further Reading

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### **8.0 OBJECTIVES**

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A study of this unit should be enable you to

1. Explain the meaning of 'battle of concessions' and to give an account of the concessions gained by the European powers in China, as a result of the 'battle of concessions'.
2. Analyse the implications and impact of the 'open door' policy.

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### **8.1 INTRODUCTION**

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This unit explains how the Western powers exploited China by getting major concessions and spheres of influence. In an attempt to protect her own interests and also to maintain the independence and integrity of China, United States of America proclaimed the "Doctrine of Open Door". That doctrine is also explained in this unit.

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### **8.2 IMPACT OF THE SINO-JAPANESE WAR**

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The defeat of China in the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-95 marked the reversal in the relative positions of China and Japan in the Far East. Before the War, the Western nations respected the potential, if not the actual power of China. After the War, scant respect was paid to the Chinese.

By the Treaty of Shimonoseki, China had to pay a huge war indemnity to Japan. The prevailing corruption and mis-government had emptied her exchequer. She had to borrow from abroad to meet her obligation. This further deteriorated her position, and started a new trend of foreign control over her finances.

The Sino-Japanese War of 1894-95 had far reaching effects on the history of the Far East. It led to: 1) the new Japanese imperialism; 2) the revolt of the people of China against the old order; 3) the Russian ambition in Far East; 4) the Western aggression; 5) the rivalry among the European powers; and 6) the attempt of the Western powers to substitute cooperation for competition.

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## 8.2 BATTLE OF CONCESSIONS

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### 8.2.1 Concessions to Russia

Russia got permission for the construction of the trans-Siberian Railway, for advancing a loan to China, and also the right to build the Chinese Eastern Railway across Manchuria. For payment of war indemnity to Japan, Russia was permitted to establish a Russo-Japanese Bank in China. She also received some mining facilities in China. The Treaty of Aigun gave Russia all the territory on the northern bank of Amur river. By 1860, she got trans-Ussuri territory. The Mongolian frontier was opened to her traders. She founded the fortress of Vladivostok. The project of trans-Siberian railway marked the beginning of the policy of "peaceful penetration of China".

### 8.2.2 Concessions to France

Both Russia and France used the financial troubles of China to their own advantage. The "battle of concessions" was immediately started by France. The boundaries between the French-occupied Tonkin and China, were altered in favour of France. She was also granted the right to extend the railways from French Indo-China into Yunan. She got Kwang-Chou on 99 year's lease. China also agreed not to lease out Hawaii to any other foreign power. She secured the right to exploit coal mines of Yunan, Kwangsi and Kwangtung.

### 8.2.3 Concessions to Germany

The battle of concessions was initially inaugurated by France in 1845, but it was vigorously taken up, and carried on by Germany and Russia. Under William II, Germany demanded "a place in the Sun". She was anxious to obtain a foothold in China. Her two partners in the Triple Intervention were advancing into China, which greatly alarmed Germany.

The murder of two German missionaries in Shantung was an occasion for her to interfere. She obtained for 99 years, lease of Tsingtao, Kiao-Chou harbour as compensation, and got full jurisdiction within the leased territory. She also got the right of free passage for her armies in the neutral zone. She received large commercial and financial privileges, like the right to construct railway lines in Shantung, and being allowed to take out coal from the mines within ten miles of Shantung. The enormous extension of Germany's power further endangered the integrity and sovereignty of China.

### 8.2.4 Britain's Concessions

England demanded the lease of Weihaiwei as long as Russia kept port Arthur under her control. China extended the lease on the mainland opposite to Hongkong. China also promised that the territories bordering Yangtse river would not be alienated to any other country. China agreed to revise her Burmese boundaries. She also **Promised** that an Englishman would be the Inspector-General of the Marine Customs as long as **British supremacy was Maintained in China**

### 8.2.5 Concession to Japan

Japan, in turn, asked for an agreement for not alienating to any other power, Fukien province, which lies opposite to Formosa.

### 8.2.6 Italy's Unsuccessful Attempt

The slicing of the Chinese melon brought a newcomer upon the scene. In 1899, even a weak country like Italy also claimed a naval base in Chakiang on Sanmer bay which was refused by China.

Belgium received the privilege of constructing the Peking-Hankow railway line.

Thus, the Western penetration into China was not limited to acquisition of lease-holds and declaration of non-alienation. These started the competition to invest for the construction of railroads in China, which would provide some economic, financial and military authority to the powers.

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## 8.4 SPHERES OF INFLUENCE

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The helpless Chinese Government felt that their country was about to be 'carved like a melon'. She was forced to agree not to alienate certain parts of the country. It was the beginning of the process for the partition of China among the foreign powers. By the declarations of non-alienation and the lease-holds, France got Tonking, Britain obtained Yangtse Valley, Japan secured Fukien, Russia got Manchuria, Mongolia and Chinese Turkestan, and Germany got Shantung. These leased territories differed from the earlier 'settlements', and were more in the nature of 'colonies'.

This segregation of certain areas into 'spheres of special interest', later led to the theory of "spheres of influence". It was nothing but the first step towards the partitioning of the country among the powers. In their respective "spheres of influence", the different powers enjoyed special financial and other privileges. They exercised a certain degree of political control within a territory. The establishment of such rights on a firm basis could lead to the assertion of a "protectorate", by gradual enlargement of the powers of control.

Thus, by obtaining vast concessions, the European countries encroached upon the interior areas of China. But, once the foreign powers established the 'spheres of influence', they agreed not to compete for concessions in others' spheres. The powers also cooperated with each other to safeguard their interests at the later stage. In Szechuan and Yunan, both France and Britain agreed to share the privileges. The railway and mining concessions carried economic imperialism into the heart of China. The Christian missionary activities proved to be cultural imperialism.

China lost her forts. She had no good army. Her trade and tariffs were also not under her control. The Chinese were threatened by the Western financial imperialism, and were depending upon these powers for establishing their economy. Thus, as in Africa, the ground was prepared for the partition of China. Dr. Sun-Yat-Sen cried that "China is not the colony of one nation, but of all".

This process of parcelling out of China into so many spheres of influence has been described by Vinacke as "Cutting the Chinese Melon". But, China was not partitioned on account of certain developments at that time. They were : (1) the 'Open Door' Doctrine; (2) the Boxer Uprising; and (3) the anglo-Japanese Alliance of 1902. They saved China from partition. Moreover, the

European powers could not altogether forget the potential strength of the Chinese dragon.

### Check Your Progress - I

1. What is meant by the 'battle of concessions'?

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2. What were the 'Spheres of influence'?

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## 8.5 INTERESTS OF UNITED STATES OF AMERICA IN CHINA

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At the time of the opening of China, United States was the second trading power at the port of Canton, and stood only behind Britain. After the American Civil War, she concentrated on domestic development. She could not devote much time and energy to the outside world. By the nineties, the industrial progress in the country became so rapid that Americans felt the need for extensive foreign markets.

When there was a scramble for concessions in China, U.S.A. could not play an active role, because she was then busy in a war with Spain. After the War, she began to take a tremendous interest in the Chinese affairs. She tried to obtain some rights in China like the other European powers.

But, America was not interested in acquiring territories in China. She also realised that the European powers were interested in the partition of China which she did not like. The broad interest of U.S.A. was to preserve China's territorial integrity.

The presence of American army in Phippines after its annexation, enabled America to play an active role in China. She did not like to establish spheres of influence, as the richest territories were already grabbed by the European powers.

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## THE OPEN DOOR POLICY, 1899

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To safeguard her interests without infringing the interests of other countries, and also to enjoy equal opportunities, America wanted to find effective methods.

The then Secretary of State, Mr. John Hay enunciated a policy, known as "Hay's Doctrine", or "Doctrine of Open Door Policy" in 1899. This policy had its origin in the "most-favoured nation" clause. Since then, U.S.A. and Great Britain had been insisting in China on equal

opportunities of trade.

Like the Munroe Doctrine, it was outlined in the British Office. Britain was in favour of free trade for a long time, particularly in China. She had no other alternative excepts to protect her paramount position in the Yangtse Valley, when there was a serious scramble for power. The British position in South Africa was also weakened. At the same time, the European powers wanted to close the doors of China to other nations. So, England expected U.S.A. to lead, inducing great powers to maintain an 'Open Door' for all nations in China.

Hay addressed the American ambassadors in London, Paris, Berlin, St. Petersburg, Tokyo and Rome to seek clarification and assurance on the following points from the Government of the country in which they were posted.

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### **8.7 HAY'S PROPOSALS**

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1. The European nations having spheres of interest and leased territories in China should not interfere with any treaty port or any vested interests therein.
2. China's treaty tariff and collection of customs should be guaranteed by all the countries.
3. No discrimination of harbour dues or rail-road charges against other countries should be made by any power within its spheres of influence.
4. It stressed responsibility of the Chinese Government in the collection of the duties, and thereby the control of China over foreign trade was to be maintained.
5. The charges upon all the ships entering the ports under the spheres of influence of any other country, should be equal. The proposals were accepted by most of the Western nations.

The United States thus assisted China in the maintenance of her territorial and administrative integrity. Hay issued a second note to reduce the foreign pressure on China, on the eve of Boxer Rebellion. In this note also, he supported China's territorial integrity.

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### **8.8 RESULTS AND IMPACT OF OPEN DOOR POLICY**

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Great Britain which had trade interests throughout China, welcomed the 'Open Door Policy'. The policy was also accepted by all the European powers, except Russia. The Russians did not like the uniform harbour dues and rail-road charges. She remained silent in this regard. The outright military aggression of the Westerners was checked by this proposal. On account of its economic interests in China, America declared the proposals to be accepted by all the powers, though their acceptance was limited by some reservations. Some countries did not implement it sincerely, and their main replies were "plainly evasive".

By pronouncing this policy, the United States of America was not motivated by any ideal. The doctrine revolved round the commercial interest of the U.S.A. in China, and was not really for maintaining the integrity and independence of China. She did not even oppose the spheres of influence of the Western powers in China. "The acceptance of the Hay principles by the powers, temporarily checked the movement towards the partition of China, at the first stage of its development".

She wanted to exploit China's markets along with the Europeans to show her equal claim in the race. In the words of Langer "in the Far East, the powers were dealing with the fate of an Empire of upward of three hundred million souls and no less than five major states disputing the spoils". The hidden motive of the U.S.A. in any further step to partition China by all the

powers, had to be reckoned with.

The policy averted the immediate dismemberment of China. But, it did not materially benefit China. Her international exploitation by mutual cooperation of European powers, continued unabated. Though this policy was approved, most of the countries continued to enlarge their demands, and pressed for new concessions. China's position had sunk to abnormal depths.

At the beginning of the 19th century, a superior country like China dictated terms to the Western merchants, whom she considered as the 'barbarians'. But, by the end of the century, it was the European powers who decided the fate of that country, by tightening their bond of financial imperialism.

### Check Your Progress - II

1. What is meant by the 'Open Door Policy'?

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2. How did the 'Open Door' Policy help China?

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### 8.9 LET US SUM UP

1. After the Sino-Japanese war of 1895, in the battle of concessions, the western powers gained political and economic concessions in different parts of China. Each power was able to gain its own 'sphere of influence' in China.
2. The 'Open Door' policy initiated by U.S. secretary of state John Hay, was aimed at preserving China's territorial integrity because that would be beneficial to American economic interests in China.
3. The 'Open Door' policy prevented the dismemberment of China. But it did not materially benefit her as the exploitation of China by the western powers continued with mutual agreement among the westerners, even after the 'Open Door' policy was accepted.

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### 8.10 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : ANSWERS

- I. 1. 'The spheres of influence' were the areas in China where the western powers were granted special concessions.
2. 'The battle of concessions' was a battle of pressure exerted by the westerners on China

to get political and economic concessions in China.

- II. 1. 'Open Door' policy meant that all western powers in China were to be provided with equal treatment and opportunities in trade and other economic matters.
2. 'The Open Door' policy helped China by preventing the dismemberment of China among the European powers.

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### 8.11 EXAMINATION MODEL QUESTIONS

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I. Answer the following questions in 30 lines each.

1. Discuss the Sino-Japanese relations before the Sino-Japanese War of 1895.
2. Narrate briefly the causes of the Sino-Japanese War of 1895.
3. What were the effects of the Sino-Japanese War of 1895?
4. Discuss the extent of concessions obtained by the European powers in China.
5. Describe the impact on China of the formation of 'spheres of influence'.
6. Examine the meaning and implications of Open Door Policy of 1899 and Hay's proposals.

II. Answer the following questions in 15 lines each.

1. Why was Japan interested in Korea?
2. Write about the immediate cause that led to the Sino-Japanese War of 1895.
3. Trace the course of Sino-Japanese War of 1895.
4. Bring out the provisions of the Treaty of Shimonoseki.
5. Trace the Sino-Russian relations after 1895.
6. State the Sino-German relations after 1895.
7. What were the concessions obtained by France from China after the Treaty of Shimonoseki of 1895?
8. How did Britain benefit from the scramble for China that followed the Sino-Japanese War?

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### 8.12 BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING

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- |                                    |   |  |
|------------------------------------|---|--|
| 1. Crofts & Burchanan              | : | A History of the Far East in Modern Times                                  |
| 2. Gupta, R.S.                     | : | The Far East—A History of Western Impacts and Eastern Responses, 1830-1975 |
| 3. Paul H. Clyde & Burton F. Beers | : | The Far East   |
| 4. Shiv Kumar & Jain               | : | History of Modern China  |
| 5. Vinacke, H.M.                   | : | History of Modern China  |

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## **BLOCK - III**

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### **NATIONALISM IN CHINA**

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This block has three units i.e., units 9, 10 and 11. The rise of national feeling in china leading to the Hundred days reforms and the Boxer Rebellion and culminating in the nationalist revolution of china in 1911 are discussed in the units of this block.

**Unit - 9 : Hundred Days of Reform**

**Unit - 10 : Boxer Rebellion**

**Unit - 11 : 1911 Revolution**

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## **UNIT-9 : HUNDRED DAYS OF REFORMS**

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### **Contents**

- 9.0 Objectives
- 9.1 Introduction
- 9.2 Reasons for modernisation
- 9.3 Reform leaders
  - 9.3.1 Dr. Sun-yet-sen
  - 9.3.2 Kang-yu-Wai
  - 9.3.3 Chang-Chin Tung
- 9.4 Interest of the Emperor Kuang-Hsu in reforms
- 9.5 Reforms - Educational, administrative and and Military
- 9.6 Opposition to the reform movement
- 9.7 Causes for the failure of the reform movement
- 9.8 Significance of the movement
- 9.9 Let us sum up
- 9.10 Check your progress : Answers
- 9.11 Model examination questions
- 9.12 Books for further reading

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### **9.0 OBJECTIVES**

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From a study of this unit you are expected to

1. analyse the causes for the 100 days reform movement
2. give an account of the leaders of the movement
3. critically explain the various reforms introduced during the hundred days
4. critically account for the failure of the reforms and
5. estimate the significance of the reforms movement.

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### **9.1 INTRODUCTION**

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In 1898, some young chinese reformers made certain desperate efforts to save the country from foreign exploitation and political disintegration. The reformers were influenced by western education. They however had their roots in the Chinese culture and traditions and wanted modernisation of China taking the best from the best. The then young emperor Zai Tian (Kuang-Hsu) was keen on reforms and the reform movement had his support. In this unit the reforms introduced during the hundred days are explained. The causes for the failure of the reforms and a brief account of the reform leaders are also given in this unit.

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### **9.2 REASONS FOR MODERNISATION**

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The Christian missionaries spread new ideas and created new vigour in the Chinese society.

The exchange of embassies and diplomats from one country to the other, brought an end to the isolation of China. The Chinese students sent abroad, started learning and appreciating Western culture.

The luxurious life led by the European traders in the Chinese ports and colonies, attracted the Chinese, whose life was quite different and miserable.

The crushing defeat of the Chinese military force at the hands of the Western powers, opened the eyes of the Chinese. The war technique and modern equipment of the Europeans enlightened them.

So, China felt the need for modernisation in all the fields. It was realised that modernisation was possible only when reforms were introduced. The demand for modernisation became widespread after the defeat of China at the hands of Japan in 1895. It was the general belief that Japan's triumph over China was largely due to her adoption of Western methods. All these led to the attempt at reform in 1895.

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### **9.3 REFORM LEADERS**

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Many educated Chinese stressed the need for modernisation of China's ancient institutions, reorganisation of the traditional government, and a change of outlook among the Chinese.

#### **9.3.1 Dr. Sun-Yat-Sen**

Dr. Sun-Yat-Sen, a Cantonese radical, advocated steps to promote proper education on Western lines, better cultivation of soil, efficient production of industrial goods and improvement in the system of communication. Upon rejection of these reforms, Sun attempted a *coup* which was a failure, and he had to flee the country.

#### **9.3.2 Kang-Yu-Wei**

The next important figure among the reform leaders was Kang-Yu-Wei, 'the Modern Sage'. He was a man of undoubted ability and strong personality. He combined modernity and tradition in his ideas. In his book "Grand Union", he propounded radicalism and revolutionary ideas in Chinese thought and tradition.

Kang did not consider the Manchus as aliens. He advocated the gradual establishment of constitutional monarchy, and the immediate reform of the existing machinery of government. The essential aim of the modern government was to give the people adequate prosperity, protection, and participation in the functioning of the government.

He called for thoroughgoing modernisation in all the fields. In order to teach the masses the necessity of the reforms, he started a Reform Society at Peking. He was an ardent champion of westernisation, and influenced the Emperor. The Emperor Kuang-Hsu appointed Kang to the junior post of Under Secretary to the Board of Works. It inaugurated the so-called 'Hundred Days of Reform' in June, 1898.

Kang's chief disciple was Liangchi-Chao, the most voluminous and able of Chinese writers on political subjects.

#### **9.3.3 Chang Chih-Tung**

There were some officials like Yang Tse viceroy, Chang Chih-Tung, who had written a book 'Learn'. The basic theme of the book was, "Chinese learning for fundamental principles, Western learning for practical utility".

Another viceroy, Liu-Kun-Yi-toured Western countries, and wrote against the Manchu dynasty.

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## 9.4 INTEREST OF THE EMPEROR KUANG-HSU IN REFORMS

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After the death of the Emperor Hsien-Feng in 1860, Tsu-Hsi, the then Empress Dowager, became the virtual ruler. In order to keep herself in power, she placed minors on the throne one after the other, and continued to rule China as Regent. In 1875, she again placed a minor, Kuang-Hsu on the throne.

In 1898, Kuang-Hsu obtained majority, and took over the control of the Government. Tsu-Hsi, the 'Old Buddha' retired to the Summer Palace. But, the northern party in the royal court looked to her for directions, and they invited her to resume the Regency.

The southerners, headed by the Emperor's grand tutor, Weng, supported the Emperor. Thus, the court and the capital had become a hot-bed of rivalries and intrigues. The southerners appeared from among them. The death of the prince removed a great restraining influence from both the parties.

### Check Your Progress - I

1. How did the defeat of China by Japan in 1895 motivate the reform movement?

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2. What was the basic theme of the viceroy Chang Chin-Tung?

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## 9.5 REFORMS-EDUCATIONAL, ADMINISTRATIVE AND MILITARY

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Deeply influenced by the ideas of Kuang, the young Emperor embarked on a programme of reforms. The Emperor said, "The Westerners are our superiors, and are wise; they acquire wealth, comfort and longevity as a result of their system of government". He issued a number of edicts in the summer of 1898, and thus inaugurated the 'Hundred Days of Reform'. There followed between June 24 and September 9, a torrent of reform edicts drafted by Kang Yu-Wei. The reform edicts covered education, industry, agriculture army and administration.

1. Five of them were directed against the ancient system of learning and natural sciences.
2. Youth with progressive ideals were given preference. Officials in high posts were encouraged to go abroad to seek Western knowledge.
3. A central university at Peking, and a number of colleges and schools in big cities were to be established.
4. The books in different European languages were to be translated to impart Western ideas.

5. The old system of examination was abolished. It encouraged the study of economics, natural sciences, history, govts, and institutions of the five great continents. Thus, the system of Imperial Literay Examinations was completely changed.

6. Western military methods and equipment were to be introduced. National army based on conscription was to be created.

7. It was decided to publish the official gazette to distribute it all over the Empire.

8. Transport facilities were to be provided to connect the capital city with the other parts of the Empire to bring the centre and the states closer.

9. Reforms in the courts of law were projected, and copy right laws were to be introduced.

10. The excess posts in the Services were to be abolished.

11. Provision was made to offer rewards and incentives to authors and inventors.

12. The right to petition was to be granted to every individual in the country.

13. There was to be complete reorganisation of the government. New boards were being established, such as the Boards of Agriculture and Commerce.

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## 9.6 OPPOSITION TO THE REFORM MOVEMENT

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The edict of August 30 abolished employment for Manchu idlers; thus, it provoked angry protest. The dismissal of the six ministry officials was considered a direct blow. This hit them hard. They appealed to the Empress Tzu-Hsi to intervene to protect the interests of the ruling class. The Empress was watching and waiting patiently for the opposition to gather momentum.

The reformists, in order to safeguard the reforms, made an attempt to arrest her by sending the army chief, Jung-lu. He was a relative of the Empress. She decided to take drastic steps against the reformists. With the help of Yuan-Shi-Kai, China's Representative in Korea, she arrested the Emperor. Yuan attempted a *coup d'etat*. It enabled the Empress Dowager to resume control of the entire imperial administration.

All the reform Edicts were abolished. The young Emperor died in prison in 1908. Kang-Yu-Wei fled. Many reform leaders were executed.

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## 9.7 CAUSES FOR THE FAILURE OF THE REFORM MOVEMENT

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In spite of the vigour and enthusiasm amongst the reformists, the movement was a failure because of the following reasons.

China lacked skilled statesmen and officials in the period of transition. Of the two reformers, Kang-Yu-Wei was a visionary enthusiast, and the Emperor was an inexperienced weakling. They did not realise that those who were opposed to reforms could gather strength. The young emperor knew little of the world of men, and his radical advisers were new to government.

The steps taken to implement the reforms were not acceptable to the people. The people of Kwangtung, peking and Canton provinces only supported them. The reformists failed to prepare the people psychologically for reforms. The peasantry and the people were too conservative and orthodox to welcome the new changes.

The Movement came from above, instead of coming from below. The people were not prepared to receive the reforms. The reactionaries could convince the people that the existence of the foreigners was the root cause of their trouble. "Get rid of the foreigners, and all the

difficulties would have been overcome", become their slogan.

The traders did not support the Movement because they were afraid of disorder.

The peasants burden of overtaxation, was not lessened. Hence, they did not sympathise with the reformists. The agriculturists also did not cooperate with the reformists.

The students were alarmed, and were not prepared to acquire new knowledge then necessary for entering government jobs.

The gentry and the privileged classes were greatly affected by the Movement. They did not like the modifications in the established traditions of the country. The reforms wounded the interests of the gentry, from whose rank the officials were recruited.

The Manchus and the princes of the royal blood stood solidly behind the Empress to keep their positions safe.

Above all, the Empress Dowager Tzu-Hsi with her dare-devil quick decisions and prompt actions, outwitted the reform party.

Against such staunch and combined opposition, any reform movement would have been a failure. But, it was the first attempt to strengthen the nation by reorganisation and reform on modern lines to check further encroachment of the foreign countries in China. It was a forerunner of a series of reforms at a later stage in the history of China.

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## 9.8 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE MOVEMENT

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The Movement, though a failure, had its significance in the later history of China. It was the first step to adjust China to the new conditions that arose by the aggressive Western impact. The reformists were successful to draw the attention of the masses to the need for reform. It stimulated the thinking of the Chinese youth and of intelligentsia in general.

It was a reaction against the ineffective Manchu rule. The Movement created a new impetus among the people to overthrow the Manchu dynasty.

The Manchu rulers also realised that the tide of reforms could not be checked for long. Hence, they tried to get the support of the conservative party. Anti-foreign and anti-Manchu uprising became inevitable as a result of the failure of reforms.

### Check Your Progress - II

1. What was the chief aim of the educational reforms?

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2. How did the reform movement affect the Manchu rule?

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## 9.9 LET US SUM UP

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1. Contact with west, through the missionaries and traders and the success of Japan against China in 1895 were the important reasons for the modernization zeal.
2. Dr. Sun-yat-sen, Kang-yu-wei and Chang-chih Tung were the important reform leaders. The young emperor, Zai-Tian supported the reforms.
3. Reforms were introduced to modernise the educational military and administrative systems.
4. Due to various factors like the people not being educated about the reforms, the reforms, being imposed from above and the time factor (reforms were introduced in a short period of 100 days) were responsible for the failure of the reforms.
5. In spite of its failure the reform movement is significant because it stimulated thinking in-favour of reforms, drew the attention of the people towards reforms and paved the way for the fall of the Manchu Government.

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## 9.10 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS ; ANSWERS

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- I.
  1. 'Chinese learning for fundamental principles and western learning for practical utility' was the theme of the viceroy.
  2. The success of Japan and the failure of China in the 1895 war was attributed to westernisation of Japan and the lack of it in china. That thinking motivated the reform movement.
- II.
  1. The chief aim of educational reform was to introduce western learning in China.
  2. The failure of the reforms increased the anti-Manchu feeling among the Chinese and hastened the downfall of the Manchu Government.

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## 9.11 EXAMINATION MODEL QUESTIONS

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- I. Answer the following questions in about 30 lines each
  1. Write in brief about the qualities and aims of the Reform leaders.
  2. What were the various reforms that had been taken up during the Hundred Days of Reform?
  3. Briefly analyse the causes that led to the failure of the Reform Movement.
- II. Answer the following questions in about 15 lines each
  1. State the reasons that led to modernisation in China.
  2. Describe briefly the qualities and aims of Kang-Yu-Wei as a Reform leader.
  3. How did the opposition to Reform Movement take shape?
  4. What was the significance of the Reform Movement?

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## 9.12 BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING

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1. Ahmed L.L : A Comprehensive History of the Far East
2. Crofts & Buchanan : The Far East
3. Clyde Paul H & Burton F. Beers : The Far East - A History of Western Impacts and Eastern Responses, 1830-1975
4. Gupta, R.S : History of Modern China
5. Shiv Kumar & Jain S : History of Modern China
6. Vinacke, H.M : A History of the Far East in Modern Times

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## UNIT-10 : BOXER REBELLION

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### Contents

- 10.0 Objectives
- 10.1 Introduction
- 10.2 Causes
  - 10.2.1 Anti-foreign feeling
  - 10.2.2 Social and economic factors
- 10.3 Course
  - 10.3.1 Declaration of war by Emperor Tzu-Hsi
- 10.4 Intervention of the Foreigners
- 10.5 Boxer protocol, 1901
- 10.6 Causes for failure
- 10.7 Consequences
- 10.8 Nature
- 10.9 Let us sum up
- 10.10 Check your progress
- 10.11 Examination model questions
- 10.12 Books for further Reading

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### 10.0 OBJECTIVES

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study of this unit should enable you to

- 1 explain the causes for the Boxer Rebellion
- 2 analyse the provisions of the Boxer protocol
- 3 account for the failure of the rebellion and
- 4 describe its nature.

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### 10.1 INTRODUCTION

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After the abandonment of the reforms of 'Hundred Days', a new attempt called the 'Boxer Movement' began in China to save the country from disintegration. The main aim of the Movement was to overthrow the foreigners from China.

The humiliation of China, the haughtiness of the foreigners in the Treaty Ports, the scramble for concessions, and the irritating activities of the Christian missionaries, created bitter feelings at all levels. Outrages against the foreign 'devils' began to mount day by day.

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### 10.2 CAUSES

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There were internal as well as external for the Boxer Rebellion.

#### 10.2.1 Anti-foreign feeling

The establishment of foreign institutions like the Sino-Russian Bank, the Christian churches, the railway lines spread within the territory, and the colonies developed by the European traders, was much opposed by the Chinese. The foreign traders had many buildings of their own in China. They led a comfortable and luxurious life in their fort-like buildings, an eye-sore to the natives.

The people wanted to demolish them. They cried 'protect the country, destroy the foreigners'.

The Chinese resented the presence of the Christian missionaries and also their activities, converting the local people to Christianity. The converts considered themselves as superiors, and claimed some privileges. The missionaries were the targets for native hatred, because they violated the customs of the country. Boxers' hostility was directed against the missionaries and their converts, because these were the foreigners who most immediately impinged upon their lives and liberties and their religion".

The missionaries even propagated against the Government of the land, and indulged in anti-national activities and nefarious deeds. When they were challenged or questioned, they made that quarrel a national issue. Their respective Governments were always ready to come forward, demanding compensation and concessions for the life of a missionary. It had become intolerable to the Chinese.

The priests went a step further demanding magisterial honours in their contacts with the officials. This added to the hostility of many officials, causing them to connive at the persecution of the converts, and attacks on the missionaries.

There was a popular belief in the interior parts of China that the Christians indulged in inhuman practices such as plucking out the eyes of children. They were baseless rumours. But, the spread of such beliefs was responsible for the hatred of the foreigners.

The Chinese sometimes showed their hatred by attacking missionaries. The Europeans exploited it to seek further privileges and concessions, which in turn aggravated the bitterness.

The Boxer Movement was an endeavour to oppose the policy of contact with the West. The hatred against the foreigners was due to their aggressive attitude in demanding concessions and unequal treaty rights.

The Chinese were humiliated and ill-treated abroad. The foreign traders in China were leading comfortable life, whereas the Chinese were not given such treatment in their countries. On the other hand, China had to send apology missions to the Western countries for the mishappenings in China. The affronted Chinese joined hands with the rebels.

The Chinese were alarmed at the threatening partition of China. They could not tolerate ceding any part of their land as leaseholds, and as spheres of interest to the Westerners. They treated it as a blow to national integrity.

In view of the dominating policy of the European nations, the Chinese officials could not ensure protection of foreign life and property against the fury of the people. Since the German occupation of Kiao-Chow, the whole which nation had been aroused in varying degrees of intensity, and isolated acts of violence took place against the foreigners.

### **10.2.2 Social and Economic Causes**

The transformation of social, religious and industrial life of the people, the attempt to impose far-reaching reforms were not welcomed by the Chinese.

The people were heavily taxed to pay the war indemnity to Japan, which worsened the economic position of the country. Driven to desperation, many people took to looting. Dacoits created conditions of anarchy.

The crop failures resulted in famines. The floods increased the suffering and discontent of

the people. The natural calamities ruined the economic condition in the country.

The reason for the inglorious defeat of the country in the Sino-Japanese War was attributed to the weakness of the Manchus. The military strength was shattered. The inefficiency of the Manchus aggravated the financial condition of the people.

The Boxers were inspired by blind and ignorant patriotism. They sought to expel and destroy the foreign machines and inventions, "their strange and intolerant religion, their insufferable airs of superiority".

According to M.N. Roy, the uprising was the result of the reaction of the peasants to the intolerable conditions of poverty and misery caused by feudalistic exploitation. It was a Movement against all Westernising influence, which once again sought to close the 'Open Door' of China.

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### 10.3 COURSE

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The Boxer uprising was not a sudden outburst. Many secret societies were formed with religious features to protect the country from the Western bullets. These included 'Eight Diagram Society' and 'I-Ho-Chuan' (Fists of Righteous Harmony). The societies were nationalistic in character and very aggressive. The members of the society were called Boxers, because they kept their fists closed. They were extremely patriotic and courageous. They were ready to fight and face death. By speeches and widely distributed notices, they propagated their ideas with remarkable success. The people in the modern century were willing to join these societies to "drive the foreigners to the sea, so that China was saved from humiliation".

In the beginning, the Boxers were anti-Manchus. Later, they changed their attitude against the ruling family, and confined their activities against foreigners only.

#### 10.3.1 Declaration of the War by the Empress Tzu-Hsi

The Empress Dowager, having crushed the reforms, indirectly supported the Boxer rising. For, she wanted to divert the mounting tide of discontent of the people, away from the throne, against the foreigners. Secondly, she wanted to strengthen China which was faced with the danger of disintegration, following her defeat by Japan.

The Movement started in Shantung, and spread to the other provinces, of Chihli, Shansi, Manchuria and Inner Mongolia. Tzu-Hsi's support emboldened the Boxers, who became popular and militant. They raised the slogans, "Protect the Ching and destroy the foreigners". Violence broke out. They attacked all the Christian converts and all the foreign legations. Hundreds of foreigners were mercilessly killed. The chancellor of the Japanese legation, and the German envoy were brutally murdered. Perhaps, forty thousand native Christians perished in an "outburst of midsummer madness". They broke up railroads, cut telegraph line, and burnt churches.

On June 21, the Chinese Grand Council formally declared war against the 'foreign devils'. There was terror around. The rebels demonstrated the head of a foreigner before the people. The foreign legations and the Russo-Chinese Bank were burnt.

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### 10.4 INTERVENTION OF THE FOREIGNERS

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The foreigners were puzzled at the increasing strength of the Boxers. They urged the Emperor for the immediate dissolution of all the secret societies. When the response was poor,

the ministers asked their respective Governments to despatch naval squadrons to China. Thus, an international army of seven nations comprising of 18,000 troops was raised. Under the leadership of German General, Count Von Waldersee, the troops started to march from Tientsin towards Peking. Within ten days, they planted their flags on the walls of Peking. The Allies divided Peking into occupation zones. They struck terror right and left.

Tzu-Hsi and Kuang Hsu fled from the capital in disguise. The international army under the guise of supporting the Boxers, took terrible vengeance and instituted a reign of terror in China.

The country was now exposed to the mercy of the Western powers whether to instal the Manchus, or to partition the country.

Though the Manchu court supporting the Boxers, declared war against the foreigners, it did not identify with them or sincerely help them. With the intention of saving the dynasty, leaders like Jung Lu, Yuan-Shih-Kai remained indifferent.

The Western countries could not reach an agreement regarding the distribution of the booty. Hence, they decided to bring the Manchus back to the throne.

### Check Your Progress - I

1. What was the attitude of the Boxers towards the westerners?

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2. Why did the Empress support the Boxer uprising?

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### 10.5 BOXER PROTOCOL, 1901

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Government of China sent Li-Hung Chang to open peace negotiations with the Western powers. The Empress Dowager issued an Edict, promising a long-term programme of construction. Thus, eleven unearned years were added to the life of the Manchu dynasty.

The treaty was concluded on September 7, 1901 with eleven nations, and this settlement is known as the Boxer Protocol. The following were the main provisions of the settlement. China agreed:

1. to make a formal and general apology.
2. to pay a war indemnity of 450 million taels for which the Western powers secured maritime customs and salt gabelle as guarantee.
3. to offer regrets to Germany.

4. to pay a special indemnity to Japan.
5. to punish the Boxer leaders and to suspend all Competitive Examinations for administrative posts for five years in towns where the Boxer Rebellion took place.
6. to forbid the importation of arms and ammunition, and also not to manufacture war equipment for two years.
7. to permit the installation of a permanent army in Peking and to protect their legations.
8. to destroy the Taku forts.
9. to revise the commercial treaties.
10. to help in the construction of Western legation in China for the protection of the Europeans.
11. to keep Tientsin under foreign control and also to keep the Customs Duty Department under the Supervision of the foreign powers.
12. to reorganise the Tsungli Yamen (the foreign office) along Western lines.
13. to accept the military occupation of the strategic areas between the capital and the sea.
14. to permit the construction of a memorial for those Europeans who laid down their lives in the risings.
15. to modify the treaties already concluded between China and the Western powers.
16. to lift the ban on foreign investments in industries and mining.
17. to remove the internal customs duty on foreign goods.

Russia posed herself as a defender of China, and proposed almost immediate withdrawal of the Allied forces from Peking. She objected to the German demands, and pleaded that the indemnity clauses should be decided by the Hague tribunal. But, she herself refused to withdraw her army from Manchuria.

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## 10.6 CAUSES FOR FAILURE

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The agitation was confined to north China. The southern provinces remained aloof, and ignored it on the ground that they did not receive instructions or orders from the government. The viceroys even made agreements with the foreign consuls to preserve peace in their jurisdictions. Thus, it did not assume the character of a national uprising.

The leaders like Jung Lu and Yuan-Shih-Kai who estimated that the Boxers could not defeat the combined imperialistic armies, did not support the Boxers. Hence, there was no strong leadership for the Boxer Movement to command the loyalty of the people.

There was no well-organised coordination in the Chinese Army. The Generals like Jung Lu, took their own decisions not to use artillery when the legations were baseigned. It was detrimental to the country's safety.

The double role played by the Empress Tsu-Hsi was the most important reason for its failure. By adopting a lukewarm policy, she did not put the whole royal weight behind the Boxers against the imperialists. There was no royal support to the Boxers.

There was no constructive programme to the Boxer Movement. In the first phase, they raised slogans against the foreign devils and tried to expel them. In the second stage, they adopted the slogan of "support the Ching, and destroy the foreigners", which did not give them

much support from the people. In the third phase, they took over the role of protecting the people from the hands of the inefficient and corrupt bureaucracy though they joined forces with the Manchu court.

The superior skill and fighting, terrible vengeance and a reign of terror on the part of the Westerners, were able to suppress the rising in a very short period.

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## 10.7 CONSEQUENCES

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"Yet, with all its weakness, its lack of constructive programme, its blind fanaticism and reaction, the Boxer Movement was an unmistakable symptom of China's growing unrest, of her resentment against foreign intrusion and exploitation, and of her will to resist". It was to exert a profound influence upon China's political future.

1. The Empress Dowager's acceptance to sign the Peace Protocol was humiliating, by which she had to grant further concessions to the foreigners.
2. The Movement degraded the respect of the government. There across the law and order situation. The Chinese confirmed that their government was not in a position to defend the country, from external aggression and internal disorder.
3. Instead of strengthening the dynasty, the Protocol hastened its ruin which paved the way for the successful Revolution of 1911 and the establishment of the Republic.
4. The situation created by the Boxer unrest was fully exploited by Russia to seize control of Manchuria. This gave a chance to Russia to expand rapidly in Northern China, which was viewed with concern, by both Britain and Japan. This ultimately led to the Anglo-Japanese Alliance and the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-1905.
5. The Western countries treated China not as an independent country, but as a subordinate and conquered land. Thus, the country's prestige was reduced.
6. The Movement saved the country from partition. The resentment of the Boxers against the foreign intrusion and exploitation was so intense, that the foreigners were forced to stop the dismemberment of China. So, China emerged with her independence guaranteed.
7. The failure of the Movement also inaugurated an era of conservative reforms in an attempt to strengthen China and preserve the dynasty.
8. The payment of war indemnities to the foreign countries was an extraordinary burden on the country. This considerably drained the economic resources of China.

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## 10.8 NATURE

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It is clear that the Boxer uprising was not a rebellion, because it was not directed against the government established by law. On the other hand, the legally established government in China supported the Boxers, and the Boxers with the support of their government, declared war on the imperialists.

Thus, the whole Movement was anti-foreign. Certainly, the foreigners were not the legal authority of the country. That position was enjoyed by the Manchu government. Hence, the Boxers could not be called 'rebels', and it could not be called a 'rebellion', but only an uprising.

### Check Your Progress - II

1. Between whom was the Boxer protocol signed.



II. Answer the following questions in about 15 lines each.

1. Analyse the social and economic causes that led to the Boxer Rebellion.
2. Briefly describe the course of the Boxer Rebellion.
3. What were the causes that resulted in the failure of the Boxer agitation?

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### 10.12 BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING

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1. **Ahmed, L.L** : A Comprehensive History of the Far East
2. **Paul Clyde H. & Burton F. Beers** : The Far East - A History of Western Impacts and Eastern Responses, 1830-1975
3. **Crofts & Buchanan** : The Far East
4. **Gupta, R.S** : History of Modern China
5. **Shiv Kumar & Jain, S** : History of Modern China
6. **Haold Vinacke, H.M** : A History of the Far East in Modern Times.

— Smt. T. Lakshmi Tulasi.

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## UNIT-11 : 1911 REVOLUTION

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### Contents

- 11.0 Objectives
- 11.1 Introduction
- 11.2 Importance
- 11.3 Causes
  - 11.3.1 Weakness of Manchu Dynasty
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- 11.4 Course of the Revolution
- 11.5 Reaction of the imperialists
- 11.6 Results of the Revolution
- 11.7 Nature of the Revolution
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- 11.9 Check Your Progress
- 11.10 Examination Model Questions
- 11.11 Books for Further Reading
- 11.12 Glossary

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### 11.0 OBJECTIVES

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From a study of this unit you should be able to

1. explain the causes for the 1911 Revolution;
2. narrate the course of the revolution;
3. analyse the results of the revolution.

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### 11.1 INTRODUCTION

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The 1911 Revolution is a great landmark in the history of China. It resulted in the end of not only the Manchu rule over China but also in the end of the Monarchy in the country. Through the nationalist revolution of 1911 was followed by many years of disorder and turmoil it inaugurated a new era of Chinese march towards progress. In this unit the causes, course, nature and results of the revolution are discussed.

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### 11.2 IMPORTANCE OF THE REVOLUTION

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By 1911 the Manchu dynasty was unable to offer dynamic leadership to the country. China was in jeopardy in all aspects. Its political weakness was exposed to the outside world and was being exploited by the imperialistic tendencies. The prevailing corruption and incompetence of the dynasty brought repeated disaster, and lowered the living standard of the people. The

attempts to develop the country by offering reforms were also not successful. When the old traditions were uprooted, the country drifted towards a revolution.

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## **11.3 CAUSES**

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The reform movement ended in revolution. The Revolution of 1911 was not a sudden outburst. For some time past, several underlying factors were preparing the ground for eruption.

### **11.3.1 Weakness of the Manchu Dynasty**

The Manchu dynasty had become inefficient and lost its vigour. There was no dynamic leadership. The prevailing corruption, incompetence and debauchery made them unpopular. They lost the confidence of the people as they could not resist foreign aggression. Their reform programme also failed to satisfy the people. Once the old foundations were shaken, the country inevitably drifted towards a revolution.

### **11.3.2 The Death of Tzu Hsi**

The death of the Empress Dowager in 1908 hastened the process of the decline of the Manchus. Tzu Hsi was a capable woman, in spite of her blunders. She saved the dynasty from disruption, thwarting the attempts of the revolutionaries. But, after her death, the fall of the Manchus had become inevitable, as they had lost the favouritism of the Heaven. It made the fall of the Manchus only a matter of time.

### **11.3.3 Overpopulation, Natural Calamities**

The major problem of the country was overpopulation. It was the underlying cause of almost every movement in the country. The shortage of food adversely affected the weaker sections. On the one hand, the Government did not take any measures for the production of extra food; on the other hand, floods, famine and pestilence, aggravated the food problem. It was so acute that during 1910-11, 30 lakh people died out of starvation. It was "the worst in forty years".

The number of brigands and pirates increased with the expansion of the populations. Therefore, public peace became increasingly disturbed as part of the survival struggle. Millions of people were rendered homeless. This permeated discontentment, dragging the people into revolutions. The root of it all was callous indifference at this hour of crisis.

### **11.3.4 Economic Discontentment - Tax Burden**

The expenditure on reorganisation and reform programmes, like the creation of the new army, new railroads and introduction of new education systems etc., overburdened the Chinese exchequer. The heavy war indemnity to be paid to Japan and the Boxer indemnity, weakened the financial position of the country. To meet this expenditure, the Government had to levy new taxes which "increased the volume of discontent and dissatisfaction with the dynasty".

### **11.3.5 Impact of Western Ideas**

The food shortage and the lack of employment opportunities compelled the Chinese to migrate to the Western countries. There, they learnt new ideas of equality, liberty, and brotherhood, and were influenced by them. They tried to propagate the revolutionary ideas in their motherland to awaken the people. To infuse these ideas, they subscribed liberally from their

foreign resources. They wished to remodel their country on the Western style.

The spread of Western education was a turning point in the history of China. The students returned from abroad, fostering democratic tendencies. The foreign-educated students had become frustrated, because they did not have jobs in their native country. The rotten political and social order made them join the revolutionaries.

The revolutionaries were also successful in winning support of the new army against the Manchu rule. Especially, the army divisions at Hankow and Nanking were attracted by this movement.

### **11.3.6 Improved Communications**

The publication and distribution of the vernacular newspapers spread the revolutionary and progressive ideas to the common people. Liang-Chi-Chao, "the star of the Press" advised the journalists "to serve the needs of the time" and "to propagate a single idea". Similarly, the improvement of communications like the post, the telegraph and the railroad systems, greatly helped the spread of revolutionary principles throughout the vast empire of China. The improvement in railway communication enabled the population to move quickly from one place to the other.

### **11.3.7 Failure of the Manchu Reforms**

Most of the attempts at reform in 1898 remained on paper only, as it was not possible to implement them without the backing of a strong centralised Government machinery. The death of both the Emperor and the Empress Dowager in 1908 brought about a crisis in the reform programmes. The minor Emperor was unable to give the far-sighted and vigorous leadership required to maintain control over the Manchus to lead and control the movement.

### **11.3.8 Revolutionary Societies**

The economic imbalance and the humiliation in the wars with Japan enabled the revolutionaries to receive revolutionary ideas on a grand scale. The revolutionaries made Tokyo their base from where they continued the propaganda. Thus, almost every section of the society had grievances against the Government. There was everywhere chaos and disorder.

### **11.3.9 Dr. Sun-Yat-Sen**

Taking advantage of the situation, a revolutionary party known as *Tung-Meng-Hui* became active under the leadership of Dr. Sun-Yat-Sen. Dr. Sun tirelessly worked and openly propagated anti-dynastic philosophy. Dr. Sun-Yat-Sen stood for bringing nationalism, democracy and social justice to the people of China.

The people accepted Dr. Sun's ideas. He was responsible for bringing Yuan-Shih-Kai to his side, and offered him the high office of the President. Thus, Dr. Sun was the chief architect of the Revolution of 1911.

### **11.3.10 Immediate Cause—Nationalisation of the Railways**

The attempt of the Government to nationalise railways was the immediate cause of the revolution. The Peking Government had authorised some foreign countries to construct railroads.

In order to mortgage some railroads to foreign banks, the private railway building rights in Central and South China were nationalised. Simultaneously, some Chinese capitalists also organised companies and corporations for building railroads.

The provincial Governors and capitalists violently opposed the Central Government's railroad policy, and the revolutionaries also supported them. Mortgaging the railway construction work to the foreign governments was highly objected to by the Governors, as it curtailed their authority and autonomy.

The railroad issue reached a crisis in the province of Szechuan where the local financiers organised a demonstration against the proposed construction of Chengtu-Chunking railway. The demonstrations were fired upon by the army, and about seventy revolutionaries were killed.

### Check Your Progress - I

1. Which were the main economic causes for the 1911 revolution?

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2. Who was the most important leader of the 1911 revolution?

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## 11.4 COURSE OF THE REVOLUTION

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Several societies were formed in the province of Szechuan to preserve the rights of the people. The students, merchants, and workers organised strikes. First in the Canton uprising, 72 students lost their lives, though it failed. The nation-wide revolution started on October 10, 1911 at Hankow, where the army rose in revolt. The soldiers were influenced by the principles of *Tung-Meng-Hui*. The Hankow incident served as a spark, and ignited the flames of revolution.

The revolutionaries were led by a Japanese trained military colonel, Li-Yuan-Hung. The revolution spread like a prairie-fire to the other provinces, up and down Yangtze, and to the south of it. Within a month, the provinces, except the northern, disowned the authority of the Manchus.

From the beginning, the revolutionaries were careful to eliminate the anti-foreign feelings of the Boxer rising. Though there were differences of opinion amongst the revolutionaries regarding the leadership and type of Government to be formed, the struggle continued against the Peking Government. There were many hurdles in the path of the revolutionaries, for them to

be successful. The army was not sufficient to press the royal troops. There was paucity of funds to pay the soldiers, and also to supply their food. In the meanwhile, some of the soldiers began to defect. They took every step to keep the foreign interference at arms end.

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### **11.5 REACTION OF THE IMPERIALISTS**

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The Manchus were perturbed due to the success of the revolutionaries. To save the dynasty, a sort of limited constitutional monarchy was proclaimed. General Yuan-Shih-Kai was called back, and was made the Prime Minister of the National Assembly. He was also entrusted with the Supreme Command of the imperialist army and navy.

In the meanwhile, Li captured Nanking on January 11, 1912, and declared it to be the capital of a new Chinese Republic. Though the royal army was superior to the revolutionary army, Yuan opened negotiations on behalf of the Manchu dynasty. Assessing the situation correctly, Yuan realised that the cause of Monarchy had been lost in China. Therefore, he started to work, to further his own interest in elevating himself to the throne.

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### **11.6 RESULTS OF THE REVOLUTION**

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The delegates met at Nanking at the initiation of Li-Yuan Hung, and elected Dr. Sun-Yat-Sen as the provisional President. The revolutionaries authorised Dr. Sun to open negotiations with the Manchus.

Yuan-Shih-Kai, China's strong man and ambitious realist, played the role of a go-between. He participated in the last stage of negotiations. He wanted to secure his position with the revolutionaries, on the one hand, and with his monarch, on the other. When Dr. Sun showed self-sacrifice and courage, and offered him the Presidency of the Republic to avoid civil war in the country, Yuan ultimately persuaded the Manchus to abdicate.

On February 12, 1912, an imperial edict was issued announcing abdication. The Emperor transferred his authority to Yuan-Shih-kai, and not to the revolutionary Government of Nanking. Thus, Yuan derived his power from the Manchu Emperor.

The conditions for the abdication were:

1. The Manchu Emperor would receive from the Republic, the respect commonly accorded to a foreign monarch.
2. He would get an annuity of 4 million taels.
3. He would be allowed to retain his palace and guards.
4. His ancestral temples would be protected, and he would continue to perform customary religious rites.
5. The private property of the Manchus would be protected.
6. Princes of royal blood would continue to enjoy hereditary titles as well as their private properties.

After the abdication of the Manchu dynasty, Dr. Sun-Yat-Sen resigned from his provisional Presidency to give place to Yuan-Shih-Kai. "Thus, the fruits of victory of the 1911 Revolution passed into Yuan's hands".

The foreign powers, though they stood behind the monarchy, did not interfere during the critical days of the revolution. The revolutionaries were also cautious not to give any provocation

to the foreigners to intervene. The Westerners hoped that their interests would remain safe in the hands of Yuan.

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## 11.7 NATURE OF THE REVOLUTION

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The Character of the Revolution was anti-Manchu, as it brought a dynasty to an end, giving a constitution to the people, which proclaimed the sovereignty of the people.

It was anti-foreign, and it was mainly the work of the nationalists. China was accustomed to humiliation and exploitation during the last 250 years. The Chinese had no respect in any part of the world. So, the Revolution was an outburst of the people against centuries of national humiliation.

The Revolution was anti-tradition. It shook the very existence of Confucianism. The Chinese condemned the backwardness and conservatism which were the causes of sufferings of the country. If China was to have her honourable place in the family of nations, she must modernise herself. Thus, it ushered the emergence of the new order in the place of the old order.

The Revolution was not all success. The greatest weakness of the Revolution was that, it had to accept at the last stage the monarchists, though it ended the Manchu rule.

Financially, the Revolutionaries were not sound, and they were forced to accept Yuan as their President, who was not for the cause of the Revolution. On account of their poor financial condition, they could not implement their programmes. They lacked the administrative experience also.

Though the dynasty was overthrown easily, it was followed by decades of disorder and turmoil. The tyranny of the provincial Governors and gentry was increased.

With this Revolution, China abandoned the Confucian monarchy which she had for two thousand years. It broke the old barriers of conservatism, and China at last decided to accept the modern world.

### **Check Your Progress - II**

1. Why did Dr. Sun Yat Sen hand-over the fruits of the revolution to Yuan-Shi-Kai?

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2. Why was the revolution not a total success?

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## 11.8 LET US SUM UP

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1. The weakness of the Manchu Government, the impact of western ideas on the Chinese, the activities of revolutionary societies, and economic distress were the important causes for the 1911 revolution.
2. The revolution began on 10 October, 1911 with the revolt of the army at Hankow. It ended with the abdication of the Manchu emperor on 12th February 1912.
3. The revolution ended Manchu rule and monarchy in China.
4. The 1911 revolution was nationalist, anti-Manchu and anti-foreign in nature.

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## 11.9 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : ANSWERS

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- I.
  1. Over population, natural calamities, economic discontent due to increasing tax burden and poverty were the main economic causes for the revolution.
  2. Dr. Sun Yat-sen was the most important leader of the revolution.
- II.
  1. Dr. Sun Yat-sen handed over the fruits of revolution to Yuan Shih-kai, because of his (Sun Yat-sen) self-sacrificing nature and because he wanted to avoid violent conflict and blood shed.
  2. The revolution was not a total success because power went into the hands of selfish people after the revolution and also because there was chaos in the country for several years after the revolution.

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## 11.10 EXAMINATION MODEL QUESTIONS

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### I. Answer the following questions in about 30 lines each

1. What were the causes in brief that led to the Revolution of 1911?
2. Trace the course of the 1911 Revolution.
3. Examine the results and the character of the Revolution of 1911.

### II. Answer the following questions in about 15 lines each

1. How did the impact of western ideas contribute for the outbreak of the revolution of 1911?
2. What western immediate cause led to the 1911 Revolution?

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## 11.11 BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING

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- |   |                     |   |
|---|---------------------|---|
| 1 | Ahmed LL            | : A comprehensive History of the Far East   |
| 2 | Chatterjee          | : Modern China, Short History               |
| 3 | Clyde and Beers     | : The Far East                              |
| 4 | Claude and Buss     | : The Far East                              |
| 5 | Crofts and Buchanan | : The Far East                              |
| 6 | Latourette          | : A Short History of the Far East           |
| 7 | Panikkar K.M        | : Asia & Western Dominance                  |
| 8 | Shiv Kumar & Jain.S | : History of Modern China                   |
| 9 | Vinacke H.M.        | : A History of the Far East in Modern Times |

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## 11.12 GLOSSARY

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Brigands	:	Plunders or robbers
Consul	:	Agent of a foreign government appointed to attend to the interests of its citizens and commerce
Coup or Coup d' etat	:	Attempt to overthrow the government of a country
Dowager	:	A title given to a widow to distinguish her from the wife of her husband's heir
Gabelle	:	Duty levied on salt trade
Gentry	:	A privileged section or class placed just below the nobility in position and birth
Legations	:	Diplomatic and trade establishments of foreign countries, ranking below the status of ambassadors.
Pirates	:	Sea thieves
Prairie-fire	:	Spreading like wild fire or rapidly
Regent	:	One who rules on behalf of a minor ruler

– Smt. T. Lakshmi Tulasi

BRAOU

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## REPUBLICAN CHINA

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This block has two units, units 12 and 13. The establishment of the Republic in China by Dr. Sun Yat-sen after the overthrow of the Manchu Government and the problems of the Republic in its early years are discussed in this block.

**Unit - 12 : Sun-yet-Sen and his three principles**

**Unit - 13 : Early Republic and its Problems**

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## UNIT-12 : SUN-YAT SEN AND HIS THREE PRINCIPLES

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- 12.0 Objectives
- 12.1 Introduction
- 12.2 Sun Yat Sen's early life
- 12.3 Founding of Hsing-Chung-Hui (Revive China Society), 1894
- 12.4 Establishment of Tung-Meng-Hui (League of Common Alliance), 1905
- 12.5 Sun-Yat sen's ideas
  - 12.5.1 Sen Min Chu (Three Principles of the people)
    - 12.5.1.1 Min-Tue (Nationalism)
    - 12.5.1.2 Min-Chuan (Democracy)
    - 12.5.1.3 Ming-Sheng (Peoples livelihood)
- 12.6 Contribution to the 1911 Revolution
- 12.7 Provisional president
- 12.8 Steps down in favour of Yuan-Shikai
- 12.9 Reorganisation of the Nationalist party
- 12.10 Let us sum up
- 12.11 Check your progress
- 12.12 Examination Model questions
- 12.13 Books for further reading

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### 12.0 OBJECTIVES

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Study of this unit should enable you to

1. give an account of the life and achievements of Sun-Yat-sen
2. critically explain the meaning and significance of the ideas of sun-yat-sen
3. Estimate sun-yat-sen's contribution to China

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### 12.1 INTRODUCTION

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Sun-Yat-sen was the most respected of the Chinese modern leaders before the rise of Mao Tse Tung. He was a great nationalist and made supreme sacrifices for his country. As the leader of the 1911 Revolution and as the leader of the kuomintang (Nationalist) party he enjoys a unique position in the history of modern China. In this unit, an account of his life, ideas and achievements is given.

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### 12.2 SUN-YAT-SEN'S EARLY LIFE

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Sun-Yat-Sen (1866-1925), the father of Chinese Nationalism, was born on November, 12, 1866, in Hsiang-Shan, near Canton. His father, Sun-Tat-Sung was a poor farmer. He was one of the six children born to his parents, but of them, only four survived. His personal name was Wan, and Yat-Sen was his secondary name. In China, he is better known by his other name, Chung-Shan. The people of Hsiang-Shan followed the tradition of seeking their livelihood away from home, because of the poor fertility of the soil. Sun's elder brother, Sun-Mei, migrated to Honolulu, and built up a prosperous business. Sun-Yat Sen joined school in his 6th year, and completed the study of the traditional primers, the Confucian four books and the five classics, by his 12th year. As he was born only two years after the downfall of the Taiping kingdom, he was influenced by the stories of the revolution, and secretary nurtured the desire to be a second Hung Hsin-Chuan.

He joined his brother Sun-Mei, at Honolulu, along with his mother in 1879. Here at Honolulu, he was exposed for the first time to the wonders of ships, and the prosperous good life enjoyed by the people, and the just taxes imposed on them. He had his higher education at the Anglican Missionary Lolani School. At the age of 17, he graduated from Oahu College. In 1885, he married Luszu, and returned to his native place. He was disillusioned by the decadence of the proud Middle Kingdom under the Manchurian rule. At this time, the idea to overthrow the Manchu dynasty began to take shape. While he was entering these ideas, he joined the Pochi Medical School at Canton, and came into contact with Cheng-Shih-Liang, who had wide contacts, with the secret societies. After discussions with Cheng-Shih-Liang, Sun was convinced of the need for a revolution, and got himself transferred to the College of Medicine for the Chinese in Hongkong in 1887. He got himself transferred because of two reasons. The first reason was that the curriculum provided at Hongkong was better than at Canton. The second reason was the freedom that the British colony gave him for revolutionary activities. During his student days, he continued his revolutionary activities without neglecting his studies. In 1892, he graduated in First Class and began practice at Macao. In 1893, he shifted his medical practice to Canton, and started free medical care to win friends and make new contacts. Here again, he continued his efforts to come into contact with secret societies to foster revolutionary tendencies. A review of his experiences at Hawaii and Hongkong convinced him that it was necessary to instil a strong sense of patriotism and nationalism, besides overthrowing the Manchu rule and establishing a republic. Thus, the idea of throwing over the Manchu Government, and establishing a republic to transform China, began to take concrete shape.

Thus, two streams of thought, one overthrowing Manchu rule by violent, revolution, and the other to serve China by reform, began to influence him prior to 1894. From this, it can be said that Sun-Yat-Sen was a realist and pragmatist ready to show tactical flexibility, and willing to consider simultaneously two conflicting goals.

Sun-Yat-Sen, influenced by the reformist ideas of Wang Tao and Ho Hai, decided to reach Li-Hung-Chang, the centre of gentle reformists. In the summer of 1894, he went to the Capital of China with his companion, Lu Hao Tang and sought an interview with Li Hung Chang. Sun could not get an interview or response to his letter, as he chose the wrong time. At that time, Li Hung Chang, was preoccupied with the Japanese War. In his petition to Li Hung Chang, he explained his ideas of systematic political programme. Sun suggested to Li Hung Chang, that the wealth and power of European states were achieved by the full development of human talents, the full exploitation of the earth's resources, the full utilisation of material devices, and the free exchange of the goods. He further pointed out that China must develop her talents through universal free education, vocational guidance, and promotion of science and agriculture. Lack of response, and his first-hand observations of the Manchu decadence, strengthened his determination to overthrow it.

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### 12.3 FOUNDING OF HSING-CHUNG-HUI (Revive China Society), 1894

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Sun-Yat-Sen gave up his reformist activity, and resolved to bring about a revolution in China, with the help of the overseas Chinese, the secret societies, the Christian converts and the missionaries. He went to Honolulu in 1894, and with the co-operation of his brother, he organised the Revive China Society (*Hsing-Chung-Hui*) on November, 24, 1894. Initially, its membership was limited to 112. He established the headquarters of the Revive China Society at Hongkong on February 21, 1895, and opened branches in the provinces. The members of the society took an oath to expel the Manchus, restore the Chinese rule, and establish a federal republic. Thus, the first revolutionary body was born under the leadership of Sun-Yat-Sen. Sun-Yat-Sen and his followers wanted to capture Canton, and make it their revolutionary base. But, the attempt failed, the plot was discovered and forty eight people died as martyrs. Lu Hao Tang, the designer of sky blue-white Sun flag for the revolutionaries, died in the abortive attempt. After this failure,

Sun-Yat-Sen fled to Hongkong. The British expelled him for a period of five years, and so he escaped to Japan. He was surprised to see a favourable reaction to his efforts, and established a Revive China Society at Yokohama. After developing contacts with like-minded men, he proceeded unfruitful. It was so because of the abortive Canton Uprising. But, without losing heart, Sun tried his best to revive their spirits. From there, he proceeded to the United States of America, and revived the old dedication of the overseas Chinese to the revolutionary fold. He then proceeded to London, where he was kidnapped on October, 11, 1896, but due to the efforts of Dr. Cantlie and the London Globe, Sun was released on 22, October. This Kidnap and the release made him world famous overnight. He remained in Europe for about 2 years, and studied the political and social developments taking place in Europe. In 1897, he developed the idea of a social revolution in addition to his earlier ideas of nationalistic and democratic revolution. In mid-1897, Sun returned to Japan and came into contact with important Japanese leaders, who shared the common feeling of Asia's grievance against Western imperialism. Though the response from the Japanese was encouraging, the response of the Chinese in Japan was lukewarm.

During this period, Sun-Yat-Sen had to face the opposition of Emperor Protection Society (*Pao-huang-tang*) under the leadership of Kang-Yu-Wei and Liang-Chi-Chao, who came to Japan after the ill-tated 'Hundred Days Reform'. In order to accelerate revolutionary activities and to fight against the rising influence of the Emperor Protection Society, Sun introduced a three-pronged programme of action. Firstly, Chen Shawpo was sent to Hongkong to inaugurate the China daily (*Chung-Jih-Pao*) in 1899. Secondly, Shoh-Chien-ju and Hirayama were sent to Yangtze with the secret societies. And thirdly, a reception centre in Hongkong was opened by Cheng-Shih-Liang. Sun-Yat-Sen wanted to organise an uprising at Waichow and Canton, taking advantage of the Boxer Rebellion of 1900. Unfortunately, the Waichow uprising ended in a fiasco. Another uprising in Central China, under the leadership of Tang-Tsai-Chang, a follower of Kang-Yu-Wei, also failed. But, the mismanagement of the Boxer catastrophe by the Manchu rulers brought about a change in the attitude towards him as a patriotic, devoted revolutionary, working for the betterment of the country and the people. The youth and the students began to look up to him for inspiration. Revolutionary literature began to be published, and revolutionary armies and societies began to be organised to support revolution. As a result, during the period 1902-1905, the fortunes of the revolutionary movement turned considerably in favour of Sun-Yat-Sen. He then thought of organising *Tung-Meng-Hui* (League of Common Alliance).

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#### **12.4 ESTABLISHMENT OF TUNG-MENG-HUI (League of Common Alliance), 1905**

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Sun-Yat-Sen travelled widely in Vietnam, Japan, Honolulu, and the U.S.A., rallying support for his cause. The favourable response from the students and the youth encouraged him to form a revolutionary party. A batch of 14 students learnt secretly the methods of weapon-making, military tactics and guerilla warfare, with the help of Sun, from the Japanese. In 1905, he visited the Chinese students in Europe. By his appeal to the students at Brussels, Berlin and Paris, Sun-Yat-Sen transformed the students into committed and dedicated revolutionaries. He created the largest revolutionary organisation in Tokyo with hundreds of students, representing 17 provinces of China. Thus, the seeds of a new revolution would succeed in his life time. In 1905, on August 20, a unified organisation of all the revolutionaries, viz., the Chinese United League or *Tung-Meng-Hui* was established. About seventy persons joined it at its inauguration. Sun was elected the Chairman of the *Tung-Meng-Hui* at the age of 37.

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#### **12.4 SUN-YAT-SUN'S IDEAS**

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Sun-Yat-Sen proposed a detailed procedure for his pre-and post-revolutionary national reconstruction. In the first place, there would be a military rule of three years in the areas

liberated by the military government. The military government would cooperate with the local people in eliminating the old political and social evils such as slavery, foot-binding, opium-smoking, and bureaucratic corruption. In the second stage, he proposed to introduce a six year period of political tutelage. During this stage, local self-government was to be instituted, where popular elections were to be held for local assemblies and local administrators. Even during the second stage, the central government was to be in the hands of the military government. He proposed that a provisional constitution should be in operation, specifying the rights and duties of the military government and the people. Sun-Yat-Sen made it clear that as soon as the period of tutelage ended, the military government would be dissolved, and the country would be governed by a new constitution. Thus, Sun-Yat-Sen envisaged a three-stage revolution to lead the country into constitutionalism.

The founding of the *Tung-Meng-Hui*, in 1905, is a definite milestone in the course of Chinese history. It changed the character and style of the revolutionaries in China. It was so because, the traditional groups that provided the leadership in China, actively associated themselves with it. As a result, the social base and potential areas of operations had substantially enlarged. Its base was multi-provincial and multi-class, and so, it could successfully spread its ideology in all parts of China. It served as a rallying point for all the revolutionary and progressive forces in the country. As such, it fittingly revived the tribute "The Mother of the Chinese Revolution".

#### **12.4.1 San Min Chu I (Three Principles of the People)**

Sun-Yat-Sen, in a series of lectures delivered to party officials in 1924, enunciated a basic manifesto that decided the future party and government relations. It is called San Min Chu I. It contained ideas that had been basic with Sun since 1905. These ideas of People's nationhood or nationalism, people's power or democracy, and people's livelihood became powerful weapons of propaganda.

##### **12.4.1.1 Min-Tue (Nationalism)**

Sun-Yat-Sen's first principle was Min-Tue. It means people's nationhood or nationalism. In the original form, this principle meant simply that the Manchus, an alien dynasty, should be ousted and driven away. But the events of 1911 convinced Sun that the people remained a heap of loose sand, without any binding force. Though in its revised form, it embodied the unity of various groups, Sun did not spell clearly the programme for unification. Yet, it can be said that his principle of nationalism was anti-imperialistic. He stood for the transfer of traditional loyalties from the family, clan, village to the state. He proclaimed of these three principles, the principle of nationalism, supports the two aims the liberation of China by the Chinese people, and the establishment of equal rights for all the races living in China.

##### **12.4.1.2 Min Chuau (Democracy)**

Sun-Yat-Sen's second principle was *Min-Chuan*. It means people's power or democracy. In 1905, he attacked the advocates of constitutional monarchy as supporters of absolutism, and favoured democracy. His ideas on democracy were derived from (a) Western republicanism, (b) the Swiss doctrine of initiative, referendum, election, and recall, (c) democratic centralism and (d) Chinese ideas of examination and control. His system of democracy provided popular control through the electoral process, and also provided wide powers to a strong executive to deal with the business of government. This system of democracy implies the division of men into three classes leaders, middle men and the rank and file. It also means that political power was to be exercised through five branches executive, legislative, judicial, examination and control. He suggested that training for the exercise of political power would be given to the people by the *Kuomintang* during the period of tutelage.

### 12.4.13 Min Sheng (Peoples, livelihood)

Sun-Yat-Sen's third principle was *Ming-Sheng*. It means 'People's livelihood'. It embraces a number of social and economic theories which attracted his attention. He appears to be influenced in his socio-economic policies by the single tax ideas of Henry George and 'The social interpretation of History by Maurice Williams. He wanted to achieve the principle of livelihood by equalization of land ownership, and by the regulation of capital. He argued that China must not only regulate private capital, but also develop state capital. He said that where industry is not developed, man's class war and dictatorship of the proletariat are impracticable. Sun-Yat-Sen's Three Principles of the People' in brief may be summarised as national liberation and unification, restoration of China's economic independence and the regeneration of rural life, and universal education and enlightenment of the whole nation in preparation for a modern popular government.

After the establishment of the *Tung-Meng-Hui*, the pulse of the revolution gained quick momentum, and an uprising followed another between 1906-1911. Between 1895 and 1911, ten abortive uprisings were organised by the followers of Sun-Yat-Sen. All these ten unsuccessful attempts at revolution took place in the south and the south-west. But, some powerful revolutionaries advocated that they should organise the revolution at peking in the heartland of central China. Further, they explained that if Wuhan could be captured, then they would be in a good position to carry out revolutionary action in the south or go to the north to the capital. Consequently, in 1911 on July 13, a central China Bureau of *Tung-Meng-Hui* was established under the leadership of Sung Chiao Jen. They made the central provinces of Hunan and Hepeh as their important targets. In Hepeh, already ground was prepared by the common advancement society, which was affiliated to *Tung-Meng-Hui* and by the Military study society, which was affiliated to *Tung-Meng-Hui* and the Military study society. On June 1, 1911, the two societies decided to cooperate in a joint action at Wuhan. Sun was abroad, when all this was planned. At such a time, unrest was prevailing in Szechwan, about a foreign loan to finance railways in the south, central and west China, and by September 1911, active revolt had arisen in Szechwan. A causal incident in Hankow brought about a widespread outbreak of violence. Troops in Wuchang on October 10, mutinied and forced their commander, Li Yuan Hung to declare a republic, and the strategic cities of Wuchang, Hanyang and Hangang and Hangkōw were occupied by the rebels. Tang Hua Lung, the former Chairman of the Hupeh provincial Assembly, who was sympathetic to the revolutionaries, was appointed the Chief of the revolutionary civil government. He sent telegrams to other provinces to declare the independence of the Hangkōw to be neutral. Consequently, when the Governor-General approached the French and Russian consuls; they refused to give an interview, and the other Consuls maintained strict neutrality. Hanyang and Hankow came under the control of revolutionaries immediately after two days. Within a month and a half, 15 provinces or two-thirds of all China seceded from the Ching dynasty.

#### Check Your Progress - I

1. Why did Sun-Yat-Sen think of overthrowing the Manchu government?

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2. What were the aims of the three principles of Sun-Yat-Sen?

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## 12.5 CONTRIBUTION TO THE 1911 REVOLUTION

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Dr. Sun-Yat-Sen does not appear to have anticipated that the revolution would materialise so soon, and attributed the unexpected success to the manifestation of the benevolence of the almighty. He had every reason to think so because if the Manchukl Government-General had not run away along with the military commander, or the foreign Consuls supported the Ching Governor-General, the result would have been different. Dr.Sun-Yat-Sen heard of the success of the revolution through a newspaper report. At that time, he was in Denver, Colorado. After seeing the news, he did not rush to China, but decided with foresight to go to England, and from there to France, to convince the respective countries to support the cause of the revolutionaries. He acted so because he knew that hte success of the revolution depended on their attitude. This clearly reveals his better judgement.

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## 12.6 PROVISIONAL PRESIDENT

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Sun-Yat-Sen returned to Shanghai on December 25, 1911. He was unanimously elected the **Provisional** President on December, 29, 1911, and Li Yuan Hung was elected the Vice-President by the Provincial delegates. The new government declared January, 1, 1912, as the day of the Republic. Thus, after a continuous, agonising struggle, spanning over a period of two decades and seven years, his life-long dream was fulfilled. The next decades and seven years, his life-long dream was fulfilled. The next problem faced by Sun-Yat-Sen and his government was how to achieve national unity, and terminate the weak and alien Ching Dynasty.

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## 12.7 STEPS DOWN IN FAVOUR OF YUA AN-SHIKAI

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Yuan-Shi-Kai, who was neither a revolutionary nor republican, but an opportunist and a power crazy man, tried to a override the parliament by obtaining foreign loan in which the nationalists were in the majority in both the Houses, and when it was opposed, he dismissed the Nationalist military government of Kiangsi, Kuangtung, and Anhwei. In 1913 on July 12, the military governor of Kiangsi declared independence, starting what is known as a Second Revolution. Yuan successfully crushed the 'Second Revolution' of 1913. Sun-Yat-Sen understood that the 'Second Revolution' failed because sof internal dissension amosng his followers. In 1914, Yuan dissolved the Nationalist Partly, and so, Sun-yat-Sen left for Japan.

Sun-Yat-Sen, who was more interested in achieving the unification of China and eliminating the Ching dynasty, agreed to step down in favour of Yuan-Shi-Kai, Prime Minister of the Ching dynasty, as the President of the Republic of China, on the condition that Yuan supported the Republic, and succeeded in seeing through the abdication of the Ching dynasty. Yuan agreed to the conditions, and on April 1, 1912, Sun-Yat-Sen formally relinquished his duties as Provincial President. Before his resignation, he out-voted the proposal of his followers to make Yuan as the Provincial President. He had taken the decision in all good faith, that Yuan-Shi-Kai would abide by his pledges, but later events proved otherwise.

Though Sun-Yat-Sen was an incarnation of idealism, he failed as a leader to instil the senses of commitment in his followers. This can be clearly understood from the way in which his followers longd for peace and anxiously sought to cooperate with such an unprincipled man as Yuan. Further, they appear to have been convinced that their objective was achieved as soon as the Republic was established. His followers did not think of the necessity of implementing the principles of democracy and people's livelihood. His observation that "without revolutionary **Construction**, what is the use of the revolutionary president?" **demonstrates** his disillusionment

with his followers. Perhaps, this might be one of the reasons for his resignation as the President of the Republic.

## 12.8 REORGANISATION OF THE NATIONALIST PARTY

Sun-Yat-Sen, now being convinced of the need for unity in the Party, decided to reorganise the Nationalist Party into a well-knit structure under the name of the Chinese Revolutionary Party on July 8, 1914. He made the members vows personal allegiance to him, and made them various levels, and after becoming the Chief Commander of the Army, declared war against Yuan-Shi-Kai in 1915 when the contemplated becoming a monarch. Yuan died unexpectedly, in 1916, when there was a followed by Civil War among the War lords for supremacy. In such circumstances, Sun-Yat-Sen once again established military government at Canton, and Launched the constitutional protest movement (*Hu-fa-Yun-Tung*), but it made little progress. Ambitious Li Jung Tang, the Provincial leader of Kuangtung and Kwangsi, forced Sun out of the military government in May 1918. Sun fled to Shanghai, in utter disappointment and frustration. He led a life of resignation, but wrote 'Outlines of National Reconstruction'. (*Chien Kuo feng Lieh*). He also planned to reorganise the Party. On April 2, 1921, when he set out northward to continue his constitution protection programme, he was turned back by a former supporter, Chen-Chiung-ming. He narrowly escaped death, and reached Shanghai with the help of Britain and Russia.

In the meanwhile, impressed by the success of the Russian Bolshevik Party of Russia, and by the willingness of Russia to offer a hand of friendship, he looked towards Russia to reorganise and strengthen the *Kuomintang*. Michael Borodin was sent by Russia. Borodin was appointed the adviser. He and Sun-yat-Sen prepared a constitution for *Kuomintang*. He became the lifelong President, and a hierarchical organisation of the *Kuomintang* Party from bottom to top was established. The first central council meeting of *Kuomintang* took place in 1924. In that meeting, the constitution and the programme of the Three Principles of the People were approved. After achieving the needed unity in the Party on his own lines, he undertook the northern expedition, and died at Peking on March, 12, 1925 murmuring 'Peace, Struggle Save China.'

Thus ended the Life of Sun-Yat-Sen, visionary, dreamer and idealist, revolutionary in thought, but reformer in action. Sun-Yat-Sen remains in modern China as an unparalleled idealist, who devoted his entire life, with missionary zeal and commitment, to the unity of China, and hte betterment of the people of China. His life and sacrifice, inspired the future leaders of China. Chiang-Kai-Shek and Mao-Tse-Shek could unite China superficially in 1928, Mao could **succeed** in real unification, Sun-Yat-Sen richly, and truly deserves the title of 'The Father of Chinese Nationalism.'

### Check Your Progress - II

1. Who was the provisional president of the Chinese Republic?

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2. Why is Sun-Yat-Sen described as the father of Chinese nationalism?

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## 12.9 LET US SUM UP

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1. Sun-Yat-Sen the 'Father of Chinese nationalism' established in 1894, the Revive China Society to overthrow the Manchu Government. Later in 1905 to unite all the revolutionary organisations, he established the Tung-Meng-Hai (League of common alliance)
2. Nationalism, Democracy and people's livelihood were the three ideas of Sun-Yat-Sen.
3. On December 25, 1911, Sun-Yat-Sen was unanimously elected as the provincial president of China. But on April 1, 1912 he relinquished his position to Yuan-Shi-Kai, in the interests of Chinese unity.
4. Sun-Yat-Sen established the Kuomintang (Nationalist) party and reorganised it with the help of the Russian advisor Michael Borodin.

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## 12.10 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : ANSWERS

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- I
  1. Sun-Yat-Sen thought of over-throwing the Manchu Government because he was convinced that the country would not be able to progress under their rule.
  2. The aim of the three principles of Sun-Yat-Sen was the political and economic strengthening of China.
- II
  1. Dr. Sun-Yat-Sen
  2. Sun-Yat-Sen is described as the 'father of Chinese nationalism' because it was his ideas which fostered modern nationalism among the Chinese.

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## 12.11 EXAMINATION MODEL QUESTIONS

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### Assignments

- I. Answer the following questions in about 30 lines each
  1. Trace in brief the early life of Sun-Yat-Sen
  2. Describe the founding of *Hsing-Chung-Hui* (Revive China Society) by Sun-Yat-Sen and his activities upto 1905.
  3. Examine the Three Principles of the People
  4. What were the revolutionary developments that took place in China in the years 1911 and 1912?
  5. Analyse the services of Sun-Yat-Sen to China from 1913s till his death.
- II. Answer the following questions in about 15 lines each
  1. What ideas did Sun-Yat-Sen enunciate for pre-and post-revolutionary national reconstruction?
  2. Explain how Yuan-Shi-Kai tried to betray the Republic

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## 12.12 BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING

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1. Ahmed, L.L : A Comprehensive History of the Far East
2. Chatterjee : Modern China, Short History
3. Claude and Buss : The Far East
4. Clyde and Beers : The Far East
5. Crofts and Buchanan : The Far East
6. Latourette : A Short History of the Far East
7. Panikkar K.M : Asia & Western Dominance
8. Shiv Kumar & Jain S. : History of Modern China
9. Vinacke H.M : A History of the Far East in Modern Times

– K.S. Kameshwar Rao

BRAOU

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## **UNIT-13 : EARLY REPUBLIC AND ITS PROBLEMS**

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### **Contents**

- 13.0 Objectives
- 13.1 Introduction
- 13.2 Turmoil after the Revolution
- 13.3 Conflict among the Revolutionaries
- 13.4 Military leaders and war lords
- 13.5 Yuan-Shi-Kai (1912-1916)
- 13.6 Conflict between Yuan-Shi-Kai and the Kuomintang
- 13.7 Let us sum up
- 13.8 Check your progress : Answers
- 13.9 Examination model questions
- 13.10 Books for further reading.

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### **13.0 OBJECTIVES**

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A study of this unit should enable you to

- 1 Analyse and explain the problems of the Chinese Republic in its early years.
- 2 Describe critically the character of Yuan-shi-kai and
- 3 Explain the conflict between Yuan-shi-kai and the Kuomintang.

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### **13.1 INTRODUCTION**

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Yuan-shi-kai was neither a nationalist nor a republican. He was an opportunist. Due to his opportunism and also due to the lack of a strong Government at the centre in China, the military chiefs became supreme in the provinces. All the important developments in China in the early years of the Chinese Republic are explained in this unit.

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### **13.2 TURMOIL IN CHINA AFTER THE REVOLUTION**

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The 1911 Revolution spearheaded by Dr. Sun-Yat-Sen overthrew the alien Ming rule, and heralded republicanism in China. The rise of the republic was an epoch-making event in Chinese history. Yet, that Revolution remained incomplete. As expected and anticipated, the establishment of the republic did not bring peace, order and unity. Instead of ushering in a new era of fulfilment and hope, the period from 1912 to 1918 witnessed moral degradation, movement for the revival of monarchical institution, war lordism and intensified foreign imperialism.

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### **13.3 CONFLICT AMONG THE REVOLUTIONARIES**

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Many factors contributed to the anarchy, confusion and chaos of that period. One of those factors appears to be lack of cohesion and unity of purpose between Dr. Sun-Yat-Sen and his followers. After the overthrow of the Manchu dynasty, Sun-Yat-Sen's followers appear to have drifted from the path of revolutionary programme prescribed by Dr. Sun-Yat-Sen. They did not pay attention to the more important task of democratic reconstruction and the problem of people's livelihood. They acted as if their major objective has been achieved by simply proclaiming the republic. Further, they went to the extent of out-vetoing Sun-Yat-Sen, and branding him as an impracticable idealist, and preferred to compromise with unprincipled

and unscrupulous Yuan, who was neither a revolutionary nor a republican. The revolutionaries appear to have forgotten in the flush of their success that they had to continue their struggle to eliminate foreign imperialism, and to make secure the newly established republic. The eagerness exhibited by the revolutionaries to cooperate with the conservative elements, and the favourable treatment given to the deposed emperor by them, disillusioned Sun-Yat-Sen and his followers. It provoked him to observe 'without revolutionary reconstruction, what is the use of a revolutionary President?' and to resign in favour of Yuan-Shi-Kai. Thus, it can be said that the conflict among the revolutionaries over the future course of action was responsible for turmoil in China, immediately after the revolution.

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### **13.4 MILITARY LEADERS AND WAR LORDS**

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The failure of the revolutionaries, to make the people ready to follow their policies, is another cause for turmoil in China. The people were not sufficiently educated and awakened to understand the cause of republicanism. The people were not directly affected by the changes in the form of Government from monarchy to republican system. The people were left in a position of inability to understand the meaning of republicanism. No effort was made to increase the production to meet the demands of the growing population. The people appear to have understood revolution and republicanism as remission of taxes and freedom from individual repression. This belief complicated the problem of maintaining law and order in the provinces. As in the past, during this period also, the masses kept themselves away from the business of governance. As a result, the President of the new republic was made to control bureaucracy and to maintain control over the country through military power. This dependence on military power enhanced the power and position of the military Governors of the provinces. At a time when the President was contemplating to revive monarchical institution, and when it was opposed by the revolutionaries, the President was forced to look to the military Governors for help, for his success. Though Yuan-Shi-Kai died without achieving his objective, the above-mentioned factors favoured the growth of war lords and war-lordism in China.

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### **13.5 YUAN-SHI-KAI (1912-1916)**

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When the political fortunes of the Manchu dynasty were at its lowest ebb, Yuan-Shi-Kai was invited by them to lead the armies against the revolutionary forces. The acceptance of invitation by him led to a new twist in the course of the history of Republican China. Yuan-Shi-Kai, a soldier and diplomat from the north, was a rank opportunist, and a realist in politics. But, he had proven experience as an able military administrator. He was neither revolutionary nor republican in outlook. He had a firm belief that republicanism did not suit the needs of China. Ambitious, treacherous, manipulative, manoeuvring, unprincipled and unscrupulous, Yuan-Shi-Kai added problems to the Republic in its early existence.

In a bitter struggle for survival, the Manchu court appointed Yuan-Shi-Kai as Governor - General of Hunan and Hupie in 1911. But, Yuan-Shi-Kai, who was dissatisfied for his dismissal in 1908 by the Manchus, refused to oblige the court. But, when the Manchu armies were defeated, once again the Manchu court requested Yuan-Shi-Kai to come to their rescue. Yuan-Shi-Kai took advantage of the pitiable condition of the Manchu court, and put forth the following demands before the Manchu court. First, a national assembly should be inaugurated within one year. Secondly, a responsible cabinet must be provided. Thirdly, the revolutionaries should be pardoned. Fourthly, ban on parties was to be lifted. Fifthly, full power should be given to him to control the army and navy, and lastly, he should be guaranteed sufficient supply of military funds. The list of the demands impressed every one. The first four demands satisfied the revolutionaries

and the common people. The last two demands indicated his real intention in accepting the offer made by the Manchu court. As there was no alternative, except to yield to his demands, he was appointed imperial commissioner in full charge of the army and navy, on Oct. 27, 1911. But, Yuan was still unsatisfied, and hence, continued his bargain. In the meanwhile, he ordered his chief Lieutenant, Feng-Kuo-Chang successfully defeated the revolutionaries, and occupied Hankow on November, 2nd, 1911. This success of Feng-Kuo-Kai to control the situation. As the bargaining and showing of strength was going on two leaders of the 20th Division of the Manchu Court, demanded the inauguration of constitutional monarchy in China within a year. On October, 24, 1911, unexpectedly, the Manchu Court meekly conceded their demand. Yuan-Shi-Kai was made the Prime Minister, on Nov. 1st, 1911. He then came out of his retirement, and went South to crush the revolutionaries. In the meantime, the Commanders of the 20th Division, 6th Division and revolutionary leaders of Shansi entered into an agreement to attack jointly and to prevent the entry of Yuan-Shi-Kai into Peking, as he was anti-republican. Coming to know of this recent secret understanding, Yuan-Shi-Kai eliminated the leader of the 6th Division on Nov. 7. Afterwards, he assumed the Premiership. He formed his own cabinet. He placed his henchmen in full control of the capital. The regent was made to retire. He then made the boy Emperor and the widowed dowager, his puppets. He then, started flirtation with the revolutionary forces for his future glory and aggrandizement.

Yuan-Shi-Kai sent emissaries to Li-Yuan-Hung to propose peace talks. He proposed joint action and collaboration. However, both his attempts failed to win over the revolutionaries to his side. Then, he persuaded the British Minister, John Jordan, to see that the British Consul at Hankow mediated for truce. The revolutionary leader, Huang Hsing proposed that if Yuan supported the republic, he would be made the future president. When the above negotiations were going on, Sun-Yat-Sen was made the provisional president by election on Dec. 29th Yuan did not like the development and broke off peace negotiations. But, in a mood of disappointment and disillusionment with his followers, Sun-Yat-Sen agreed to step down in favour of Yuan-Shi-Kai. Yuan-Shi-Kai took advantage of the demand of the Ching-Hsiang and in communicated to the revolutionary Government at Nanking, that he would see that the Manchu Court abdicated voluntarily, if the Presidency of the Republic was offered to him. Sun-Yat-Sen, agreed to the proposal of Yuan-Shi-Kai on certain conditions. Owing to the manipulations of Yuan-Shi-Kai, the Chings abdicated their throne on Feb. 12th, 1912. Yuan-Shi-Kai manoeuvred Presidency from the deposed Ching Emperor, but not from the revolutionary Government at Nanking. Sun-Yat-Sen felt exasperated at the duplicity of Yuan-Shi-Kai. Yuan-Shi-Kai then pledged his support to the republic. Sun-Yat-Sen resigned, and Yuan-Shi-Kai was named as the successor on three conditions. The three conditions were as follows: first, Nanking should be the capital. Second, Yuan-Shi-Kai, should assume provisional Presidency at Nanking. Third, the provisional constitution should be drafted by the provisional Parliament. On Feb, 14th, Yuan-Shi-Kai was elected President by the provisional Parliament, and Nanking was made the capital. Though Yuan agreed to have Nanking as the capital, he was not really interested in shifting his power base from the north to the south. Once again, Yuan manipulated riots with the help of his soldiers at Peking. After suppressing them, he explained to the revolutionary leaders that his continuous presence at Peking was necessary. So, he was allowed to inaugurate it in Peking itself on March 10th. On 11th March, Sun-Yat-Sen promulgated the provisional constitution of 56 articles. It was the first political document of China. On April, 1st, Yuan became the President, and Peking was made the national capital on 5th April.

### Check Your Progress - I

1. Why did the provincial military chiefs become important immediately after the 1911 revolution?

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2. Who was the leader who was mainly responsible for the problems of early Republican China?

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### 13.6 CONFLICT BETWEEN YUAN-SHI-KAI AND KUOMINGTANG

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After becoming the provisional President, he started to make a travesty of the republic. He appointed his staunch followers as the ministers of Foreign Affairs, Internal Affairs, War and Navy, and appointed four members of *Tung-Meng-Hui* to the lesser ministries of Education, Justice, Agriculture and Forestry. In due course, he made the cabinet his puppet. Yuan was such a clever schemer, that he pretended as if he had great regard for Sun-Yat-Sen and Huang Hsing, the two revolutionary leaders. He invited them, heard them patiently, and appointed Sun-Yat-Sen as the Director of Railways, and Huang Hsing the Director-General of the Canton, Hankow and Szechwan Railways. While pacifying the two revolutionary leaders, he planned to acquire dictatorial powers.

Yuan conducted elections as per the terms of the provisional constitution, within six months of the formation of the Government. In the elections, the Nationalist Party (*Kuomintang*) under the effective leadership of Sung-Chiao-Jin, won a landslide victory in the lower and upper Houses. Yuan considered Sung-Chiao-Jin to be too dangerous to be left in the opposition. So, he tried to win him to his side by bribery. When his attempts failed, Yuan eliminated Sung-Chiao-Jin through the hand of an assassin. Next, Yuan tried to bolster his image against Nationalists by negotiating an organisation loan of 25 million from the Five Power Banking Consortium. The revolutionary leaders Huang Hsing and Sun-Yat-Sen urged the parliament to reject the loan, but Yuan made the parliament agree to his way by using force. The revolutionaries then impeached Yuan. It resulted in an irreparable break, between the revolutionaries and Yuan.

Yuan then dismissed the Nationalist Military Governors in Kiangsi, Kwangtung and Anhwei. He also got his army ready to attack the Southern revolutionaries. As expected by Yuan, first the Governor of Kiangsi, and later the Governors of Kiangsu, Anhwei, Kwangtung, Fukien, Hunan and Szechwan declared independence by starting the second revolution in July-August of 1913. Within two months, Yuan suppressed the revolutionaries, and his own men took control of the Yangtze area as provincial war lords.

Yuan felt highly elated for his success against the second revolution. This success made him develop unlimited personal ambition. He now began to dream of making himself a life-long president. He also entertained plans to revive the monarchical institution. In his anxiety to

fulfil his dream, he made the Parliament issue the Presidential election law, even before the constitution was completed. Though Yuan intimidated the members of the Parliament with his 'Citizen Corps', he failed to win in the first two ballots. In the 3rd ballot, he was elected President by a plurality of vote. On October 13, 1913, Yuan became the formal President.

In order to curtail the growing powers of the President, the Parliament which has nationalists in majority, promulgated the Tientan constitution on Oct. 31, 1913. This constitution favoured the cabinet system rather than the presidential one. Yuan condemned this constitution as one against the national aspirations. Thus, differences between him and *Kuomingtang* came to surface. When the Parliament did not revoke the new constitution, Yuan went to the extent of dissolving the Nationalist party on Nov. 4, 1913. Thus, by 1914, having brushed aside the constitution, the Parliament and the opposition party, Yuan became the virtual dictator. In order to overcome the legal barriers, Yuan convened a National conference on March 18, 1914 to revise the 1912 provisional constitution. The National conference was attended by 60 representatives. It agreed to revert to the Presidential system, and to authorise the President and the Parliament to prepare a new constitution. The constitutional compact was promulgated on May 1st, 1914. It extended the Presidential term to 10 years. It also gave scope of re-election to the President without any time limit. It gave the right to the President to nominate his successor. Thus, the new constitution made Yuan emperor without the title. By 1915, Yuan was fully prepared to betray the republic.

Yuan-Shi-Kai, thus, prepared the ground to become the emperor. In order to forestall foreign opposition, Yuan agreed to accept the infamous 21 demands imposed by Japan, and signed agreements with Russia and Great Britain, recognising their special interests and positions in Outer Mongolia and Tibet, respectively. In China itself, opinion began to be crystallised that constitutional monarchy alone could save China from all ills. Yang Tu, publicly advocated national salvation through constitutional monarchy. On Aug. 21st, 1915, the peace planning society (*Chouan-hui*) was organised to make Yuan, the emperor. Thus, the movement for revival of the age-old monarchy gained momentum. Yuan-Shi-Kai kept himself conspicuously aloof, and denied his association with the movement. Yet, the National People's Representative Assembly approved monarchy by an overwhelming majority, on Nov. 20, 1915. Then, the representatives of the provinces submitted a petition on Dec. 11 and 12, requesting Yuan to give consent to be the emperor of China. Yuan pretended as if he had no interest and agreed to become the emperor in 1916, with a show of reluctance.

While Yuan was making attempts to betray the republic, Sun-Yat-Sen, who was in exile, reorganised the *Kuomingtang* party, and decided to fight Yuan's betrayal of Republic.

While Yuan was making attempts to betray the republic, Sun-Yat-Sen, who was in exile, reorganised the *Kuomingtang* party, and decided to fight Yuan's betrayal of the Republic.

The revolutionaries started the war against Yuan in 1915. National protection Army of the revolutionaries gave an ultimatum to Yuan on Dec. 23, 1915 to see that the monarchist movement is suspended within 2 days. When Yuan refused, slowly Yunan, Kiachow, and Kwangsi declared independence, and anti-monarchist uprising took place in Shantung. The opposition to Yuan's dream reached its height when all the revolutionary groups unified into one Military Affairs Council. It refused to recognise Yuan as President. Slowly, his henchmen also realised the futility of his attempts, and advised him to resign. Yuan suddenly died in 1916 at the age of 56 in a very shameful and grief-stricken mood. With his demise, the tragi-comic drama of monarchism came to a sudden end. It can be said without any hesitation, that the lawlessness and disorder that followed in the next decade was the handiwork of unprincipled Yuan. His

disappearance generated centrifugal forces, and plunged the country into a period of chaos and disorder. The war lords fought against each other for power and self-aggrandizement without any sense, logic or reason, and made this period the darkest in the republican history of China.

### Check Your Progress - II

1. Who advocated 'National salvation through constitutional monarchy'?

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2. How did the plan to restore monarchy in china fail?

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### 13.7 LET US SUM UP

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1. Between 1912 and 1923 there was much turmoil, political conflict and chaos in china, During that period military chiefs of the provinces became prominent.
2. Yuan-Shi-Kai, who was a rank opportunist was responsible for most of the problems of that period.
3. The plan of Yuan-Shi-Kai to become emperor failed because in 1915 the revolutionaries started a war against him and also because of Yuan's sudden death in 1916.

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### 13.8 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : ANSWERS

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- I
1. The provincial military chiefs became important because of the confusion that prevailed after 1911 and also because of Yuan Shi Kai's dependence on them.
  2. Yuan-shi-kai
- II
1. Yang Tu
  2. The war against Yuan-Shiz-Kai by the revolutions and his sudden death in 1916 failed the plan for the restoration of monarchy in china.

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### 13.9 EXAMINATION MODEL QUESTIONS

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- I. Answer the following questions in about 30 lines each.

1. Sketch briefly the career and achievements of Yuan-Shin-Kai until he became the president.
2. Describe the conflict between Yuan-Shin-Kai and the Kuomintang. What had been its consequences?

**II. Answer the following questions in about 15 lines each.**

1. State the confusion and disunity that had set in among the revolutionaries.
2. How did the military leaders and War lords become prominent?

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**13.10 BOOKS FOR FURTHER READINGS**

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1. H, Clyde Paul & Burton F. Beers : The Far East
2. Gupta R.S. : History of Modern China
3. Immanuel C.Y. Hsu : The Rise of Modern China
4. Latourette K.S. : The Chinese, their History and Culture
5. Vinacke M.H : A History of the Far East in Modern Times
6. Wallar D.J. : The Government and Politics of Communist China

– K.S. Kameswar Rao

## **BLOCK - V**

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### **COMMUNIST CHINA**

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Units 14, 15, 16 and 17 constitute this block. The conflict between the Nationalists and the communists resulting in a civil war and the triumph of the communists in the civil war leading to the establishment of the communist Government in china., are explained in the various units of this block. In the last unit, the achievements of the peoples Republic of china (communist china) are also discussed.

**Unit - 14 : China in World War I and Twenty one Demands**

**Unit - 15 : May 4th Movement and Chinese Communist Party**

**Unit - 16 : Kuomintang and Communist Conflict**

**Unit - 17 : Civil War, People's Republic of China and its Achievements**

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## **UNIT-14 : CHINA IN WORLD WAR I AND 21 DEMANDS**

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### **Contents**

- 14.0 Objectives
- 14.1 Introduction
- 14.2 Background and chinese neutrality upto 1917
- 14.3 21 demands of Japan
- 14.4 Acceptance of the Demands
- 14.5 China drawn into the war by the U.S.A. in 1917.
- 14.6 Effect of the First world war on china.
- 14.7 Let us sum up
- 14.8 Check your progress : Answers
- 14.9 Examination model questions
- 14.10 Books for further Reading

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### **14.0 OBJECTIVES**

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A study of this unit should enable you to

- 1 explain the circumstances in which china entered the world war I
- 2 discuss the aims contents, and effects of the 21 demands on china
- 3 analyse the effects of world war I on china

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### **14.1 INTRODUCTION**

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During world war I, china was disurited and was facing chaos due to the consequences of the political uncertainty after the 1911 Revolution. Taking advantage of that, in 1915 japan pur forth what are known as the 21 demands on china. In this unit, the details of the 21 demands are discussed. The circumstances leading to china's entry into the world war, and the effects of the war on china are also discussed in this unit.

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### **14.2 BACKGROUND AND CHINESE NEUTRALITY UPTO 1917**

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The First World War started in 1914. It was primarily a European conflict. By 1914, though China became a Republic on paper, there war no order, peace and stability in China. China faced political disunity and was economically very weak. Yuan-Shi-Kai, the President of the Republic of China, obtained a loan in 1913 from an international group of bankers to save China from financial bankruptcy. But, this loan tightened the grip of foreign financiers on China. This created friction between the revolutionaries led by Sun-Yat-Sen and the self-seeking President of China, Yuan-Shi-Kai. At that juncture, Yuan-Shi-Kai seemed to have entertained secret designs to revive monarchical form of government in China. The outbreak of the First World War in such a critical situation caused great alarm to the Chinese. The first reaction to the outbreak of the First World War in China was to keep her territories free of hostilities. So, Yuan-Shi-Kai sought the cooperation of the U.S.A. to impress upon the belligerent powers to respect the teritorial integrity of China by allowing her to be neutral. As desired by China, the Americal Secretary of State, Bryan, sounded the other powers about the desire of China. But, as the response from the other powers was not encouraging, China decided to go alone, and proclaimed neutrality.

After the declaration of neutrality by China, the question of the status of territories which were leased to foreign powers surfaced. Naturally, the status of Tsiangtao which was under the control of Germany, attracted the immediate attention of China. China tried to reach an agreement with Germany about the status of the leased territory, but England opposed this move. Japan, which joined the First World War, took the initiative, and sent an ultimatum to Germany on August 14, 1914 demanding the turning over of her leasehold interest in Shantung province to Japan before September 15, 1914. When Germany ignored the ultimatum, the Japanese Government declared War against Germany on August 23, and made preparations to drive out the Germans from Tsiangtao by force. Tsiangtao fell to Japan on the 7th of November, 1914. The Japanese then took over not only the leased territory, but also all German interests in Shantung. Audaciously, Japan took the responsibility of policing the railroads outside the leased territory on the ground of military necessity. The Japanese ousted the Germans from the Customs House at Tsiangtao also. But, President Yuan-Shi-Kai's request that China's neutrality should be protected in respect of the Shantung province was not accepted by Japan. The Japanese took this as a pretext to present China with infamous 21 demands

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### 14.3.21 DEMANDS OF JAPAN

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The Japanese Prime Minister, Hioki presented to the President Yuan-Shi-Kai a set of 21 demands on January 18th, 1915. The 21 demands were divided into five groups. China was asked to keep this as a secret. The first group dealt with disposition of the former German rights in Shantung. China was asked to agree to any subsequent German-Japanese agreement on the disposing of German rights in Shantung. China had to agree not to cede or lease any part of Shantung to any other Power. China had to agree to the construction of a railroad by Japan, connecting Chefoo with Tsington-Tsinian line. China had to consent to the opening of certain cities to the residence and commerce of foreigners. The second group of demands related to Japan's position in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia. China was asked to extend the lease of Port Arthur and Dairen from 21 to 99 years. China was asked to modify her agreements covering the South Manchurian Railway and the Shantung - Mukden Railway. Further, China was asked to permit Japanese subjects to take on lease or own land for commercial, industrial or agricultural purpose. China had to permit the Japanese subjects liberty to enter, reside and travel in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mangolia. The Japanese subjects had to be given the right to engage in mining. China had to obtain Japan's consent before giving concessions to a third party to construct railroads and to extend industrial credits in those areas. Japan was to be consulted first, if China wanted to appoint foreign advisers in these areas. The control and management of Kirin Chagchun Railway was to be placed in Japanese hands for 99 years. The third group of demands were concerned with the Japanese Programme for industrialization in the region of Yangtze vally. Japan insisted that more than adequate supply of iron ore be made available to it by converting the Han-Yeh-Ping company, a Sino-Japanese concern. Further, Japan also wanted mining monopoly to be given to the above company in certain regions of Yangtze valley. The demands of the fourth group related to the non-alienation of Chinese coastal territory. Japan wanted China not to cede or lease to any other power, any harbour or bay or any island along the coast of China. The fifth group of demands were concerned with what the Japanese desired. Japan desired that influential Japanese should be appointed military, political and financial advisers and that China's interior should be open to the Japanese. The Chinese police was to be placed under Sino-Japanese control. Japan also demanded that China should purchase arms from Japan or an arsenal be established under the joint supervision of China and Japan. The Japanese should also be given rights to preach and construct rail lines in South China.

## 14.4 ACCEPTANCE OF THE 21 DEMANDS

The 21 demands were thus presented by the Japanese Prime Minister directly to Yuan-Shi-Kai. He was also advised to keep the presentation of these demands secret. The negotiations went on from January 8th to May, 1915. Japanese Government brought pressure on



Yuan-Shi-Kai to accept them. The Japanese threatened to take military action, if their demands were not conceded. Further, the Japanese made it clear to Yuan-Shi-Kai that they might be forced to give active military and other kinds of assistance to the Chinese revolutionaries who were opposed to the personal ambitions of Yuan-Shi-Kai, if their demands were not met.

### Check Your Progress - I

1. What was the immediate reaction of the Chinese to World War I?

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2. What was the basic aim of the 21 demands?

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The Japanese also tried to placate Yuan-Shi-Kai by informing him that they would help him become king, if he accepted their demands. Yuan-Shi-Kai after a great deal of deliberation agreed to accept the 21 demands. But, he had to face the wrath of the revolutionaries who believed that acceptance of these demands was nothing but the humiliation of the Chinese. Yuan-Shi-Kai could not withstand the concerted opposition, and died in 1916 as a disherited and disappointed man. Li-Yuan-Huan succeeded Yuan as the President. After Li-Yuan-Hung had become President, an attempt was made for unification, as he was the acknowledged leader of most of the rebellious outhern provinces. But, this attempt also failed, and the effective political authority passed into the hands of the military government. In such disunited, disturbed and chaotic conditions, China was made to give up her neutrality and enter the War in 1917.

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#### **14.5 CHINA DRAWN INTO WAR BY THE U.S.A. IN 1917**

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The American President, Woodrow Wilson severed diplomatic relations with Germany in 1917 and requested all the neutral powers to follow her example. The American Minister at Peking successfully persuaded Tuan Chinjui, the then Premier of China to declare war on Germany. Fortunately for America, on 24th of Feb., a French ship, ATHOS carrying Chinese coolies was torpedoed by a German submarine. In this incident over five hundred Chinese coolies died, which made the China formally terminate its relations with Germany on May-14th. This led to fresh troubles in China. There was opposition to Tuan Chinjui, the Premier of China and he was replaced by Chang Hsun, another war lord. He restored the Manchu rule for 12 days. The other war lords, who did not like the new development, brought back Tuan Chinjui as the Premier. Li-Yuan-Hung resigned in the meanwhile, and the *Kuomintang* members of the Parliament attempted to launch a government of their own from Canton. At such a time of deepening political crisis, Tuan Chinjui declared war on Germany on August 14, 1917. Thus, China entered the First World War though it had no direct reason to enter the War because of the persuasion of America. Besides, America, Japan, Britain and France also indirectly pushed China into War with the specific purpose of eliminating the German commercial and industrial competition from a postwar China. However, China had been only a passive participant till 1918.

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#### **14.6 EFFECT OF THE FIRST WORLD WAR ON CHINA**

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The entry of China in the First World War in 1917 brought about certain desired effects for China and for the Allied countries. In the first place, China gained a substantial revision of the tariff. In the second place, China resumed control over German and Austrian residential areas in the various Treaty ports. Thirdly, the Entente powers agreed to cancel the German and Austrian share of Boxer indemnity to be paid by China and to suspend the payment to the Allies for a period of five years. As a result of these concessions, the financial stringency faced by China eased. Finally, China obtained the right to take part in the peace negotiations on an equal footing with Japan. If the above mentioned were gains for China, the Allies in turn gained materially from the participation of China in the War. The labour force supplied by China proved to be very useful to the Allies. China also supplied primary material like food stuffs or raw materials which was of great help to the Allied forces. With the entry of China, the Allied forces could use the German vessels interned in the ports of China.

Though China could not gain substantially by participating in the First World War, it was able to terminate its old unequal treaties with Germany, Austria and Hungary. It also opened the way for new treaties with other powers negotiated on a basis of equality. China signed the Treaty of St. Germain with Austria, Treaty of Neuilly with Bulgaria, and the Treaty of Trianon with Hungary. Added to this, the War contributed in many ways to the growth of

Chinese nationalism. It is no exaggeration that what the Revolution of 1911 failed to achieve was achieved by the First World War. The intellectual foundations of the new China were laid during his period, which brought about significant changes in the national outlook of the youth.

The First World War gave scope for unprecedented expansion of Chinese industry and commerce, particularly in the field of textiles, flour mills, silk, matches, cement, cigarettes, modern banks and joint-stock corporations. The Chinese foreign trade deficit was cut from 166 million taels in 1913 to 16 million taels in 1919. The number of textile companies rose from 22 in 1911 to 121 in 1921, that of modern banks from 7 to 121 by 1923. and that of steam ships from 893 in 1913 to 2027 by 1918, Coal production increased from 12.8 million tonnes in 1913 to 20.1 million tonnes in 1919 and iron from 1 million to 1.8 million in 1919. This industrial prosperity resulted in the emergence of a politically conscious merchant entrepreneur class and labour force which rose to three millions by 1919. This new class, which suffered during the days of imperialism, was determined to defend their country's interests. This also gave impetus to urbanisation and growth of cities. As a result, Peking, Shanghai, Wuhan, Nanking, Tientsin and Canton became large metropolises. These metropolises nourished the growth of a new intelligentsia imbued with a strong patriotic sense and nationalist spirit which was determined to save their country from the double scourge of imperialism and domestic disorder and disunity. Thus, the First World War brought about an intellectual revolution between 1917 and 1923, which led to the ushering in of a new era in the republican history of China.

### Check Your Progress - II

1. Which incident forced china to declare war against Germany?

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2. What was the effect of world war I on the industries in china?

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### 14.7 LET US SUM UP

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1. China wanted to follow the policy of neutrality during the first world war but was forced to enter it in 1917 due to the persuasion of U.S.A. and other allies.
2. Taking advantage of the weakness of china in 1915, Japan put forth 21 demands on china. These demands related to Japan's claims to shantung and south Manchuria and were intended to establish Japanese hegemony over china. The demands were accepted by the chinese president Yuan-Shi-Kai.
3. China gained politically and economically due to her participation in the war. She resumed control over German territories in china and was exempted from the payment of Boxer

indemnity. The industries of china also prospered.

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#### 14.8 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : ANSWERS

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- I
1. The immediate reaction of the chinese to world war I was to follow the policy of neutrality.
  2. The basic aim of the 21 demands was for Japan to gain supremacy over china.
- II
1. The torpedoing of the French ship 'Athos' which was carrying chinese coolies, by a German submarine forced the chinese to declare war.
  2. There was unprecedented expansion of chinese industry, particularly in the field of textiles, and cement due to the world war.

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#### 14.9 EXAMINATION MODEL QUESTIONS

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- I. Answer the following questions in about 30 lines each.
1. Examine the position and policy of China on the eve of the First World War.
  2. Describe the Twenty one Demands of Japan.
  3. What was the effect of the First World War on China?
- II. Answer the following questions in about 15 lines each.
1. How was China made to accept the Twenty one Demands of Japan?
  2. Why did China enter into the First World War?

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#### 14.10 BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING

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1. H. Clyde Paul & Burton F. Beers : The Far East
2. Immanuel C.Y. Hsu : The Rise of Modern China
3. Vinacke H.M : A History of the Far East in Modern Times
4. Wallar D.J. : The Government and Politics of Communist China

– K.S. Kameswar Rao

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## UNIT-15 : 15 MAY MOVEMENT - CHINESE COMMUNIST PARTY

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### Contents

- 15.0 Objectives
- 15.1 Introduction
- 15.2 Causes for the movement
  - 15.2.1 Disappointment caused by the Paris Peace Conference
  - 15.2.2 Resentment against Japan
  - 15.2.3 Growth of nationalism
- 15.3 Intellectual preparation and organisers of the movement
- 15.4 Origin and spread of the movement
- 15.5 Results and significance of the movement
- 15.6 May 4 movement and the growth of the Communist Party in China.
  - 15.6.1 Founding of the Chinese Communist Party
- 15.7 Let us sum up
- 15.8 Check your progress
- 15.9 Examination model questions
- 15.10 Books for further reading

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### 15.0 OBJECTIVES

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From a study of this unit you are expected to

- estimate the significance of the May 4, movement
- analyse its causes and results and
- trace the origin of the Communist Party in China.

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### 15.1 INTRODUCTION

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The May 4th Movement of 1919 and the foundation of the Communist Party of China in 1921 were the two significant events of outstanding importance in the annals of the Republican China. These two significant events gave a new orientation to the aspirations of the Chinese, and gave a new impetus to patriotic and nationalistic urges. In order to understand and appreciate the significance of these events, it is necessary to give a brief account of the condition of China from 1919 to 1921 in particular and the factors that were responsible for the outburst of seething discontentment against Western imperialism and its double standards, and also against the entrenched selfish warlordism that failed to free China from chaos and confusion.

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### 15.2 CAUSES FOR THE MOVEMENT

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The Chinese dethroned the alien and weak Ming rule, and proclaimed China to be a Republic in 1912 with high expectations. The events that took place later shattered the high expectations, and disillusioned all the nationalists on account of the unprincipled selfishness of the President of the Republic, Yuan-Shi-Kai. When he, who was neither a republican nor a revolutionary, but a rank selfish opportunist, was manoeuvring to betray the Republic, and when it was opposed by the *Kuomintang* party led by Dr. Sun-Yat-Sen, the First World War broke out in Europe. As China was not directly involved in the War, Yuan-Shi-Kai decided to be neutral. In the meanwhile, because of the opposition to Yuan-Shi-Kai's personal ambitions, the *Kuomintang* party was banned

by Yuan-Shi-Kai. Dr. Sun-Yat-Sen left for Japan in disillusionment. Taking advantage of the chaotic conditions and political disunity in China and involvement of other Western nations in the War, Japan secretly presented 21 Demands directly to the President, Yuan-Shi-Kai to enhance her position in Shantung. Japan employed the carrot-and-stick policy, and persuaded and coerced Yuan-Shi-Kai to accept most of the 21 Demands. As there was not alternative, Yuan-Shi-Kai accepted most of the humiliating demands of Japan in 1915, after a long period of negotiations. In the words of Immanuel C.Y. Hsu, "the 21 Demands inflamed the Chinese public". Newspapers denounced the demands, prompted by their propagation of anti-Japanese sentiments. Governors and numerous members of the public through their petitions, begged him not to yield. But when Yuan-Shi-Kai consented without the approval of the legislature, students and merchants protested against it. The people vowed to 'externally resist the Great Powers, and internally expel the traitors'. The 21 Demands unexpectedly gave rise to the fear of imminent extinction in the minds of the Chinese. Consequently, there was an outburst of nationalism and resentment against Japanese imperialism. Added to this injury to their nationalism, when Yuan-Shi-Kai in such a highly volatile situation attempted to proclaim himself emperor, there was united opposition from all quarters. The sudden death of Yuan-Shi-Kai in 1916 saved him from a dishonourable exit. The stimulus given by the Japanese to the personal ambition of Yuan-Shi-Kai for their personal ends, made the Chinese hate the Japanese all the more. In such circumstances, the Prime Minister Tuan under the persuasion of America, and for his personal gains, entered the First World War in 1917. China expected that she could participate in the peace negotiations as an equal with other nations, and obtain advantages in the peace negotiations. Further, the participation of China in the First World War, and the active involvement of the Western powers in the First world War, indirectly stimulated the growth of industries in China, and resulted in the emergence of a politically conscious merchant entrepreneur class, and an organised labour force. It also led to the growth of metropolises like Peking, Shanghai, Wuhan, Nanking, Tientsin and Canton. Along with urbanisation, the modern education, imparted to many millions of people, imbued them with a strong nationalistic determination and commitment to save the country from the foreign imperialism and domestic chaos.

### 15.2.1 Disappointment caused by the Paris Peace Conference

At the Paris Peace Conference, the Chinese pleaded that Shantung, the birth place of Confucius and Mencius was the holy land of China and it must be given back to China, as the German rights, which the Japanese claimed to inherit, ceased to exist by the abrogation of all treaties with Germany by her entry in the First World War in 1917. They also argued that Article 5 of the 1898 agreement on Kiachow stipulated that 'Germany engaged at no time to sublet the territory leased from China, to another power'. Further, they pointed out that the 21 Demands were invalid because the Chinese parliament never ratified them. China further argued that by her entry into the First World War in 1917, she could nullify the 21 Demands by involving the principles of international law. When China pleaded thus, the Japanese delegation shocked the Chinese delegation by calmly divulging the 1918 secret agreement between Peking and Japan, which was gladly agreed to after the entry of China into the First World War. Except Wilson, the rest of the Allies could not but support Japan, as they were bound by secret treaties. Wilson with all good intentions, tried to champion the cause of China, but Japan threatened to walk out from the Conference, if her demands were not met. Ultimately, Wilson was persuaded by his own advisers and Allied representatives to do justice to China, later. As a result, on April 28, 1919, the Peace Conference adjudicated the Shantung question in favour of Japan.

### 15.2.2 Resentment against Japan

The decision of the Versailles Peace Conference belied all Chinese hopes, and rudely awakened them. When the news of the Paris decision reached Peking, Chinese faith in Wilson was shattered to pieces. The reaction of the Chinese to the Western betrayal could be understood by Editorial of *Shen-Pao*, an influential newspaper of China. The editorial categorically pointed out "Whoever expects help from others, is doomed to be disappointed. Let our countrymen understand today once and for all that their only course is to act by themselves. Had our countrymen not abandoned their own interests, who could have infringed upon them". The failure of the Chinese delegation at Versailles acted as a catalyst for the national outburst. It was like a last straw on the camel's back. Thus, the immediate cause for the May 4th Movement was the betrayal of the West at the Versailles Peace Conference.

### 15.2.3 Growth of Nationalism

In such a highly charged atmosphere, the return of the Western educated youth and their preachings in popular language, excited the youth with fervent nationalistic urge. Besides these internal factors, the external factors like sentiments of nationalism and democracy, Wilson's ideals of national self-determination, the Bolshevik Revolution in Russia in 1917, the Socialist revolts in Finland, Germany, Austria and Hungary, and the rice revolts in 1917 in Japan, influenced the thinking process of the Chinese intellectuals. All these internal and external factors made them understand the plight of their country, and made them deeply committed to lift their country from internal strife and civil war under the selfish and power-crazy War lords. The Chinese who were roused by the new ideals of democracy and national self-determination, celebrated the victory of Western democracy over German despotism and militarism on Nov. 17, 1918 with great enthusiasm. The Chinese further ardently believed that the long awaited fulfilment of their aspiration was very near, and Woodrow Wilson would forge a new world out of the fragments of the old. In such a mood of high expectations, the Chinese delegation consisting of members from both Peking and Dr. Sun's Canton government, in order to give an appearance of national unity, attended the Paris Peace Conference.

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## 15.3 INTELLECTUAL PREPARATION AND ORGANISERS OF THE MOVEMENT

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The significance of the May 4th Movement can be understood by the intellectual preparation made by the foreign-returned intellectuals. An intellectual revolution preceded the May 4th Movement of 1919. The intellectual revolution was initiated by the foreign-returned intellectuals. Among them, the most important were Chen-Tu-Hsiu, Tsai-Yuan-Pei, Kuo Mojo and Lu Hsun, Hu Shih and Chiong Monlin. Of them, Chen Tsai and Hu were considered to be the giants of intellectual revolution. Chen-Tu-Hsiu mastered Chinese classical studies in youth, and passed the first Ching Civil Service examination in 1896. In 1902, and again in 1906, he visited Japan. He travelled to France in 1907, and was influenced by the political theories and literary trends of France. He returned home in 1910, and participated in the Republican Movement. He was involved in the Second Revolution of 1913, and fled to Japan. As a protest against the 21 Demands, he returned home. Tsai-Yuan-Pei, highly qualified and German-returned, participated in the Republican Revolution, and was appointed minister of education in Dr. Sun's Government. He resigned from that post as soon as Yuan-Shi-Kai became the President. In 1916, he was appointed the Chancellor of the National University of Peking. Hu Shih, American-educated and influenced by John Dewey and Thomas Hexily, was a firm believer in Pragmatism, scientific methods of thought, and the evolutionary improvement of society. He was the advocate of *Pai Hua* (Plain language) style of writing. Chen-Tsu-Hsiu founded a monthly periodical in Shanghai,

*'the Youth Magazine'*. It was later renamed, *'the New Youth'*. Chen appealed through his magazine to the people to give up the outdated, obsolete and stagnant old traditions, and forge a new culture. He emphasised the need to destroy the old order and old behaviour to achieve national awakening. He advised the students to choose all the fresh and vital elements from all the civilizations of the world, and to create a new culture. He boldly attacked Confucian thought, conservatism and traditionalism. His writings attracted the attention of many students, and many of them became his followers.

This new cultural and intellectual movement originated from Tsai-Yuan-Pei, the Chancellor of the National University of Peking. Under his influence, the students of the Peking University organised a magazine called *'The New Tide'*. *'The New Youth'* and *'The Weekly critic'* launched an all-out attack on the bastions of traditionalism, and these acted as intellectual bombshells. The youth under the spell-bound influence of the above intellectuals, began to discuss passionately all the social and national problems. When the Versailles Peace Conference shattered their dreams, and wounded their national pride, the students and youth roared like wounded lions against the betrayal of the West, and betrayal of their own political leaders, and that is called the May 4th Movement.

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#### **15.4 ORIGIN AND SPREAD OF THE MOVEMENT**

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On May 4th, 1919, about 5000 students in Peking held a huge demonstration against the verdict of the Versailles Peace Conference on Shantung. In the words of Immanuel C.Y. Hsu, it was at once 'an explosion of public anger, an outburst of nationalism, a deep disappointment in the West, and a violent indictment of the traitorous, War lord government in Peking'. The students of China, who were enraged by the Western betrayal, vowed to defend Shantung by shedding blood. The students, who were deeply hurt by the national crisis and humiliation, decided to send telegrams to the Versailles Peace Conference to record their protest against the unjust verdict. They also urged the Chinese delegation to reject the treaty, if the terms on Shantung were not revised. They further resolved to stage a mass demonstration. They presented petitions to all the foreign legations to send them to Paris. The demonstrators distributed hand-bills intimating the people of the disgraceful development in Paris, and sought their support. 'Punish the traitor Tsao Julin' was the slogan found on the huge banners that floated over the heads of the processionists. On their way, they attacked the house of Tsao who had gladly accepted the 1918 secret pact between China and Japan. Later, the Police arrived and arrested ten students. The arrest of the students immediately led to a general strike in Peking, and Tsao the Chancellor of Peking, resigned in protest. The strike quickly spread to other major cities. Shop keepers, industrial workers, and employees of commercial establishments all over the country joined hands with the agitating students. The strike was followed by a boycott of Japanese goods by all sections of the public. The Peking regime was forced to release the arrested students by May 7th. As a result of the initiative taken by the students, thousands of telegrams reached Paris. Owing to the mounting pressure from home, and from the Chinese students in Paris the Chinese delegation did not sign the treaty and left Versailles. The objective of the agitating students of the May 4th Movement was achieved by the refusal of the delegation to sign the treaty. The May 4th Movement thus marked a definite watershed in the development of radical nationalism in China. It represented a definite break with the outdated slogans of anti-foreignism against the sea devils. The view of R.S. Gupta that it was also more positive, virile and aggressive, is very appropriate.

#### **Check Your Progress - I**

1. What was the demand of China in the Versailles peace conference, with regard to Shantung?



### 15.6.1 Founding of the Chinese Communist Party

The librarian of National University of Peking, Li-Ta-Cha professed his conversion to Marxism, and started the Marxist Research Society. Li-Ta-Chao praised the victory of Bolshevism, in the November 1918 issue of 'New Youth' and devoted a whole issue of 'New Youth' in 1919, to Marxism. His library became 'Red Chamber', and he created a band of Marxists like Chu-Chih-Tai, Chang-Kuo-Tao and Mao Tse-Tung. The May 4th Movement inspired Chen-Tsu-Hsen so much that he resigned his University post. He made Shanghai, his new home, and organised the Marxist Study Society in May 1920, and a Socialist Youth Groups in August, which happened to be the fore-runner of the Chinese Communist Party. Li-Ta-Chao in Peking started 'The Society for the Study of Socialism' in December, 1919. By 1920, the United Party Peking Society for the study of the Marxist theory was founded. A.A. Muller and N. Bortman, two Russians, who visited China, offered help in 1919, but nothing materialised in the direction of founding a party till the arrival of Grigori Votenskiy, an agent of Comintern. He contacted both Chen and Li at Shanghai and in Peking respectively. In July 1921, the founding meeting of Chinese Communist Party was held secretly at Pown Middle School for girls in the French part of Shanghai. It was attended by 12 delegates. Li and Chen did not attend the meeting. In spite of their absence, Li and Chen were honoured as co-founders of the Communist Party of China. Chen was elected General Secretary of the Communist Party of China. Thus, the May 4th Movement of 1919 hastened the founding of the Communist Party of China in 1921.

#### Check Your Progress - II

1. In which year did the May 4, movement take place?

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2. Who are honoured as the Co-founders of the communist party in china?

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### 15.7 LET US SUM UP

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1. The May 4th Movement was chiefly the result of the anger of the Chinese against the injustice done to China by the Paris Peace Conference, with regard to Japan's hegemony over Shantung, a province in China.
2. The foreign returned Chinese intellectuals among whom, Chen-tu-Hsi and Hsueh-shik were the most prominent played an important role in prompting among the youth, nationalism and anti-imperialist outlook.
3. As a result of the huge demonstration of students on May 4, 1919 and the pressure exerted

by the chinese delegation in the paris peace conference did not sign on the treaty relating to china.

4. The May 4 Movement has been described as a nationalist, anti imperialist movement. Mao Tse Tung described it as 'an essentially anti-imperialist and anti-fendal bourgeois democratic resolution.
5. The May 4, movement created a favourable atmosphere for the growth of communism in china. It inspired many young intellectuals to dedicate their lives to the cause of the communist party in the country.
6. The communist party in china was founded in July 1921. Li-ta-chao and chen-Tsu-Hsen are considered as the founders of the communist party in china.

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### 15.8 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : ANSWERS

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- I 1. China's demand was the withdrawal of Japan from the shantung province.  
2. The disappointment of the chinese over the failure of the peace conference to secure **Justice** for china was the immediate cause for the May 4, movement.
- II 1. 1919.  
2. Li-ta-chao and chen-Tsu-Hsen

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### 15.9 EXAMINATION MODEL QUESTIONS

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- I. Answer the following questions in about 30 lines each.
  1. Briefly analyse the causes that led to May 4th Movement
  2. State the spread and significance of the May 4th Movement
  3. How did Marxism and Communist Party make their beginnings in China?
- II. Answer the following questions in about 15 lines each.
  1. How did Yuan-Shih-Kai's policies contribute for the growth of resentment against foreign imperialism?
  2. State the disappointment meted out to China at the Paris Peace Conference
  3. How did the growth of nationalism help the rise of the May 4th Movement?

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### 15.10 BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING

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1. Immanuel C.Y. Hsu : The Rise of Modern China
2. Vinacke H.M : A History of the Far East in Modern Times
3. Paul H. Clyde & Burton F. Beers : The Far East
4. Wallar D.J : The Government and Politics of Communist China

– K.S. Kameswar Rao

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## UNIT-16 : KUOMINTANG AND COMMUNIST CONFLICT

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### Contents

- 16.0 Objectives
- 16.1 Introduction
- 16.2 Birth of the Kuomintang
- 16.3 Co-operation between Kuomintang and the communists
- 16.4 Reorganisation of the Kuomintang by Michael Borodin
- 16.5 Ideology of Kuomintang
- 16.6 The northern expedition and Kuomintang Chinese Communist Party split.
- 16.7 The Long March of the communists - causes, course and results.
- 16.8 Japan's aggression on China and unity between the Kuomintang and the communists to fight Japan
- 16.9 Chiang-Kai-Shek - life and services to the Kuomintang.
- 16.10 Let us sum up
- 16.11 Check Your Progress : Answers
- 16.12 Examination model questions
- 16.13 Books for further reading

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### 16.0 OBJECTIVES

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A study of this unit should enable you to

- Analyse the relations between the Kuomintang and the Chinese Communist Party
- Trace the origin and growth of the Kuomintang Party
- Explain the ideology of the Kuomintang
- Analyse the causes, course and results of the Long March of the communists and
- Narrate the life history of Chiang-Kai-Shek and estimate his services to the Kuomintang.

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### 16.1 INTRODUCTION

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The period between 1920 and 1938 is a crucial period in Chinese history. During that period up to 1927, between the Nationalist Party (Kuomintang) and the Communist Party there was co-operation in spite of ideological differences. However, the strain due to the differences between the two parties increased and there was a break between the two parties in 1927. Later in 1931 the Japanese aggression on China brought the two parties together. In this unit the developments in China relating to the birth of the Kuomintang Party and its growth are explained. The relations between the Kuomintang and the Communist Parties and the life and work of Chiang-Kai-Shek are also explained in this unit.

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### 16.2 BIRTH OF THE KUOMINTANG

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In the annals of modern China, the year 1920 has an important place. It was so because from the early 1920s, China was launched on to a new revolutionary path. This new revolution was directed by Kuomintang (Nationalist Party) and *Kungch'ang* (Communist Party of China).

The Kuomintang was started by Dr. Sun-Yat-Sen, the father of Chinese nationalism. In the Chinese language, 'Kuo' means country, 'min' means people, and the combination of 'Kuomin' means national or as an adjective, it means nationalist. 'Tang', in Chinese language stands for party. Thus, Kuomintang, means the (Chinese) Nationalist Party.

The Kuomintang had its origins in the earlier *Tung-Ming-Hui* (United Party) started by Dr. Sun-Yat-Sen in 1905, which was instrumental in successfully overthrowing the alien and the weak Ming regime and proclaiming China as a Republic in 1912. Dr. Sun-Yat-Sen, appeared to have been disappointed by the lack of unity of purpose and discipline among his followers after they achieved their objective. It received precious cooperation from his followers. He also encountered disobedience and obstruction to his programmes, ever since the Republic was founded in 1912. In 1919, *Tung-Ming-Hui* was reorganised as Chinese Nationalist Party. In 1919, influenced by the success of the Bolshevik Revolution of 1917, Dr. Sun-Yat-Sen was prompted to plan the reorganisation of the Kuomintang. Further, the May 4th Movement also influenced him to rejuvenate the fragmented Kuomintang. But, attempts to rebuild the Kuomintang had to wait till 1923. Besides disunity and disobedience among his followers, the reluctance of the West to support his plan of development of China also caused lot of frustration to Dr. Sun-Yat-Sen. Instead of being neutral, the Western imperialists patronised the War lords. This also disappointed Sun-Yat-Sen. Thus, throughout the Republican period, Sun-Yat-Sen had to face three problems - foreign imperialism, party disunity and civil strife. In such a disillusioned mood, Sun-Yat-Sen was influenced by the success story of the Bolshevik Party. Further, the Soviet offer of freindship and abolition of the unequal treaties, made him turn to Soviet Russia. Consequently, he became eager to reorganise the *Kuomintang* Party on the lines of the Russian Communist Party. Further, the fervent nationalism and buoyant public spirit of the youth of the May 4th Movement and Chinese Communist Party's connections with labour and agrarian organisations also influenced him to open the door of the aged organisation to the youth. All the above factors contributed to an understanding between Russian and Sun-Yat-Sen in reorganising the Kuomintang or the Chinese Nationalist Party.

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### **16.3 COOPERATION BETWEEN KUOMINTANG AND THE COMMUNISTS**

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The Comintern's Dutch agent, H. Maring met Sun-Yat-Sen in the spring of 1921. Each was impressed by the other's ideologies. Maring, who was convinced that Kuomintang was the mainstream of Chinese nationalism, urged the Communists to join the Kuomintang. The Communist Party leaders of China, Chen and Li reluctantly agreed, and in 1922, the central committee of the Chinese Communist Party allowed the individual members to join the Kuomintang. Li-Ta-Chao was the first Communist individual member who joined the Kuomintang. Sun-Yat-Sen had his own reasons to open the doors of the Kuomintang to the Communists. The Communists had their own reasons to join the Kuomintang. Thus, both *Kuomintang* and the Chinese Communist party agreed to work together from 1922. Adolf Joffe was despatched by the Comintern to China to work out the basis of Comintern and Chinese Communist Party's cooperation. He arrived in Peking on August 22, 1922. Sun-Yat-Sen and Adolf Joffe had lengthy correspondence and negotiations. The meeting of Sun and Joffe led to the proclamation of a joint manifesto in January, 1923. In his negotiations, Sun-Yat-Sen made it clear that he will not substitute Communism for his Three Principles. He said that leadership would be in the hands of the *Kuomintang*, and the Communists would be allowed to enter the Kuomintang as individual members, but not as a group or block. Sun-Yat-Sen thus achieved his objective on his own terms.

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## 16.4 REORGANISATION OF THE KUOMINTANG BY MICHAEL BORODIN

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After the Sen-Joffe agreement, the Soviets despatched Michael Borodin, an experienced diplomat, to help Sun-Yat-Sen to reorganise the *Kuomintang* Party, and General Galen to help him to train the army. Along with them, 40 Soviet advisers were also sent to China. In August, 1923, Sun-Yat-Sen despatched Chaing-Kai-Shaik to Russia to study the Russian military system and methods of political indoctrination and discipline of the Red Army, and the Bolshevik party. Chaing-Kai-Shaik, returned after 3 months training in Russia. Sun-Yat-Sen then commissioned Chaing-Kai-Shaik to start the Whampoa Military Academy outside Canton. The Academy was meant to provide the *Kuomintang* with a cadre of trained officers to lead the *Kuomintang* troops.

Soon after his arrival, Borodin was appointed by Sun-Yat-Sen as adviser to the *Kuomintang*. Borodin lost no time in transforming the *Kuomintang* into a highly disciplined body, united by a common programme on the model of the Russian Communist Party. The Party was hierarchically arranged at local, sub-district, district, provincial, and central levels from the bottom to the top. A constitution was drafted, and according to Article 21 of the Constitution, Sun-Yat-Sen was appointed President for life. The Constitution provided unlimited powers to Sun-Yat-Sen as the President. Borodin chalked out a programme of strict discipline, of intense political propaganda of Sun-Yat-Sen's Three Principles emphasizing social legislation, 'equalization' of land, state control of capital and monopoly, and the programme of building up an army to drive out imperialism. Sun's concept of nationalism was interpreted as anti-imperialism, his peoples' livelihood; as the role of the masses-workers and poor peasants - in national reconstruction, Borodin himself wrote the Constitution *Kuomintang* in English. Sun-Yat-Sen went through it, checked it, and the Constitution which was in English, was translated into Chinese. Members were asked to join afresh. The Central Executive Committee membership of the *Kuomintang* was fixed at 24, and out of them, 3 were elected from the Communists. The first Congress of the reorganised *Kuomintang* was held in January, 1924. In this Congress, the ideology or the philosophy of the *Kuomintang* was announced by Sun-Yat-Sen.

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## 16.5 IDEOLOGY OF KUOMINTANG

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The ideology of the *Kuomintang* or the philosophy of the national revolution can be known from the following documents: (1) The Party Manifesto adopted by the Congress in 1924, (2) Three Principles or *San-Min-Chu* of Sun-Yat-Sen and (3) "The Fundamentals of National Reconstruction" dated April 12, 1924, and finally (4) The will of Sun-Yat-Sen drafted before his death on March, 12, 1925. Nationalism, Democracy and the Peoples Livelihood are the "Three Principles of the People" advocated and propagated by Sun-Yat-Sen. He gave top priority to the concept of nationalism because he believed that China was like a rope of sand. He pointed out that though, the particles were alike, it lacked the cement that made the rope strong. Hence, he advocated that the cement was nothing but nationalism. He also pointed out that the Chinese society should be transformed into a political state by the development of authority. He advocated that the loyalty of Chinese people should be transferred from the clan, family and village to the state. He further pointed out that all the five races which constituted the Chinese population should have equal status both internally and externally.

Sun-Yat-Sun's second principle of national reconstruction was Democracy. He argued in favour of democracy because he thought that it was the best guarantee against the renewal of personal despotism and struggles for power among the rival leaders. It can be said that his plea for democracy was a renewed plea for republicanism. He was of the opinion that the Government should be based on the sovereignty of the people. So, he proposed election, recall

initiative and referendum as devices to control the government. However, he pointed out that as the Chinese people were not adequately trained and motivated to exercise their right to choose the right form of Government, there should be a three-stage evolution in their progress towards democracy. These three stages, advocated by him were: (1) a period of military operations to be followed by (2) a period of political tutelage which, in turn, was to be followed by (3) the period of Constitutional and democratic Government. Thus, he advocated democracy to be introduced stage by stage in a slow and gradual evolutionary manner.

Sun-Yat-Sen's third principle, Principle of People's Livelihood represents his view on how political power and authority should be directed for the betterment of the people's living conditions. In this, he differed from the Marxian doctrine of class war, and he observed that particular attention should be paid to the problem of the livelihood of the peasants as China was primarily an agricultural country. According to him, "the principle of livelihood is socialism; it is Communism. Communism is an ideal of livelihood, while the principle of livelihood is practical Communism". He advocated the regulation of capital, and said that state capital should be provided for the promotion of the industry in China.

The Three Principles of Sun-Yat-Sen and the ideology of the *Kuomintang* were one and the same. The survival of the Chinese nation on the basis of unification of China appears to be the first objective of the *Kuomintang*. The unification of China was to be achieved through effective national loyalty and political regime.

#### Check Your Progress - I

1. Who was the comintern leader with whom Sun-Yat-Sen had negotiations regarding co-operation between the *kuomintang* and the communist parties?

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2. What were the three principles of the *kuomintang* party?

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### 16.6 THE NORTHERN EXPEDITION AND KUOMINTANG - CHINESE COMMUNIST PARTY SPLIT

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After achieving the organisational cohesiveness of *Kuomintang*, Sun-Yat-Sen planned to undertake Northern expedition to wipe out the war lords, and to frustrate their imperial supporters. A civil war in the North which broke out in 1924, gave him the opportunity. Sun-Yat-Sen quickly organised a campaign, but in the meanwhile, the War lord alliance broke because of his friend, Yu-Hsiang. Feng-Yu-Hsiang overthrew the Tsao-Kun Government, and occupied Peking. He extended an invitation to Sun-Yat-Sen to attend a conference on national unification. Sun

accepted the invitation and proceeded to Peking. It was in this conference that Sun fell seriously ill, and died on March 12, 1925. He died with the following message: "The Revolution is not yet complete; comrades must strive on".

After the death Sun-Yat-Sen, his political mantle fell on Wang-Cheng-Wei, the left-wing leader, and on Her-Han-Mun, the right-wing leader. Chiang-Kai-Shek, the superintendent of Whampoa Military Academy possessed military power. The cadets of the military academy become a very powerful military factor. Thus, the Kuomintang members were divided into right and left wings. After the death of Sun-Yat-Sen, Chiang-Kai-Shek followed the centralist attitude towards the problem of national reconstruction. A nationalist Government was established on July 1st, 1925 at Canton. By February 1926, Komingtang and Kwangsi provinces were brought under their control. The Nationalist government appointed Chiang-Kai-Shek as Commandant-in-Chief of the National Revolutionary Army to resume the Northern Expedition. On July 27, 1926, Chiang-Kai-Shek set out on northern War lords Wu Peifu, Chang-Tsa-lin and Sun-Chaun-fang. Wu-Pei-fu was in the control of Honan, Hupei part of Chilli and Hunan, and the Peking Wankow Railway. Chang Tso-lin was controlling Peking, Manchuria, Chilw, Shantung, and the Fengtue, Peking and Tientsin-Pukow Railways. Sun-Hsi-Shan established a firm base in Shansi, and Feng-Yu-Ksiang's National People's Army was controlling north-west.

Chiang-Kai-Shek, with the help of Soviet supplies and aided by Chinese Communist Party advance agents, conquered the entire Southern half of China, by March, 1927. The campaign of Chiang-Kai-Shek, thus won, spectacular success. But at this juncture, the split between the Kuomintang and the Chinese Communist Party also surfaced.

A critical survey of the intentions of the Kuomintang and the Communist Party, make us conclude that the Kuomintang-Communist Party collaboration was an uneasy marriage of convenience. Each needed the other, but distrusted the other. The Kuomintang needed badly the Soviet aid to revitalise the loose knit Kuomintang, to develop a trained army, and to carry out the national revolution. It also wanted to utilise the Communist ties with the workers, peasants and the masses for its advantage. On the other hand, the Comintern and the Communist Party wanted to utilise the Kuomintang base to expand their influence, and to subvert Kuomintang from within. Cooperation lasted as long as it was useful to both of them. Each hoped to emerge as the victor when the other outlived its usefulness. Sun-Yat-Sen's stature and prestige held together the various elements decisively, but his death in March, 1925 unleashed divisive forces.

The conflict was caused primarily by the radicalisation of the Party under the influence of the Communist Party. They organised labour unions and peasant associations, and pushed class struggle and the anti-imperialist movement. In the meanwhile, certain incidents led to clashes against foreigners, and the image of the Communists and Russia brightened. The two parties competed for direction of nationalist policy, control of mass organisation, and recruitment of new members. The Russian strategy was to split the Kuomintang, and drive out the conservatives, and to make it more radical. Some of the members of Kuomintang who anticipated this Russian strategy, tried to stop the leftward movement. In August, 1925, Liaw-Chung-Kai, one of the strong supporters of Russia was killed by the conservative wing of Kuomintang. In retaliation, some of the conservatives were driven away from Kuomintang by Borodin, Chiang-Kai-Shek and Waan-Ching-Wei. As a counter move, the conservative wing expelled Borodin and the Communists, and suspended Wang-Ching-Wei, and set up a rival Kuomintang headquarters at Shanghai. The left wing leaders organised the Second National Congress at Canton in 1926, and endorsed the radical policies and the Russian influence. At this juncture, Chiang-Kai-Shek, the then Commander of the National Revolutionary Army, took steps to curb the Communists

and to send away the Russian officers. Readjustments were made in the party affairs. According to the readjustments, Communists were no longer permitted to hold high offices in the central headquarters. After making these preparations, Chiang-Kai-Shek started the Northern Expedition in July 1926. Thus, by 1927, open conflict between the left wing of the Kuomintang headed by Wang-Ching-Wei, and the right wing under Chiang-Kai-Shek appeared to be inevitable. It was because of personal rivalry between Wang-Ching-Wei and Chiang-Kai-Shek, and differences over alliance with the Communists. Further, Wang's fear of Chiang's military machine, and the opposition of Borodin, who disfavoured Chiang's advance on Shanghai, and urged the Kuomintang to proceed to north, also were responsible for the split. After capturing Shanghai in 1927 March, Chiang-Kai-Shek, realising that the unity between the Communist Party and the Kuomintang was impossible, with the help of landed gentry and vested business interests, launched a massacre of Chinese Communist Party members, and all suspected Communists on 12th April. Russians then pinned their hopes for the continuation of the alliance upon the left wing of Kuomintang of Wang-Ching-Wei in Wuhan. The left Kuomintang reaffirmed the policy of collaboration. Consequently, three governments were established in China - (1) The recognised Government in Peking, (2) The National Left Government of the Kuomintang in Wuhan, and (3) A New National government under Chiang-Kai-Shek at Nanking. But friendship between the left Kuomintang and the Communist Party did not continue for long. In mid July the Wuhan Government also purged the Communists from its midst and sent the Comintern advisers, including Borodin, off on a long trek back to Moscow.

After driving away the Communists, both Chiang-kai-Shek and Wang of the rightist 'Western Hill' faction at Shanghai, proposed a reconciliation between the different wings of Kuomintang. A special central committee was established at Nanking, and after all the differences were resolved, again Chiang-Kai-Shek was reappointed Commander-in-chief of the national army. Thus, the split between Kuomintang and the Communist Party became a reality by 1928. As per the understanding, in February, 1928, the Wuhan government was dissolved. Chiang-Kai-Shek resumed his northern expedition. By the beginning of the year 1929, a greater part of China was united by Chiang-Kai-Shek, after 13 years of civil anarchy Nanking was made the capital of the new government.

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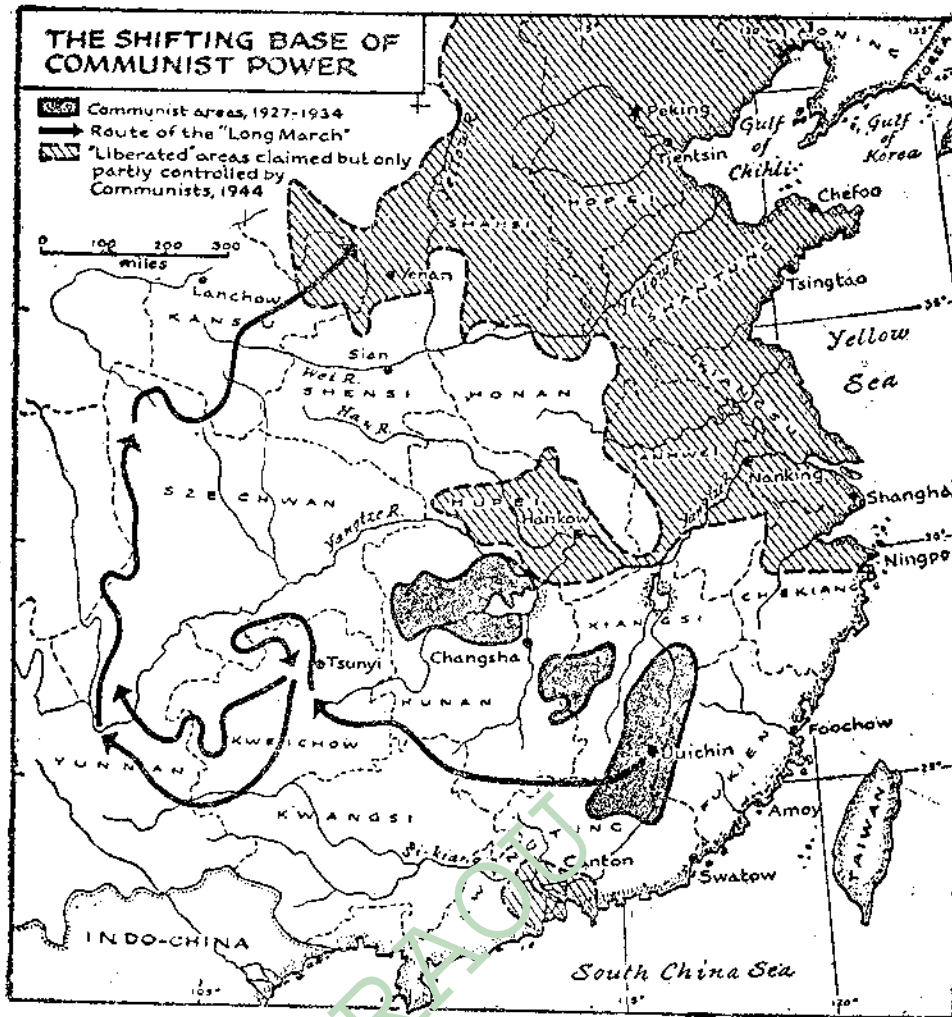
## **16.7 THE LONG MARCH OF THE COMMUNISTS-CAUSES, COURSE AND RESULTS**

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The Nationalist government headed by Chiang-Kai-Shek at Nanking had to face the domestic squabbles of dissident politicians within the Kuomintang, rebellious war lords, and rising Communist opposition in the south-east under the dynamic leadership of Mao. It had also to face the Japanese aggression in Manchuria, Shanghai and north China. Thus, the decade of rule of nationalist government from 1928 to 1937 was fraught with internal troubles and external invasions. Chiang-Kai-Shek spent most of his time and energy to suppress the rising Communist opposition, but ultimately failed. The reasons are many for his failure. They will be discussed later. Here, the growth of the Communist Party under Mao and the significance of the Long March in the history of modern China will be discussed.

The Communists of China, after their split with the Kuomintang in 1927, were split into two distinct entities. One was led by Moscow and the other was led by Mao-Tse-Tung. Mao's tactics were in opposition to both Moscow and Chinese Communist Party Politbureau. His tactics paid great dividends to the Communist Movement in China.

Between 1930 and 34, Chiang-Kai-Shek launched a total of five campaigns of encirclement and extermination against the Communists. Undaunted, Mao launched the famous Long March to save the Communist Party from the campaigns of Chiang.



The Long March began on October, 16, 1934. The Red Army consisting of one lakh persons which included 35 women, left Kiangsi Soviet on the historic Long March. A part of the Red Army was left behind to fight a rearguard action. But, on November 10, 1934 Juichin, the Red capital was captured by the Kuomintang. Red guerillas continued to fight till 1938, braving all difficulties. The entire attention of the Kuomintang was focussed on the Red Army, which started the Long March. It was an unplanned journey from Kiangsi in the South-west to Shensi in the North. From October 16, 1934 to October 20, 1935, the first front Red Army under Mao and Chu Teh marched a distance of difficult terrain. They crossed 18 mountains, and forded 24 rivers, They crossed several deserts, extremely treacherous swamp lands, and numerous territories inhabited by wild tribes. Almost during the entire march of the Red Army, it was pursued and attacked by the Nationalist Armies, by land and air. The local War lords and landlords of the eleven provinces through which the Red Army passed, also opposed and impeded its progress. Consequently, the Red Army had to fight more than 200 battles and many skirmishes. Thousands were killed in battle, or drowned in turbulent rivers, or killed in epidemics. Out of 1,00,000 members of Red Army, only 20,000 reached Shensi. Thus, without any doubt, the Long March proved to be an extraordinary feat of human endurance. While the Red Army was fighting the pursuing Kuomintang, the War lords and the landlords, the politically trained cadres continued the activity of revolutionary propaganda. The socialist education went on continuously, and the Red Army expropriated landlords, destroyed land deeds, redistributed the confiscated lands, abolished the taxes and freed the slaves. As a result, the peasant population began to regard the Red Army as an army of liberation. The Red Army taught the people to form Soviets, and organise peasant units. The Army also supplied the necessary arms to the peasants, sometimes to fight against the Kuomintang. During the course of the Long March and after, the absolute supremacy of Mao was established at the Tsunyi conference in January, 1935.

The significance of the Long March can be described in the following words of Mao. "Speaking of the March ..... we say that the Long March is the first of the kind ..... it is a manifesto, an agitation corps and a seeding machine. The Long March is a manifesto. It proclaims to the world that the Red Army is an army of heroes.... The Long March is also an agitation corps. It declares to approximately two hundred million people of eleven provinces that only the road of the Red Army leads to their liberation. The Long March is also a seeding machine. It has sown many seeds in eleven provinces which will sprout, grow leaves, blossom into flowers, bear fruit, and yield harvest in the future". What all Mao predicted in his estimate of the importance of Long March, proved to be a fact, by the victory of the Communists gained in 1949. Thus, the Long March successfully proved the effectiveness of the programme of Mao, and made Mao a great leader of China, to be reckoned as one of the most famous 20th century mass leaders of the world.

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## 16.8 JAPAN'S AGGRESSION ON CHINA AND UNITY BETWEEN THE KUOMINTANG AND THE COMMUNISTS TO FIGHT JAPAN

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The Japanese invasion of Manchuria in the year 1931 and the creation of Manchuko in 1932, and the failure of the League of Nations to come to the rescue of the Chinese, created a strong anti-Japanese feeling in China. At the end of the historic Long March, Mao understood the mood of China, and he gave a call for "Chinese unity against the Japanese". It received instant response from all quarters. Consequently, under his sponsorship, popular organisations such as 'The National Liberation Anti-Japanese Association,' 'The People's Anti-Japanese League' and 'The National Salvation Society', 'Immediate War with Japan.' "Stop fighting the Communists," received tremendous applause from the patriotic youth in Peking, Nanking and Shanghai. Thus, feverish popular pressure increased demanding an end to the civil war, and the turning of the guns against the Japanese. Thus, by 1937, once again the Kuomintang and the Chinese Communist Party, formed a common front to fight against the Japanese.

While a united front was formed to fight against the Japanese, events in Japan were leading to a more extensive extension of Japanese arms in China. Taking advantage of the woeful conditions prevailing in Japan, dominant fanatical and extremist young officers in the army dreamed of creating Greater East Asia, and searched for a pretext to declare a war against China. In July, 1937, the Japanese army took a step which precipitated a momentous and titanic struggle. Thus, the second Sino-Japanese War which started in 1937, continued upto 1945.

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## 16.9 CHIANG-KAI-SHEK-LIFE AND SERVICES TO THE KUOMINTANG

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Chiang-Kai-Shek who dominated the political scene of Republican China, over a quarter of century, from the death of Sun-Yat-Sen in 1925 till 1949, occupies a unique place in the history of China. Though, neither an idealist revolutionary like Sun-Yat-Sen, nor a passionate believer in the ultimate success of Communism, like Mao-Tse-Tung, yet as one who presided over the destiny of the Nationalist Government in a critical situation of Republican China, and as one who achieved national unification of China, and as one who steered the ship of China through stress and strain, he occupies a significant place in the history of China.

Chiang-Kai-Shek was born in the year 1888 in the province of Chekiyang. His mother was a staunch devoted Buddhist. When he was 8 years old, his father passed away in 1896. He went to Japan at the age of 19, after finishing his school education in China. He returned to China as he failed to secure a seat in Japan's Military Academy. He finally joined the Military Staff College at Japan. His visit to Japan was a turning point in his life. It was in Japan, that Chiang-kai-Shek

came into contact with the father of Chinese nationalism, Dr. Sun-Yat-Sen. He was very much inspired by the preachings of Sun-Yat-Sen and became an ardent nationalist. He joined as a member of Tung-Ming-Hui and participated in the 1911 Revolution. He proved himself to be a brave and wise man in the wars in South China. He also worked as personal secretary of Dr. Sun-Yat-Sen for a period of seven years from 1913 to 1920. He left political activities, did business for a short while. He was sent to Moscow to master the military tactics, and learn the art of indoctrination. He was appointed the Director of the newly established Whompoa Military Academy. After the death of Sun-Yat-Sen, he became the Commander-in-chief of China, and since then, he became the head of the Kuomintang Party and the Nationalist Government.

Chiang-Kai-Shek was brought up to become a soldier, and grew up to think like a soldier, and to him all problems had only military solutions. He visualised the needs of China in terms of army division. He dreamt of making China a strong military power with a powerful central government. He did not give serious thought to the need for economic, social and political reforms. Further, Chiang considered both democracy and communism as alien concepts, and unsuitable to China. He pleaded for a return to the Golden age of Confucious in his book "China's Destiny". He refused to understand that the Confucius heritage had become obsolete to the Chinese society of 20th century. He tried to combine his desire for power with the idealism of Sun-Yat-Sen. Chiang, who swore by the name of Sun-Yat-Sen, had made political tutelage a permanent affair, because of his love for power. He never allowed the existence of any opposition parties or of any opposition. He created the Blue Shirt Movement, to suppress all those who did not see eye to eye with him. His insatiable love for power made him support incompetent and unscrupulous sycophants. Consequently, the Government over which he presided was absolutely incompetent, corrupt, brutal and repressive. So, gradually and slowly, all sections of the population began to be alienated from Kuomintang partyk presided over by Chiang-Kai-Shek. It is no exaggeration to suggest that the greatest ally of Communism and Mao himself was undoubtedly Chiang-Kai-Shek. Chiang-Kai-Shek's refusal to adjust himself to the subtle pressures of reality, his lust for power, his political myopia, his failure to translate Sun-Yat-Sen's vision of democratic China into a reality, ultimately led to his failure, and collapse of the Kuomintang started by Dr. Sun-Yat-Sen.

### Check Your Progress - II

1. Where and when did the long march start?

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2. Mention two reasons for the failure of Chiang-Kai-Shek's Government.

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## 16.10 LET US SUM UP

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1. The Kumintang or the Nationalist party of China had its origin in the Tung-Ming-Hai (United Party) which was started in 1905. In 1914 it was reorganised as the Kuomintang.
2. Nationalism, Democracy and peoples livelihood are the three important principles of the Kuomintang.
3. The Long March was organised by Mao tse Tung to save the communist party from the attacks of the Nationalist party. It was a historic march which started on October 16, 1934 and ended on October 20, 1935.
4. Chiang-Kai-Shek who was in power between 1925 and 1949, friendly failed against the communist because of his own drabacks.

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## 16.11 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : ANSWERS

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- I
1. Adolf Joffe
  2. Nationalism, Democracy and peoples livelihood.
- II
1. It started from Kionsion on October 16, 1934.
  2. Chiang-Kai-Shaik's government failed because of its incompetence, corruption and repression.

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## 16.12 EXAMINATION MODEL QUESTIONS

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I. Answer the following questions in about 20 lines each.

1. What are the factors that contributed for the birth of the Kuomintang?
2. Describe how Michael Borodin brought about the reorganisation of the Kuomintang.
3. State the ideology of the Kuomintang.
4. Critically analyse the events that led to the Northern Expedition and the Kuomintang-Communist Party split.
5. Examine the causes, course and results of the Long March of the Communists.
6. Estimate the life and services of Chiang-Kai-Shek to the Kuomintang.

II. Answer the following questions in about 15 lines each

1. Analyse the cooperation that existed between the Kuomintang and the Communists during the years 1921-23.
2. Why did the split essentially occur between the Kuomintang and the Communist Party?

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## 16.13 BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING

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1. Clyde H. Paul & Burton F. Beers : The Far East  
: History of Modern China
2. Gupta R.S. : The Rise of Modern China
3. Immanual C.Y. Hsu

4. Wallar DJ

: The Government and Politics of Communist China

– K.S. Kameswar Rao

BRAOU

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## UNIT-17 : CIVIL WAR, PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF CHINA

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- 17.0 Objectives
- 17.1 Introduction
- 17.2 Break-up of the alliance between the Kuomintang and the communist party of china
- 17.3 Failure of Hurely and Marshall mission to bring about reconciliation between the Kuomintang and the cummunists
- 17.4 Civil war and the establishment of the Republic
- 17.5 Career and Estimate of Mao-Tse-Tung.
- 17.6 Causes for the success of the cummunists
- 17.7 Achievements of the peoples Republic of China
- 17.8 Let us sum up
- 17.9 Check your progress : Answers
- 17.10 Examination Model Questions
- 17.11 Books for further Reading.

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### 17.0 OBJECTIVES

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Study of this unit should enable you to

1. Describe the events leading to the out break of civil war in china
2. Explain the events leading to the establishment of the communist Government in China.
3. Analyse the cuases for the success of the communist party
4. Trace the career of Mao Tse Tung and estimate his achievements.
5. Estimate the achievements of the peoples Republic of china

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### 17.2 INTRODUCTION

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The Civil war in china between 1945 and 1949 completely changed the course of chinese history. In 1949 the people's Republic of china was established and the communist Government began its rule. In this unit, the circumstances leading to the out-break of the civil war, the factors which were responsible for the succers of the communists and the establishment of the communist Government in china in 1949 are explained. The career and achievements of Mao Tse Tung and the achievements of the people's Republic of china are also discussed in this unit.

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### 17.2 BREAK-UP OF THE ALLIANCE BETWEEN THE KUOMINTANG AND THE COMMUNIST PARTY OF CHINA

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The united front of the Kuomintang and Communist Party formed to fight against Japan in 1936-37, did not survive for long. The united front broke because, it was based on mutual distrust and suspicion. Further, Chiang-Kai-Shek was never happy to from the united front. Likewise, the Communists did not trust Chiang-Kai-Shek completely, because he was fundamentally anti-communist, and betrayed them number of times. In the begining of 1938, a veteran Communist leader defected to the Kuomintang party. He revealed that the real intention of the Communist party was the expansion of their influence and that they wanted to fight against Japan only

nominally. This news startled the Kuomintang, leadership. Immediately, the important mass organisations of the Communist party were suppressed. This led to a quarrel between the Communists and the Kuomintang. To counteract the moves of the Kuomintang, the Communists propagated that they were the most determined fighters in the anti-Japanese war. Chiang-Kai-Shek denied the propaganda of the Communists. It is true that the Communists did not fight any pitched battles with the Japanese, but Mao explained that they did not fight, because it was a bad strategy. Between 1937 and 1940, the Communists formed rural guerilla bases in Japanese-occupied and liberated territories, and organised under their rule, a population of 100 million people. This made the Japanese to regard the Chinese Communists as their main enemy. The Communists increased their strength, because they were preparing for a final showdown with the Kuomintang. In 1930-40, Chiang-Kai-Shek launched offensives against the Communists. So, Mao declared that Chiang was trying to oppose Communism, and so, the stress should be on struggle, but not on unity. As suspected by Mao, a Communist division was ambushed in 1941 by the Kuomintang forces. In this surprise attack, 6000 Communists were killed. Mao accused Chiang of plotting this incident, as part of general plan to destroy all Communist forces in alliance with the Japanese. Stalin and the Russian press described Chiang as the personification of the anti-Japanese struggle. Thus, relations between the nationalist government and the Communists had worsened since 1941, in 1943, that the Communist problem was purely a political problem, and can be solved by political means. Though he proclaimed like that, Chiang never tried to find out a political solution. In 1944 February, half a million Chinese nationalist troops were despatched to fight the Communists in north-west China. Thus, while America was fighting against Japan seriously, the nationalist troops of Chiang-Kai-Shek were busy fighting the Chinese Communists. Stilwell, an American commander, complained to the U.S. Chief of Staff that Chinese civil war was hindering the anti-Japanese war. The U.S.A. also refused permission to Chiang to use American arms against Chinese Communists. By 1944, Japan was visibly on the verge of surrender, and in Europe also, the Allies were doing well. This made Roosevelt, the President of America, to think of bringing about a settlement between the two rivals of power in the World War. Thus, the relations between the Kuomintang and the Communists again broke, and this led to the American intervention, to bring about unity between the two rival parties.

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### **17.3 FAILURE OF HURELY AND MARSHALL MISSION TO BRING ABOUT THE RECONCILIATION BETWEEN THE KUOMINTANG AND THE COMMUNISTS**

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Thus, U.S. President, Roosevelt despatched Vice-President Wallace to visit Chungking, the capital of China, in June 1944, to talk with Chiang about the need for reconciliation between the Kuomintang and the Communists. Chiang informed the American Vice President that, he would happily welcome American initiative to settle the Communist problem. President Roosevelt assigned Major-General Patrick J. Hurely as his personal representative in response to Chiang's appeal for intervention.

Patrick J. Hurely was sent by America because, his view on Chinese affairs were identical to those of President Roosevelt, Hurely was sent with a clear mandate to unify all anti-Japanese military forces in China, to defeat Japan, and help them to establish a free, united and democratic set-up in China. Hurely flew to Yanan in November, 1944, to have talks with Mao and other Communist leaders, and to bring about reconciliation between the two Parties. As a result of the talks, agreement between the National Government of China, the Kuomintang of China, and the Communist Party of China, was signed by Mao and Hurely, Hurely promised the Communists that he would secure the approval of Chiang Kai-Shek. When the Hurely-Mao draft was shown to

Chiang, he became furious and summarily rejected it. Hurely tried to persuade Chiang-Kai-Shek to accept the proposals, but failed.

The National Government made a fresh offer in January, 1945. The new proposals were not approved by Mao. At this juncture, the Yalta Conference took place in 1945. As a result of the Yalta Conference, Stalin agreed to participate actively in the anti-Japanese war. On August 8th 1945, the Soviet Union entered the War. On August 9th, Mao welcomed the entry of Russia and called on his forces to fight vigorously against the Japanese and the puppet forces, and extended the liberated areas. Chu-Teh declared that they had the right to demand and accept the surrender of Japanese forces. This statement of Chu-Teh was criticised by Chiang as abrupt and illegal activity. At this juncture once again, negotiations were renewed to avoid conflicts. Mao flew with Hurely to Chungking for negotiations. But once again, the negotiations got bogged down. So, Mao left for Yanan in October. Hurely was concerned by the Sino-Soviet Pact, and thought that the Soviet Union would assist the National Government, and not the Communists in China. He convinced the State Government that the policies concerning China and Manchuria were identical in the case of America and Russia. But, Moscow changed its policy, and helped the Chinese communists to get Japanese arms and ammunition, left behind by the Japanese forces. Consequently, America also decided to change its policy, and decided not to give assistance to Chiang, if he ignored the U.S. advice. Hurely opposed this new policy of conditional support to Chiang, and resigned his post on November 27th, 1945. Thus the attempts of Patric J. Hurely to bring about reconciliation between the Kuomintang and the Communists, ended in failure.

President Truman then appointed General George Marshall, as a Special Presidential Ambassador to China, in the month of November, 1945. Marshall was instructed to assist the Nationalist Government in establishing its authority as far as possible, but not to involve the United States in any direct military intervention. He was also instructed to urge Chiang to convene a national conference of all the major parties to deliberate on the cessation of the Civil War, and the unification of the country. It was made clear to him that his mission must be to see that a strong, united China should emerge. He was also specifically instructed to make clear to Chiang that large-scale American aid would depend on the achievement of truce and national unity. With the above categorical instructions, Marshall arrived in China in mid-December, 1945. Fortunately for him, he found both the parties in receptive mood to his mediation. He suggested the following measures to be implemented immediately. They were: (1) a ceasefire in the Civil War; (2) the convening of a political consultative conference to deliberate the formation of a coalition government; and (3) the integration of the Kuomintang Party and the Chinese Communist Party forces into a national army. Though he was received cordially by both the parties, the extremists in both the Parties harboured feelings of antipathy towards American intervention. Though they were willing for his mediation, in their heart of hearts, both the Kuomintang and the Communists were confident of their victories, if they were asked to decide for themselves. Each group proposed its own conditions for collaboration. In this atmosphere of conflicting and contradictory aspirations, Marshall committed the Kuomintang and the Communists to convene a political consultative conference, and creating a Tripartite Executive Headquarters consisting of the nationalist, one Communist and one American member. The American member was made the Chairman. It is also agreed that all the decisions were to be unanimous. Similarly, three party teams were sent to supervise the ceasefire operations. The political consultative conference was convened between January 10th and 31st. Its membership was fixed at 38. After lengthy deliberations, they resolved to create a supreme organ of the State with multi-party State council with executive and legislative authority. They agreed to recognise in future, the province as the highest organ of the local government. Another achievement

of Marshall was the agreement reached by the Kuomintang and the Communist Party about the integration of the two into a national army on February 25, 1946. These achievements of Marshall made President Truman announce the establishment of a United States Military Mission in China, under General Wedemeyer. In March, 1946, Marshall returned to America to arrange for a loan of 5,000 million from the Export and Import Bank. The extremist elements in the Nationalist Party strongly felt that the agreement with the Communists was imposed by Marshall. They also felt that without his intervention, the Nationalists could have scored a decisive victory. On the other hand, the communists also accepted his intervention as long as it was advantageous to them. In his absence, once again they ignored the truce, and scrambled for power. By April, 1946, what started as local clashes, escalated into large fighting. Consequently, the resolutions of the Political Consultative Conference, remained unfulfilled dreams. Marshall who returned to China, tried to check the fighting between the two Parties. Owing to his efforts, a fifteen days truce was arranged on June, 6th. By mid-1946, both the Kuomintang and the Communists decided to go in their own way, disregarding Marshall's advice. Emboldened by his success, Chiang convened the National Assembly, on November, 12th. Immediately, the communists and the Democratic League declared it illegal, and boycotted it. Mao gave a call for a war of self-defence. Thus, the split had widened into an unbridgeable gulf. Marshall tried his best to bring about rapprochement, but failed. Thus, Hurely and Marshall failed in their attempts to forge unity between the Kuomintang and the Chinese Communist Party, and the Civil War which became inevitable was intensified.

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#### 17.4 THE CIVIL WAR AND THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE REPUBLIC

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In a little more than four years after Japan's surrender, the Chinese Communist Party and the People's Liberation Army conquered mainland China, and on October 1st, 1949, the people's Republic of China was established, with its capital at Peking. The process of Civil War between the Nationalists and the Kuomintang has to be studied in three phases. The first phase lasted from August, 1945, to the end of 1946. During this phase, the Nationalists and the Communists raced to take over Japanese-held territories, built up their forces and fought many limited engagements, while still conducting negotiations for a peaceful settlement. It was during this phase only that, Hurely and Marshall, American representatives tried to bring about an agreement between the Nationalists and the Communists. The second phase started from 1947, and continued till the first half of 1948. During this phase, the Nationalists gained initial success, but the strategic balance turned in favour of the Communists. Beginning in January 1947, Lin-Piao launched a series of small offences. By July, the Nationalists lost half of the territory in Manchuria, and much material, but Lin-Piao was not strong enough to occupy Manchuria. The strategic initiative passed to the People's Liberation Army sometime in 1947. In mid-summer, Lin-Po-Chang moved towards the Yangtze. Slowly, the Communist army conquered Chin Chore, Chang Chung and Mukden; the Communist capital at Shihchia Chung. Thus, the Communists consolidated their position in north China. The Year 1948 was the turning point. In central China, the Communists won important towns. In north China, they encircled Fiyuan, the capital of Shansi, took most of Chahar and Juhol provinces on Manchurian western flank, and recaptured Yunan. The decisive battles were fought in Shantung and Manchuria, where the best Nationalist armies were crushed by the Communists. Beginning in December 1947, the Communists cut off all railway connections into Mukden, and isolated the Nationalist garrisons in Manchuria.

The third phase of the Civil War started in the later part of 1948, and continued upto 1949. During this period, the Communists won smashing victories. Between early November, 1948 and early 1949. January, the two sides battled for the control of Hsu Chow. With Manchuria and most of the eastern region south to the Yangtze in Communist hands, the fate of Tientsin and

Peking was sealed. Tientsin and Peking fell into the hands of the Communists. At this juncture, Chiang-Kai-Shek retired in 1949 January, and requested Vice president, General Li-Tsung-gen to negotiate peace with the Communists. But, Li's peace negotiations proved fruitless. The Nationalists still were not prepared to surrender, and they tried to secure American support. But, America refused to involve herself in China's Civil War and internal political problems. After the peace negotiations failed, Communists armies crossed the Yangtze, virtually unopposed. The Nationalists abandoned their capital, and moved to Canton. In succession, Communist forces occupied Nanking, Hankow and Shanghai, and Sian fell into the hands of the Communists by May 20 1949. During the last half of 1949 powerful Communist arms succeeded in taking the provinces south and west of China. On October 1st, 1949, with most of the mainland held by People's Liberation Army, Mao proclaimed the establishment in Peking of the Government of the People's Republic of China.

### Check Your Progress - I

1. Why did the American efforts to forge Unity between the Nationalists and communists fail?

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2. When did the civil war in China start?

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## 17.5 CAREER AND ESTIMATE OF MAO-TSE-TUNG

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Undoubtedly, Mao-Tse-Tung stands as a Colossus among the leaders of the 20th century. As a teacher, statesman, strategist, philosopher, prolific writer, national hero, and the greatest liberator in history, Mao has no parallel. It is no wonder, the Chinese describe "Mao a Confucius plus Lao Tzu, plus Rousseau, plus Marx, plus the Buddha".

Mao's career from 1893 to 1976 can be divided into two halves for a critical analysis. The first phase of his career ends with 1949 - the year in which he founded the People's Republic of China. The second phase ends with his death in 1976.

Mao was born in 1893 in the village of Shao Shan in Hsiang T'an country, Hunan province, south of Hankow on the Yangtze river. His father, Mao Jen Shung was an ex-soldier, and a small peasant. Mao's mother was wholly illiterate, and a devout Buddhist, who gave young Mao religious instruction. His education began in 1901, at the age of 8 in his village school. Mao was stimulated by "*Words of Warning to an Affluent Age*" written by Cheng Kuyan Ying. While he wanted to acquire more and more knowledge, his father insisted that he should help him in his work. So, Mao deserted his parents at the age of 15. At 18, he joined Tungshan Primary School in the nearby Hsian-hsiang. Here, he was introduced to Western education, and read a book on

*'Great Heroes of the World'*. He was particularly fascinated by the life of George Washington. His stay at Hsiang-hsiang marked the beginning of his intellectual and political apprenticeship. Here, he developed a dislike towards the landlord gentry class, as he was ill-treated by them at his school. He then joined at Changsha in a middle school. At Changsha, for the first time, he read a newspaper of Sun-Yat-Sen and from it, he came to know about the 10th failure of Sun-Yat-Sen to bring a revolution. He became an admirer of Sun, and his *Tung-Meng-Hui*. Influenced by Sun-Yat-Sen, he wrote his first article, wherein he advocated the establishment of a Republic, with Sun-Yat-Sen as the President. He was also a man of action in the beginning. He cut off his big hair tail, as it had no relevance to his times. When the Revolution of 1911 broke out, he joined the Hunan unit of the Revolutionary Army. While he was in the Revolutionary Army, he developed interest in the theory of socialism. He joined Hunan provincial First Normal School in 1913 at the age of 20, and graduated from it in 1918. These 5 years were the most important, crucial and formative years of his life. Here, he developed new ideas and techniques. He was very much influenced by his two teachers - Yuan, and Yang-Chang-Chi. He was also much influenced by the intellectual movement of 1919. He took active interest in the student politics. In 1918, he went to Peking, and then joined as Assistant Librarian in the National University of Peking. He came into intimate contact with Li-Ta-Chao, one of the founders of the Communist Party of China. He took active part in the movement of May, 4, 1919 by organising the Hunan students into a union. He successfully organised a strike which also enhanced his prestige. He started a journal *'Hsiang River Review'* at Changshai. He used to criticise the government very vehemently. His journal was banned after its fifth issue. He then started a weekly, *'New Hunan'*, but it was also banned.

Mao joined the Communist Party of China in 1921. He became the Secretary of the Party for Hunan, and started self-study university in 1921. In 1923, he published a new monthly, *'The Modern Age'*. By 1922, he became Chairman of 22 working class unions. Mao attended the first meeting of the New Kuomintang held in 1924, as a delegate from Hunan. Mao coordinated the work of the Communist Party and the Kuomintang at Shanghai. He wholeheartedly supported the Kuomintang Communist Party alliance which aroused suspicion about his among the Communists. His health broke down, and so, he went to the countryside of Hunan, and organised the peasants. By 1925, the peasant movement became very powerful under his leadership. He was appointed the Principal of the Peasant Training Institute at Canton. He also became the Secretary of the Propaganda Department, and editor of Kuomintang weekly. During the rift between Kuomintang and Communist Party, he pleaded for rapprochement with the rightists, as the split would weaken the national revolution, and delay Chinese national unification. Mao went on collaborating with Chiang, even after Chiang purged the Communists in 1927 because, Mao obviously felt that the strengthening of the of the peasant revolt would hasten the course of the Chinese Revolution. Mao was convinced that the Chinese Revolution could not succeed without the help of peasants. When the Communists decided to split from Kuomintang Mao was appointed head of the Department of Peasants. But, the Comintern annulled his appointment, Mao's Autumn Harvest Uprising of 1927 at Hunan failed. But, Mao withdrew with his troops to the mountainous regions of Ching-kagshan, and established the first Soviet there in 1927. He organised his own government there, and implemented his idea of *'Socialist education'*. He taught, preached and practised in his Soviet. But, Chinese Communist Party did not like his activities, and he lost his hold there. He then invited Chu Teh to join him. While Mao and Chu Teh organised the peasant movement, the Chinese Communist Party disapproved his plans. Mao became a national hero after his successful Long March, and in the bitter protracted Civil War, he successfully defeated the Nationalist forces, and heralded a new era in China by establishing a People's Republic of China in 1949. Since then, till his

death in 1976, Mao struggled hard to create a modern, strong and developed Socialist China, and to enhance the prestige of the Middle Kingdom. Mao by his dogged tenacity, will power, and dedications to the cause very near to his heart, made himself unique in the annals of the modern world.

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## 17.6 CAUSES FOR THE SUCCESS OF THE COMMUNISTS

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There were many factors responsible for the triumph of the Red Flag of the Chinese Communist party in its struggle against the Nationalist Party founded by Dr. Sun-Yat-Sen. The first factor responsible for the success of the Communists was the power-crazy, incompetent, corrupt, and repressive regime of Chiang-Kai-Shek from 1928 to 1949. *Kuomintang* under his stewardship, got itself alienated from the people. All sections of the people hated the rampant corruption and inefficiency of the leaders and bureaucrats. Another factor was the Second Sino-Japanese War. The eight year Sino-Japanese War sapped the vitality of the army of the *Kuomintang*, and it made them war-weary and exhausted, but the army was asked to fight with the dedicated cadres of the Communist Party. In that struggle, finally they failed. The tactics and strategy applied by Chiang were also responsible for their failure. Another factor responsible was the failure on the part of the *Kuomintang* to implement necessary socio-economic and political reforms to meet the aspirations of the people. On the contrary, the Communists showed that Marxism was the only way for national reconstruction, with social justice and economic equality. Finally, the leadership of Mao was also responsible for the success of the Communists.

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## 17.7 ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF CHINA

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Mao-Tse-Tung and the Chinese Communist Party inherited a China which had been ravaged and weakened by the war lords, foreign imperialists, and the protracted and bitter Civil War. When the rule of the People's Republic began, industry was debilitated, agricultural production was at its lowest ebb, and the transportation system was very inadequate. In a country of 3.75 million square miles, there existed only 13,500 miles of railroad line, and 81,000 miles of passable road. Inflation had rocketed beyond control. Added to the above dismal picture, the government was faced with the problem of demobilising the large national army, resettling refugees, and to integrate politically and administratively, a country which had not been truly unified for over a century.

Despite the stupendous obstacles operating against them, the Communists could succeed building a modern industrialised society, because of the intense commitment of the cadres, solid support of the villagers, and persuasive methods adopted by the political leadership. Marxism and Leninism gave them the necessary stimulus to march ahead with their set objective of establishing a Socialist State.

The first priority was given to rehabilitate the economic life of the nation, and restore industrial and agricultural production to pre-War period level. In order to promote financial stability, they issued a people's currency (*Jenmin piao*) in May, 1949, and banned the circulation of foreign currencies as medium of exchange. Next, it tried to achieve price and wage stabilisation. They viewed this through the reduction of paper money in circulation, and by fixing up of the wages of the proletariat, basing on the five basic items like rice, oil, coal, flour, and cotton cloth. As the prices fluctuated, the value of the money received as wages also fluctuated, but not the purchasing value of the money. They also took measures to safeguard savings and bank deposits. In order to facilitate the exchange of commodities, the communication lines were restored by the People's Liberation Army. They introduced agricultural, industrial, commercial, sales and income taxes. By these measures, they controlled the inflation. In 1950, it introduced the Agrarian Reform Law, which abolished the 'land ownership system of feudal exploitation'. The

government confiscated excess lands, and redistributed to landless peasants. By December, 1952, the government redistributed 700 million mow of land to 390 million peasants. Then, they started collectivization of land in 1953 December. The object of collectivization process was to achieve the socialistic goal of transformation speedily. It was completed by 1957. Agricultural producers cooperatives were formed as early as 1954. By 1957, 97% of the peasantry were organised into Agricultural Producers' Cooperatives. They were subdivided into production brigades and production teams. The anti-rightist movement and the socialist education movement of 1957, brought an increasing radicalisation of the countryside. Mao's encouragement fuelled a mass enthusiasm in early 1958. The high watermark of the Great Leap Forward was reached in July, 1958. By the end of 1958, 99% of the peasant population had been organised into 26,578 communes, with an average of 4,637 households per commune. But, as the Great Leap Forward did not achieve the desired results, Mao resigned his Presidency in December, 1958. He became the head of the Chinese Communist Party, but yet retained control over major policy decisions. Mao implemented the Socialist Education campaign for a period of two years, from 1963 to 1965. It was followed by the Cultural Revolution which raged for three years from 1966 to 1969. It was directed against the cultural operations and the economic policies of Sun-Yat-Feng and revisionists in the Communist Party.

The Government tried to increase the industrial output, and the First Five Year Plan was started, and by the year 1956, achieved spectacular advance in industrial output. After the success of the First Five Year Plan, they launched a more ambitious Second Five Year Plan for 1958-62. The object of it was the overall increase of 75% in both industrial and agricultural production by 1962, and a 50% increase in national income. In order to achieve rapid industrialisation, the Government produced a number of necessary technical personnel, by modifying the educational system to suit the needs of a society in transformation. Family planning was implemented with all vigour to reduce the population explosion. Mao introduced the democratic centralisation concept, and the political authority was controlled by the Communist Party and the Government. His death in 1976 unleashed a struggle for power between radicals and moderates. Ultimately, with the backing of the army, the democrats obtained power, and purged the radicals and the Gang four. Presently, they are following the moderate line, to achieve social justice, economic equality and development with growth.

They made it the aim of education to replace the former Confucian values, and to create men and women equipped with skills required by a society on the road to modernisation and industrialisation. They believed that true communists must be both 'red' and 'expert' i.e., politically committed and professionally competent. The works of Marx, Lenin, Stalin and Mao became their new bibles. They depicted the past as dark, corrupt and decadent. Thus, through the use of mass organisations, secret police, and mass communications media, indoctrination of the Chinese people was done to remodel the society. Every sphere of creative activity, literature, dance, music and painting was influenced by their politico-socio-ideals of Communism.

#### Check Your Progress - II

1. Why did Mao give importance to the peasants Movement?

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2. What was the first priority of the Chinese Communist Government?

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### 17.8 LET US SUM UP

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1. The Americans wanted to forge unity between the Nationalists and the communists for the successful waging of the war against Japan. However the efforts of Maj.Gen.Patrick Hurley the personal representative of President Roosevelt and of Gen George Marshall, the special Ambassador of President Truman, failed.
2. The civil war in China between the Nationalists and the communists took place between 1945 and 1949.
3. With the success of the Communists in the civil war on 1 October 1949, Mao proclaimed the establishment of the People's Republic of China.
4. The life story of Mao is a story of dogged tenacity, tremendous will power and dedication to the cause of establishing Communist Government in China.
5. The defects in the programmes of the Kuomintang party, inefficiency and corruption of the Communist party workers, the leadership of Mao and such other factors were responsible for the success of the communists.
6. The improvement of the economic life in China, through increase in industrial and agricultural production, was one of the important achievements of the People's Republic of China. Reorganisation of the education system replacing Confucian values with modern values was another important achievement of the People's Republic of China.

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### 17.9 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : ANSWERS

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- I 1. The American efforts to forge unity between the Nationalists and communists failed because the ideals of both were different.
2. The civil war in China began in the year 1945.
- II 1. Mao gave importance to the peasants movement because he thought that the Communist revolution in China is not possible without the peasants movement.
2. The first priority of the Chinese Communist Government was to restore economic growth in the country by increasing agricultural and industrial production.

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### 17.10 EXAMINATION MODEL QUESTIONS

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- I. Answer the following questions in about 30 lines each.
  1. How did the united front of the Kuomintang and Communist party break up?
  2. Why did the Hurley and Marshall missions fail to forge unity between the Kuomintang

and the Communists?

3. Trace the Civil War that led to the establishment of the Republic in China.
4. Briefly describe the career and achievements of Mao-Tse-Tung.
5. Examine the achievements of the People's Republic of China.

**II. Answer the following questions in about 15 lines each.**

1. Describe the efforts of Hurley Mission to bring about Kuomintang Communist reconciliation.
2. Trace the initial success that was achieved by Marshall Mission in keeping the Kuomintang and the Communist together.
3. What were the causes that contributed for the success of the Communists?

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**17.11 BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING**

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1. Clyde Paul. H. & Burton F. Beers : The Far East
2. Gupta R.S. : History of Modern China
3. Immanuel C.Y. Hsu : The Rise of Modern China
4. Scott Latourette K. : The Chinese, Their History and Culture
5. Vinacke H.M : A History of the Far East in Modern Times
6. Waller D.J. : The Government and Politics of Communist China

– K.S. Kameswar Rao

## **BLOCK - VI**

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### **JAPAN - BACKGROUND**

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This block has two units. The first unit gives an account of the geographical features of Japan and also explains the nature of the Japanese people. The History of pre-modern Japan is also briefly explained in the first unit. The second unit gives an account of the Foreign missions which came to Japan in the 19th century and explains the fall of the Tokugawa shogunate.

**Unit - 18 : Geographical Features, People and Tokugawa shogunate**

**Unit - 19 : Foreign Missions and Decline of the Tokugawa shogunate**

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## **UNIT-18 : GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES, PEOPLE AND TOKUGAWA SHOGUNATE**

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### **Contents**

- 18.0 Objectives
- 18.1 Introduction
- 18.2 Islands of Japan
- 18.3 Mountains and Rivers
- 18.4 Climate
- 18.5 Minerals
- 18.6 Influence of Geography
- 18.7 Nature of the People
- 18.8 Social Divisions
- 18.9 Cultural Influence of China
- 18.10 Religion - Shintoism
- 18.11 Early history of Japan till the Tokugawa Shogunate
- 18.12 Tokugawa Shogunate (1600-1867)
- 18.13 Social Economic Conditions
- 18.14 Let us sum up
- 18.15 Check Your Progress : Answers
- 18.16 Examination Model Questions
- 18.17 Glossary
- 18.18 Books for Further Reading

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### **18.0 OBJECTIVES**

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Study of this lesson should enable you to

- Explain the geographical features of Japan
- Describe the nature of the Japanese and analyse the cultural influence of China on Japan
- Explain the social Divisions in Japan and also the religions of that country.
- Describe the political social and economic conditions in Japan during the Tokugawa shogunte (1600-1867)

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### **18.1 INTRODUCTION**

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The geography of any country influences the history of that country. Japan is no exception to this statement. Hence for an understanding if the history of modern Japan, the geographical features of Japan are outline. The history of Japan of the pre-modern period is also briefly narrated in this unit as a background for explaining the developments in modern Japan.

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### **18.2 THE ISLANDS OF JAPAN**

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The island country of Japan (Nihon) is known as the land of the "Rising Sun" off the East Coast of Asia. It has a curving chain of volcanic islands. Japan is made up of four major islands - Hokkaido, Honshu, Shikoku and Kyushu. Honshu, the central island, is the largest.

Hokkaido is to the north of Honshu. Shikoku lies to the south east of Honshu and is

separated from it by an island-sea. Kyushu is situated to the south-west extremity of Honshu. Most of the land is mountainous in the four major islands. Though the land is mountainous, several fertile plains of considerable size can be located among the peaks and forest crags. Likewise, many flat-bottomed river valleys and countless smaller patches of arable soil can be found among the peaks and forest crags. Its total land area is 372, 488 Square Kilometres. It has a total population of over 105,000,000. Japan is bounded to the west by the sea of Japan, to the north by La Peronese strait and the sea of Okhotsk, to the north by Kuril islands, to the east and south by the Pacific Ocean and to the south-west by the East China sea. Of the four major islands, the island of Honshu has five-eighths of the total area, and three-fourths of the total population of Japan. It is divided into three regions-northern, central and western.

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### **18.3 MOUNTAINS AND RIVERS OF JAPAN**

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85% of Japan's land surface is covered by the mountains, whose slopes are incised by dense river-valley networks. Japan's mountains have been influenced by the organic formation of six mountain arcs, off the Pacific coast of Asia. They are the Chishima Range of the Kuril islands, the Karafuto mountain system of Shakin island, the north-east, south-west, and Shichito-Mariana ranges of Japan, and the Ryukyu island formations. The four major land form areas of Japan-Hokkaido island, the north-eastern, central and south-western regions have developed as a result of the formation of these arcs. Japan's highest mountain, Fujiyama, which rises to 3,776 mts. is in the central region of Honshu island. Japan's rivers are generally short and swift running. The most important rivers are the Teshio and Ishikari rivers of Hokkaido, the Kitakami, Shimano, Koso and Tenru rivers of Honshu and the Chikugo, the largest river of Kyushu. Some of the rivers from the volcanic areas of north-eastern Honshu are acidic, and are useless for irrigation and other purposes. The largest lake in Japan is Lake Biwa (Biwa Ku) and there are other lakes also.

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### **18.4 CLIMATE**

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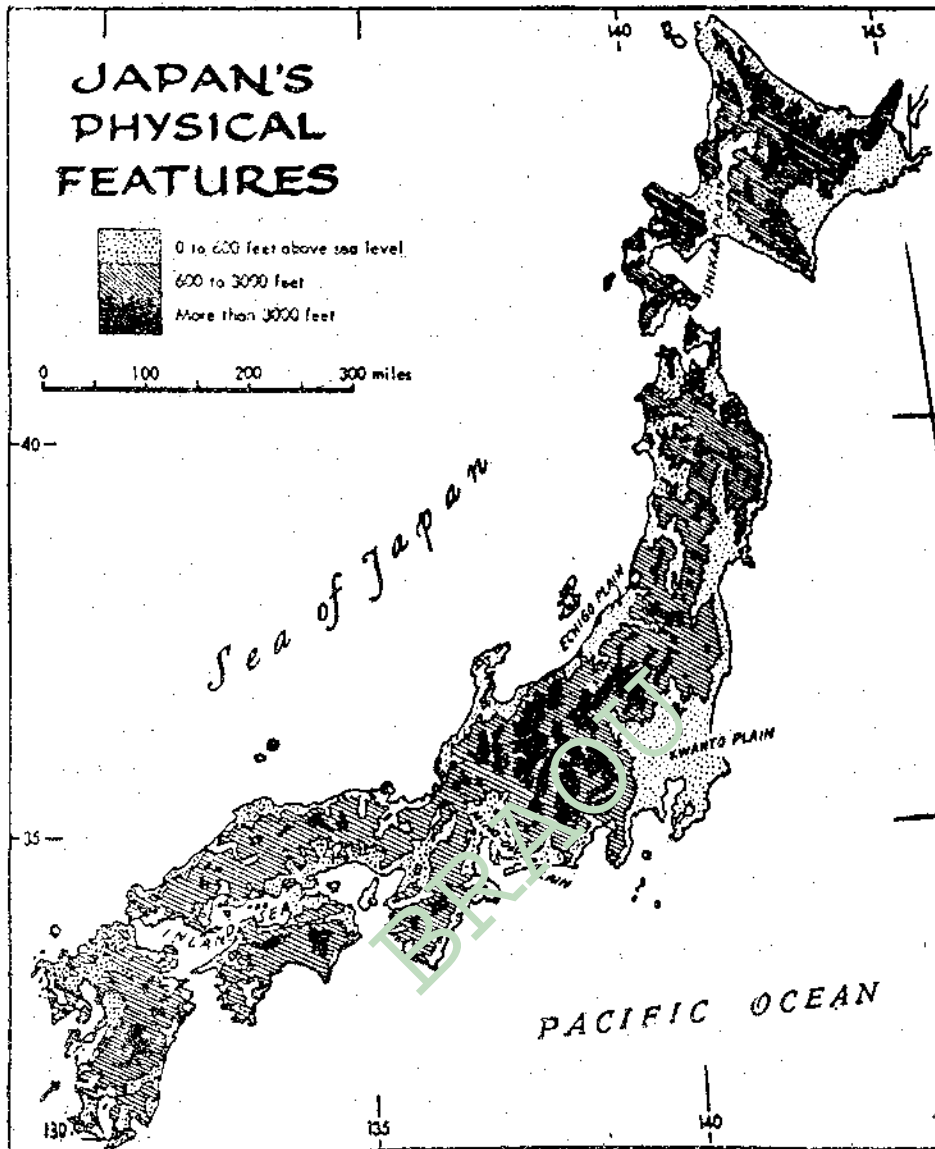
Japan is situated in the temperate zone. It enjoys a temperate climate, which encourages hard work and much activity. It is also suggested by some geographers that the successive cyclone disturbances made the people vigorous and active. Summer and winter last for only four months. The summer months in Japan last from July to September. The summer will be very oppressive because of humidity. Japan is subjected to varying amounts of snow fall. Hokkaido, northern and interior Honshu, and the west coast were blanketed by snow from November to April. The ample rainfall from 40 to 120 inches encourages the growth of agriculture and nourishes vegetation, and makes Japan a land of emerald greenery.

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### **18.5 MINERALS**

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Coal, copper, zinc, lead and silver are among the most important minerals, and there is an almost complete lack of nickel, cobalt, bauxite, nitrates, rock salt, potash phosphates and oil. Coal is the country's most



important mineral. Oil deposits are meagre. Japan has also a plentiful supply of limestone, clays and sands. Thus, Japan is poor in natural resources. But, Japan has an abundance of sulphur because of the volcanic origin of the island. Despite the shortage of mineral resources, Japan today is one of the highly industrialised and affluent nations of the world.

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## 18.6 INFLUENCE OF GEOGRAPHY

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Jonathan Norton Leonard aptly observes that in a more direct way, Japan's geography has affected its national character; the straits of Korea which separate the westernmost island-Kyushu-gave Japan a sense of isolation, and placed it apart. A peculiar feature of Japan is, whether isolated or not, Japan always remains itself. Whatever Japan borrowed from other countries, it reshaped to suit Japanese tastes and needs. Clyde and Beers observe that "the Japanese fashioned a distinctive Japanese culture, and a character which, though belongs to Asia, was unlike that of any other Asiatic people". It is not correct to state that geography fostered a spirit of isolationism in Japan, and a spirit of repugnance towards foreign intercourse. The Japanese have become sea-farers because theirs is an island nation. Further, Nagasaki and Yokohama, two of the best harbours in the world and bays, made them sea traders. They developed largest merchant navies and fishing industry, because of their nearness to sea. The Japanese cast their coveted eyes on Manchuria and Korea on the mainland of Asia, due to the paucity of natural resources, and to meet the demands of the ever-increasing population. So, we can say the imperialist ambitions of Japan in the 20th century are influenced by her geographical factors. Further, the mountainous nature of Japan made communication from one place to another very difficult. Consequently, the geographical barriers divided Japan into 68 states, which became independent of Central Government, and developed a decentralised feudal pattern of Government in medieval times. Thus, the geographical features of Japan exercised direct influence over the nature of Japanese life and its course of history.

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## 18.7 NATURE OF THE PEOPLE

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The spirit or the soul of Japan presents an enigma, because in the words of L.E. Baragwanath "it is a country with a strong martial tradition, and yet skilled in the arts of peace - in production and in trade an Oriental state industrially based on an advanced western technology, a people at once imitative and highly innovative, a maritime country whose inhabitants identify almost religiously with their land". The Japanese exhibit an intense spirit of nationalism. They also exhibit qualities of industry and hard work. Though the Japanese borrowed some traits of culture and way of life from China, India and Korea, the Japanese ingeniously converted, what they borrowed distinctively into Japanese. This is the genius and distinctive Japanese character.

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## 18.8 SOCIAL DIVISIONS

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Pre-modern Japanese society, like any other Asiatic society, was hierarchically arranged, ascribing a particular status to the group in the social structure. Society was divided into four classes, with a peer class above, and an out-caste class (Shinteiman or eta). The four classes are warriors, peasants, artisans, and merchants. Warriors of **Samurai** played a dominant role in the state and society. This class began to play key role, since Yoritomo who became Shogun in 1192 A.D. and established the Bakafu (military organisation). This **Samurai** class had their own ethics and a code of conduct. It is known as **bushido**. Peasants were next to the **Samurai** class in hierarchy. This class was given the second best place in social structure as they produced the food which was consumed by many. The peasants were further divided into land holders (hyakushos) and the tenants. It is said that the landlord and tenant relationship was governed

ideal of family relationship. The artisans like the carpenter, the brazier, the mechanic, the weaver and the artists, and sculptors were given the third place in the social hierarchy. Merchants were given the fourth place in the social hierarchy as they lived on the labour of others. But, the merchants became very rich during the 19th century, and they promoted new art forms like "the kabuki theatre and the buraku puppet drama".

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## 18.9 CULTURAL INFLUENCE OF CHINA

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Japan's long history has produced a cultural milieu that differs significantly from that of other countries. Generally, this milieu is characterised by an inseparable mixture of traditional Japanese culture with Chinese and Western cultural forms. Pre-historic Japanese culture was subjected to ancient cultural influences that were introduced some 1500 years ago. The Buddhist religion, which originated in India, also exerted a profound influence on the Japanese cultural life; but along with that, the process of Japanization continued. The Japanization of the introduced Chinese culture was greatly accelerated during the 250 year period of isolation that ended in 1868. The Japanese cultural tradition includes many forms of fine arts and folk arts. Local variations are found throughout Japan's mountainous region, where most river basins, valleys or islands have their own specific folk lore. The highly refined traditional arts of Japan include flower arranging (*ikebana*), the tea ceremony (*cha-no-yu*) painting, calligraphy, dance, drama (*Kabuki buraku*), and music (*gogaku*), gardening, and architecture. Delicacy and exquisiteness of form, together with simplicity, characterise traditional Japanese artistic taste. Such traditional arts like *ikebana*, *Cha-no-yu* and calligraphy are studied and practised by great many Japanese. Traditional Japanese inting, dance and music have, however, lost much of their popularity though the poetic forms of *haiku* and *waka* continue to flourish. Japan's drama was influenced by Shinto and Buddhist ideas. Japanese painting, sculpture and architecture was inspired by Shinto and Buddhist ideas. Japanese painting, sculpture and architecture was inspired by religious ideas. The Tosa school of painting specialised in the painting of Japanese subjects. Cho Densu, a Buddhist themes. Seashu, another Buddhist monk of the 15th century, developed great mastery in landscape and figure painting. Kano Motonobu was another great painter; Hishigwa Moronobu was another great painter of the Tokugawa period. Okyo also made mark as a natural painter.

For centuries, there have been many dialects in Japan differing from each other. Since the Meiji Restoration, the rapid development of education has eliminated illiteracy in the country, and a common written language has been established, based on the dialect of the residential section of Tokyo. Since World War II, a common spoken language, based on the same dialect of Tokyo, has been exercising more and more influence upon the speech of the younger generations of Japan through Radio and T.V. Japanese is a poly-syllabic language. Although the greater portion of the basic Japanese words are native words, a large percentage of the whole vocabulary is composed of Chinese loan elements. Japanese also borrowed words from Korean, Portuguese, and the Dutch.

### Check Your Progress - I

1. In which climatic zone is Japan located?

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2. Which is the most widely practiced religion in Japan?

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## 18.10 RELIGION-SHINTOISM

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Japan is a living museum of religions. The major forms of religion are naturism (worship of natural forces); animism (belief that natural objects and living beings possess souls or spirits); and **Shenritioism** or **Shamanism** (beliefs and practices surrounding spirit media); Taoism, Confucianism, Buddhism, and Christianity. The essence of Japanese religion may be found in the interaction of two kinds of belief systems: a folk or "little tradition" and "great tradition". Japanese belief patterns are complex, multi-layered and syncretistic. These two kinds of belief systems eventually became intertwined, and the Japanese religion developed as an integration of many separate elements. Until the end of the Tokugawa era, family, village, town and city, had both a miniature Shinto shrine and a Buddhist altar, and ancestral mortuary tablets. This is because of the system of 'dual adherent' or 'plural belongings' in which a person may participate simultaneously in several religious traditions. Thus, the characteristic feature of Japanese religion is the co-existence of different religions in one family or even in a single person.

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## 18.11 EARLY HISTORY OF JAPAN TILL THE TOKUGAWA SHOGUNATE

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Japan first appears in Chinese chronicles under the name of "WO". According to Chinese history, Wei Chih, the people of 'WO' had already reached a fairly high degree of civilization, Society had clear-cut divisions of rank, and the people paid taxes. There were impressive raised-floor buildings. The various provinces held fairs where goods were bartered, and correspondence appears to have existed then. In the history of Japan, the period from A.D. 250 to 710 A.D. has been classified as the ancient period. The question of how the unification of Japan was first achieved, and how the Yamato court, with the **tenno** (emperor of heaven) at its centre, came to being, is shrouded in mystery. It is believed that around A.D. 200 there was a flow of Chinese into Japan through Korea, and since then, the relations between China and Japan, through Korea, appear to be continued. The society of Japan, at that time, was organised into hereditary clans of officials, warriors and artisans. Of these, one class became master of Yamata or Kyoto region, and established supremacy over a large area. Tradition testifies that the rulers of Yamato were sent down by the Sun Goddess. By 5th century, the Yamato rulers appear to have become secure. It enabled them to found the imperial family, as they claimed to be the descendants of the Sun God. It is because of this dependant relationship, the Japanese call their nation, **Neppon**, meaning, rising Sun. The Yamato court reached its peak in the early 5th century, and thereafter went into a rapid decline. During the declining years of Yamato court, Buddhism was introduced into Japan in 538 or 552 A.D. Archaeologists call this age from 3rd to 7th century, as the age of 'Kafun' (tumultuous) culture. The Yamato court that fell into desperate straits, was resuscitated by the efforts of prince Strotoku. He gave a constitution to Japan in 604 A.D. He developed relations with the Sun dynasty of China on equal footing. He died in 629 A.D. and he was followed by Soga family which was killed in a *coup* by prince Nakanoo and Nakatomi

Kamatani. They established a centralised Government, and abolished private ownership of land. These reforms are known as **Taika reforms**.

In 710 A.D. the imperial capital was shifted from Fujiwara to Nara. Emperor Shomu gave prominence to Buddhism, and as a result, the Buddhist monks and temples began to interfere in secular matters. So, the Fujiwara family rose against the abuses of the Buddhists, and made Konin, the emperor. Konin's son Kammu, shifted the capital to Heina (presently Kyoto) in 794 A.D. After Kammu, the successive emperors carried on his policies, and the society enjoyed some 150 years of peace. For about four centuries, political power in Japan passed into the hands of the Fujiwara family, which began to dominate the emperor indirectly, and ingeniously. There was no change in the dynasty, but the Fujiwaras used to persuade the emperor to marry a girl of the Fujiwara family, and to abdicate the throne after the child of the couple came of age. The Fujiwara period was an age of excellence in literature, art, and architecture; 'The Tale of Genji' written by Murasaka Shikibu is a product of this age. But, as soon as the Fujiwara hold on the country began to wane, and taking advantage of the declining power of the emperor in the provinces, a new class of professional warriors (**Samurai**) emerged on the scene. Of them, the most important are the Tairas and the Minamots, who claimed direct relationship with the emperor. They began to quarrel for supremacy. This led to Heian War of 1156 A.D. In the Heiji War of 1159, the Minamots were thoroughly defeated, and Taira Kiyomori emerged as the chief power in the land, especially at Kyoto. While the Tairas thrived in the capital, the descendants of Minamoto slowly built up their strength in the provinces. Finally, Yoritomo, a descendant of Minamoto won a decisive victory against the Tairas. The decisive victory of Yoritomo is an important landmark in Japanese history as it established a military Government or **Shogunate**. It started the beginning of rule by **Samurai** class, backed up by a feudal system, and the end of the ancient monarchical system wherein the power was in the hands of the court, and the aristocracy. The **Shogunate** or **bakafu** (headquarters) held effective political control in Japan until the restoration of imperial power in 1367.

The Kamakura **bakafu**, established by Yoritomo in 1192 dominated the political scene till 1133 A.D. Yoritomo assumed the title of **Sei-Tai Shogun** (great barbarian subduing general). Yoritomo was succeeded by the Hojo family, who lasted till 1333 A.D. Taking advantage of the Mongol wars, the monarch Go-Daigo tried to regain real power for the crown, and in this attempt, the monarch was assisted by Ashikaga Takauji of the Minamoto clan. The Kamakura **bakafu** was destroyed by Ashikaga Takauji. Soon after, differences arose between Ashikaga and Go-Daigo. As a result, two royal dynasties began to rule, one from Kyoto, and the other from Yamato. Both tested their strength for nearly half a century, and in 1392 A.D. the two royal families were united. The Muromachi or Ashikaga **Shogunate** played a key role till 1573 A.D. The **bakafu** or headquarters was moved to the Muromachi district in Kyoto, where it took a final shape. As the controlling power of the Ashikaga **bakafu** was weak, gradually the office of the **Shogun** became impotent. Consequently, the small and middle class landlords (**myoshu**) organised themselves into unions under a leader, called village elder (**Otona**), and began to resist the **Shogun's** authority. Starting from 1428, we come across uprisings of the farmers against the cancellation of debts known as **Shogun**. A civil war, known as the Onin War, broke out between 1466-77. **Shogun** Yoshimasa was forced to issue 13 edicts for the cancellation of debts known as **tokuseiai** or acts of grace. In the 16th century, the Miyoshi family and the Matsunaga family usurped the power of the Ashikaga.

Japan became a 'Warring country' due to various factors like the increase of the local leaders, deputies usurping the dominions of the superiors, the branch families seizing power from the hands of the main families; and the growth of commerce and trade led to the rise of

new townships and cities, where a new rich class of merchants began to challenge the power of **Shogun**. Thus, central authority ceased to exist effectively, and at this juncture, the Portugese arrived in 1543, and in 1549 the Jesuit missionary, Francis Xavier arrived in Kogoshima.

By the middle of the 16th century, the newly emerged **daimyos** (feudal barons or territorial lords) began to quarrel fiercely among them selves. In such fierce civil war, one Sengoku **Daimyo**, Oda Nobunga of Owari, was the first to enter Kyoto as the first feudal unifier. He boldly suppressed the disintegrating tendencies, and Toyotomi Hideyoshi, one of the best generals of Oda Nobunaga, established himself as a successor to Oda Nobunga. By 1590, he unified the whole country at a rapid pace, and as a reward for distinguished service, gave Kanto domain to Tokugawa Ieyasu. After the downfall of Hideyoshi power, Tokugawa Ieyasu established the Tokugawa **Shogunate** in 1603, and ruled the country. His successors ruled Japan for 250 years. He founded his military capital at Yedo, which became modern Tokyo.

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## 18.12 TOKUGAWA SHOGUNATE (1600-1867)

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Political conditions: The ancestors of Tokugawa Ieyasu, the founder of the Tokugawa **Shogunate** and of the Edo **Bakafu**, were a Sengoku **Daimyo** family from the mountainous region of Mikawa province. Hirotada, the father of Ieyasu, was defeated by the lords of the Oda and Imagawa families from the west and the east, and thereby he lost his domain. Ieyasu was taken as a hostage, and spent twelve years in detention. In 1560, Ieyasu was released by Oda Nobunaga, who defeated Imagawa Yoshimoto. Slowly and gradually, as an ally of Oda, Ieyasu became a powerful **daimyo**, and held under his control the provinces of Mikawa, Suruga, Totomi and Southern Shinano. Though, in the beginning, he opposed the seizure of ruling power by Hideyoshi, he realised the futility of his opposition, and later rose to the position of chief of the five **taro**, the biggest position under Hideyoshi. After the death of Hideyoshi, Ieyasu won the battle of Sekigahara in 1600 by defeating all the **daimyos**. Thus, Ieyasu established his national supremacy, and in 1603, he set up Edo **Bakafu** or Tokugawa **Shogunate**. He wisely made his kith and kin and loyalists as the domain lord of Kinki district. In 1605, Ieyasu relinquished the office of **Shogun** in favour of his son, Hidetada. He promulgated **Buke Shohatto** (Laws for the military houses) and the **Kinchu narabini Kuge Shohatto** (Laws for the imperial and court officials) as the legal basis for **Bakafu** control of the domain lords and the imperial court. He died in 1616. Under his successors, Hidetada and Iemitsu, **Bakafu** control became very strong, and the Government system of Tokugawa is known as **Bakuhan** system. Between 1633-1642, the executive of **Bakafu** Government was almost completed. It consisted of the offices of Senior Councillors (**Rōju**) Junior Councillors (**Waka-doshiyori**) and three commissioners (**bugymin**) for the temples and shrines of the country, the **Shogun's** capital, and the treasury of the **Bakafu**. They not only kept outside (**fuzama**) domain lords in check, but appointed their loyal relatives to the strategic and key domains. Further, they brought more land, mines and cities under the direct control of **Bakafu**. They also controlled commerce, industry and trade. The **Bakafu** also revised the laws for the military houses, and systematised **Shankin Kotai** (alternative attendance) by which, the domain lords were asked to pay ceremonial visits to Edo every alternate year, while their wives and children were made to stay at Edo as permanent hostages. Further, it was made obligatory on the part of domain lord to assist financially in the construction of public works in **Bakafu** domains. As a result, the domain lords were put to financial hardships. The **Bakafu** brought under its control 1/4th of the whole country, and of this, half was under its direct control, and the rest was placed under the control of **Hatamoto** and **Dokenin**, the liege vassals of the **Bakafu**. The financial resources and the military strength of the **Bakafu** was well-maintained, compared to that of the domain lords.

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## 18.13 SOCIAL & ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

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The **Bakafu** recognised the low class farmers in the village as the actual cultivators, and made them to pay the taxes. Land survey was made systematically, and it became a part of feudal administrative unit. It appointed village officers to carry on the administration; the inhabitants and towns were brought under control by **Bakafu**.

The Tokugawa **Shoguns** enforced **Sakaku** or national seclusion in 1630. In 1635, Japanese were forbidden to make overseas voyages or to return to Japan from overseas. In 1637, there was a protest against this policy by Christian **Samurai**, but they were ruthlessly suppressed. By 1639, the Portuguese ships were prohibited to enter Japan. This policy of seclusion undoubtedly enabled **Bakafu** to exercise an enduring and stable political dominance for nearly 300 years. This resulted in the development of industry, and gave rise to a unique popular culture.

The **Bakafu** system established a feudal class structure of warriors, farmers, artisans, and merchants. Distinctions between these groups were strictly enforced. 7% of warriors levied taxes on farmers who constituted 80% of the total population. The warriors always carried swords, and the peace thus established was nothing but armed peace. Absolute obedience to the family head (**Kacho**) was strictly observed. The status of the female was very low; the idea of **danson-gohi** (respect for the male, and contempt for the female) was also in vogue.

The armed peace, established by the Tokugawas, promoted industries, and the growth of cities. Production of consumer goods increased. Communication and transport also developed, and it led to the creation of new class of powerful financiers, wholesalers and brokers. Purely commercial cities and port towns also arose throughout the country. The cities of Edo, Osaka, and Kyogo, under the direct control of the **Bakafu** developed. Edo became one of the largest cities in the world.

But, by the beginning of the 18th century, the inner contradictions of the **Bakafu** came to surface, and began to show signs of weakness. In order to avert domestic unrest and foreign threat, reforms were introduced between 1831 to 1843, but these attempts of reform failed to stop the downfall of Edo **Bakafu** in 1867. The reforms of the **Tempo** period paved the way for the Meiji Restoration of 1868, and for modern Japan. The part played by intellectuals in the downfall of Tokugawa **Shogunate** was also equally important. The arrival of foreigners in 1850 acted like a last straw on the camel's back, which culminated in the downfall of the Tokugawa **Shogunate** in 1867.

### Check Your Progress II

1. What is the meaning of Nippon?

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.....

2. What was the attitude of the Tokugawa shoguns towards class distinctions?

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Chonin	:	Merchant
Daimyo	:	Great feudal lord or territorial lord
Danson gohi	:	Respect for the male and contempt for the female
Eta	:	Manufacturer of leather goods from dead animals
Gogaku	:	Music
Gokenin	:	Direct retainers who lived at Yedo, and performed civil and military duties
Goshi	:	Active soldiers at the time of war
Hotamato	:	Gokenin
Hinin	:	Professional entertainers or beggars
Hyakushes	:	Land holders
Ikebana	:	Flower arrangement
Kancho	:	Family head
Kinchu Nirabini Kuge Shohatto	:	Laws for the imperial and court officials
Kuje	:	Court nobles
Myoshu	:	Small and middle landlords
Nihon Nippon	:	Land of the rising Sun
Otona	:	Village elder
Roju	:	Senior councillor
Sakoku	:	National seclusion
Samurai	:	Warrior
Sankankotai	:	Alternative attendance
Sei-Tai-Shogun	:	Great barbarian subduing general
Sengoku	:	Civil war
Senimin	:	Untouchables
Shogunate	:	Military Government
Taro	:	Highest Officer
Tenno	:	Emperor of Heaven
Tozoma	:	Outside Domain lords

Tokuserai : Acts of grace  
Waka Doshiyori : Junior councillors

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**18.18 BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING**

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Beasley W.G. : The Modern History of Japan  
Brown A.J. : Japan in the World of today  
Brown A.J. : Nationalism in Japan  
David M.D. : History of Modern Japan  
Latourette K.S. : The History of Japan  
Latourette K.S. : A Short History of the Far East  
Leonard  
Jonathan Norton : Early Japan  
Shiv Kumar & S. Jain : History of Modern Japan  
Storey Richard : A Story of Modern Japan  
Vinacke H.M. : A History of the Far East in Modern Times

– K.S. Kameswar Rao

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## **UNIT-19 : FOREIGN MISSIONS AND THE DEALING OF THE TOKUGAWA SHOGUNATE**

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### **Contents**

- 19.0 Objectives
- 19.1 Introduction
- 19.2 Arrival of the Europeans
  - 19.2.1 Causes for the entry of Europeans into Japan
- 19.3 Policy of national seclusion for over two and half centuries
- 19.4 Attempts to open Japan for western commercial activity in the 18th century
- 19.5 American attempt and commodore perry
- 19.6 Treaty of kanagawa
- 19.7 Townshend Harris
- 19.8 Decline of the Tokugawa shogunate
- 19.9 Let us sum up
- 19.10 Check your progress : Answers
- 19.11 Examination model questions
- 19.12 Books for further Reading

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### **19.0 OBJECTIVES**

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Study of this unit should enable you to

- Explain the causes for the entry of Europeans into Japan
- Describe the American attempts to open Japan and analyse the effects of those attempts.
- Critically analyse the provisions of the treaty of Kanagawa.

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### **19.1 INTRODUCTION**

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From times immemorial, Japan appeared to most Westerners a remote country inhabited by a strange people. Isolated by geography from the impact of the main stream of the great civilisations, it was only in the 6th century A.D. that Japan came face to face with, and willingly accepted and embraced Chinese culture and Buddhist religion. Even then, Japan exhibited its trait of absorbing and adopting the newly acquired institutions and ideas to suit its needs and aspirations. In modern times, after the willing early encounters with the West, and adoption of Western techniques, Japan withdrew deliberately. However, in the 19th century, due to the ambitions of the superior Westerners, Japan accepted the challenge, and responded brilliantly by borrowing the best elements of Western technology and exhibited its readlines to match with the surging West.

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### **19.2 ARRIVAL OF THE EUROPEANS**

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With the arrival of the Europeans in the mid-16th century, Japanese history and culture came into sharper focus. The first, Europeans to reach Japan were the Portuguese. With the arrival of the Portuguese, the Japanese were fascinated by the European ships, weapons, clothes, food and drink. Capt. Alvares, a Portuguese merchant and sea-Captain visited the port of Kagoshima in southern Kyushu in 1547, and praised in superbolic terms the greatness of Japan.

The Spanish Jesuit, Francis Xavier, was the first Western missionary, who landed in Japan in 1549. He wished to make Japan, the first Christian country in the Orient. Feudal lord of Kagoshima, the daimyo of Satsuma, welcomed Francis Xavier, and permitted him to preach and convert Japanese to Christianity. Thanks to the patronage of the daimyo of Satsuma Xavier is said to have baptised 150 converts. For ninety years after Xavier, the Jesuit missionaries actively propagated Christian faith, and the Japanese aristocracy not only warmly welcomed Jesuits, but also Portuguese merchants. About 1569, Jesuit Gaspar Vilela visited a village, which in later days was known as Nagasaki. It quickly became a Christianised town with churches, schools and a fortlike Jesuit residence. While the Jesuit Fathers, Vilignano, Almedia praised Japanese customs, art, architecture and painting, Japan became a country at war because of the animosity among the warring daimyos for political power.

### 19.2.1 Causes for the entry of Europeans into Japan

The Europeans belonging to Portugal, Holland, Spain and England arrived in Japan, motivated by their desire to develop commercial interests, and to propagate Christian faith among the Japanese. Thus, we see the Portuguese, Dutch, Spanish and British traders being followed by the Jesuit and Franciscan friars coming to Japan to propagate their respective faiths. But, the internal rivalry among the Western traders and missionaries made the situation very complex. The Japanese did allow the Westerners to enter Japan as traders and missionaries, but the activities of traders and missionaries made the Japanese hesitant and suspect the real intentions of the foreign traders and Western missionaries, and began to impose restrictions on the foreigners.

The chaos of the age of the country at war came to an end with the success of Nobunaga and Hideyoshi, who made Japan a united nation. In 1569, the Jesuit missionary Lewis Frois met Nobunaga. He is reported to have said "Do not worry either about the emperor or the Shogun, I am in complete control of everything". Nobunaga's successor Hideyoshi also maintained friendly relation with the Portuguese and Jesuit missionaries, and renewed the special rights and privileges given to them by Nobunaga. Hideyoshi turned hostile towards them anticipating and expecting trouble, and ordered for the expulsion of Jesuits along with Portuguese ships. But, the decree of expulsion was never enforced strictly. It was so because Hideyoshi was fired by an ambition to extend his political power into Korea, and from there to China. But, the attempts of Hideyoshi did not succeed.

While Hideyoshi was busy with his Korean invasion, the Jesuit missionaries enjoyed respite from the repressions initiated earlier. Consequently, they grew in numbers and in influence. The Jesuits had to face the persistent efforts of the rival Orders of Franciscan friars to enter Japan through the Spanish-occupied Phillipines. The group tried to convert masses by their emotional appeal. This tactics made the Jesuits to suspect that Japanese authorities may oppose their activities. In spite of Jesuit attempts to stop the Franciscans, a few arrived in 1593 were warmly welcomed by Hideyoshi. But, an unexpected tactical mistake committed by Spanish naval officer in 1596 made Hideyoshi to crucify the Franciscans in 1597. His death in 1598 was followed by the establishment of Tokugawa Shogunate by Iyesu in 1603.

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### 19.3 POLICY OF NATIONAL SECLUSION FOR OVER TWO AND HALF CENTURIES

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Ieyasu tolerated Christians, though not favourably inclined towards them in the beginning. He pursued this policy because he was anxious to have European knowledge and trade and

appears to have thought that the Jesuits be allowed to continue to achieve his objective. Ieyasu who was impressed by Will Adams, the captain of the Dutch ship, made him his close adviser, and granted the right to establish a trading port at Hirado in Kyusho. The Dutch utilised this opportunity for their advantage. The situation was worsened by the aggressive attitude of the Fransiscan frairs. His suspicion was strengthened by the hydrographic survey made by the Spanish along the east coast of Japan in 1611-1612. The first English ship also landed in Japan. The Dutch and the British made it clear to Ieyasu that priests were not necessarily needed for trade. Ieyasu proscribed the Christian faith in 1613. Ieyasu, successor, Hidetada also continued his fathers policy, and executed certain Spanish priests; Yet, he even did not implement the law effectively and vigorously. He wished the Christian priests to leave the country voluntarily, and peaceful conversion of the natives to Buddhism. Direct contacts with Philippines were severed. Hidetada's son and successor, Iyemitsu went a step ahead, and proscribed Japanese trade on high seas in 1636. He made it very clear that no Japanese vessel should proceed abroad, no Japanese citizen should leave the country lawfully, and those who disobey and try to return, will be severely dealt with by death punishment. The Dutch were permitted to trade at Hirado, but the Portuguese were treated as prisoners, and they were made to trade only at Nagasaki. The Shogun was made to believe that the Shimbara revolt of 1637, wherein large number of converts were involved, was incited by the missionaries. The Shogunate acted promptly, and Spanish and the Portuguese subjects were forbidden to enter Japan. Further, the Government decreed that if any Portuguese ship came to Japan, it will be seized, and the crew will be put to death. Thus, the above factors and events forcibly led Japan to enter a long period of seclusion and exclusion. Japan became a "Sakoku" or the closed country. Thus, the trade contacts and religious contacts with Europe ended, and Japan remained a closed country except for contacts with dangerous Europe to one or two Dutch ship licensed each year to visit Nagasaki.

For more than a century after 1638, practically no European ideas entered the closed country, and not until the West reappeared did they interest them to revive. Though it banned the manufacture and use of fire arms, Japan kept peace with the Western world in its own fashion. All classes were educated. Though it was not technically advanced like the West, by the middle of the 19th century, Japan was comparatively a developed country.

#### Check Your Progress - I

1. What were the twin motives of the Early Europeans in entering Japan?

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2. Why did the Japanese ruler prohibit the entry of foreigners after 1638?

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## 19.4 ATTEMPTS TO OPEN JAPAN FOR WESTERN COMMERCIAL ACTIVITY IN THE 18TH CENTURY

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Once again in the 18th and early in the 19th century, a number of Western powers made attempts to open Japan to trade. Of these Western powers, Russia made a vigorous bid; the contacts between Russia and Japan go back to as early as 1697. Russia was interested in delimitation of a Russo-Japanese frontier, and to have commercial and diplomatic relations with Japan will Japan till 1875.

The U.S.A. became seriously interested in developing relations with Japan due to many factors. First, the ship-wrecked American sailors cast upon Japanese shores were treated as criminals, and put to mental torture, and treated worse than animals. Second, the Americans wanted to use the Japanese ports as coaling stations for their new trans-Pacific steamships. Third, the Americans anticipated a lucrative trade with Japan. All these above factors influenced the motives of the Americans to submit Commodore Mathew C. Perry, a distinguished Naval Officer, to command a naval expedition designed to open Japan to trade.

Prior to the American initiative, the Dutch, the only European power trading with Japan, feared that she may lose her monopoly, if the other European nations succeeded in opening Japan. So in 1844, the King of Netherlands, William II sent a diplomatic mission requesting the **Bakafu** to open the country, but their request was turned down by the **Bakafu**. However, visits of the foreign ships progressively increased; in 1844, 1845, and 1846, British and French warships visited the Ryukyu islands and Nagasaki to develop commercial relations. The **Kaibogakari** for coastal defence and various diplomatic posts.

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## 19.5 AMERICAN ATTEMPT AND COMMODORE PERRY

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Perry, however, was not the first American to attempt to open Japan to Western trade. In 1837, the American ship, *Morrison* attempted to repatriate some Japanese fishermen who had drifted to the north-western coast of America. In 1840, two ships commanded by Commodore Biddle, were sent to the Bay of Yedo, but their request for trade was rejected. The King of Netherlands also appears to have warned the Japanese that American fleet may land in Japan at any time in 1849.

The objectives of the Americans in trying to open Japan appears to be as follows:

(a) to arrange for the protection of American seamen and property; (b) to obtain permission for American ships to enter one or more ports for provisions and to establish a coal depot; and (c) to carry on trade by barter or sale. Perry entered the Yedo Bay on 3rd July, 1853, accompanied by his famous black ships. His entry created commotion and confusion at Yedo. The Japanese reluctantly received him, and Perry presented a letter from Fillimore, the President of U.S.A. to the Emperor of Japan. The Presidential letter made it clear that U.S.A. was interested in friendship, in commerce, and provisions for its ships, and protection of ship-wrecked sailors. Perry added a note as follows, and handed over the letter of the President of U.S.A. The note reads as follows:

The President desires to live in peace and friendship with your Imperial Majesty; but no friendship can long exist unless Japan ceases to act towards Americans as if they were her enemies. Perry sailed back with an announcement that he would come back in the following spring. Even before the stipulated time was over, he returned in advance because of Russian demand for commercial relations, Perry entered Yedo Bay on February 13, 1845. The Americans

presented a miniature railway, telegraph, books and a variety of liquors.

Perry's visit confronted the **Shogun** with the most serious decision ever faced by the Tokugawas. **Shogun** who lost his former power and glory sought the advice of the leading **daimyos** and also of the Emperor. The time had come for the **Shogun** to deliberate seriously about the probable consequences and impact of the threatening request of Perry. Amidst the conflicting views and advices, the **Shogun** took the momentous decision of initiating a dialogue at Kanagawa in an atmosphere of cordiality.

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## 19.6 TREATY OF KANAGAWA

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The negotiations resulted in the Treaty of Kanagawa, signed by Perry and the representative of **Shogun** in March 31, 1854. The following were the provisions of the Kanagawa Treaty:

(1) two more ports, Shimoda near Yedo and Hakodate in Hokkaido, in addition to Nagasaki, were to be opened to foreign vessels with a right to buy coal, food and water from Nagasaki; (2) America was given the right to open American Consulate at Shimoda with a right for the Consul to reside at Shimoda; (3) Japan agreed to provide protection to the ship-wrecked sailors; and (4) the most-favoured nation's treatment was accorded to the Americans.

Regarding the significance of the Kanagawa Treaty, Clyde and Beers observe that 'viewed superficially, it was in many respects a disappointment. In reality, it was a treaty of friendship. Yet, viewed realistically, the Treaty was a remarkable achievement against more than two centuries of Japanese exclusion'.

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## 19.7 TOWNSHEND HARRIS

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In the two years following the Kanagawa Treaty, similar agreements were obtained by England, Russia, and Holland. But, none of them could obtain the right to reside or do extensive commerce like America. Townshend Harris, Consul-General of U.S.A. arrived in Shimoda in 1856, and he succeeded in impressing the **Shogun** to include a full-fledged commercial treaty with a friendly country like the U.S.A. The commercial treaty known as the Harris Treaty was signed in 1858. As a result of these two treaties, Japan moved out boldly into the modern world.

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## 19.8 DECLINE OF THE TOKUGAWA SHOGUNATE

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The arrival of the foreigners in the 1850's provided a new issue for domestic politics. When it became clear that the **Shogun** was unable to protect Japan from the barbarians, and that his concessions to them were made in spite of their known repugnance to the Imperial court in Kyoto, the **Ghognal** dual boast of loyalty to the emperor and protection for the court, appeared to be meaningless. The slogan **Sonno-joi** (Rever the Emperor, drive out the barbarians) raised by some, not only tried to influence the policy of **Shogun**, but also it embarrassed Tokugawa **Shogunate**. The **Shogun's** ratification of the Harris Treaty was strongly opposed by the Kyoto court. This new situation brought to the surface antagonism that had developed during the long years of peace. Young and dynamic **Samurai** advocated a vigorous policy of driving away the foreigners. The intervention of older and experienced **Samurai** led to the growth of violence. Consequently, between 1859 and 1865, denouncing of foreigners, and fanatical support to the throne, became very common. In 1861 and 1862, an American and Britisher were murdered by **Samurai**. This resulted in the demand of immediate military action by the foreigners. At this juncture, the Satsuma and Choshu leaders who were jealous of **Shogun** authority, tried to poison the ears of the Emperor. Choshu and Satsuma leaders raised the banner of revolt against

against Tokugawa forces in 1866. The Choshu armies successfully repulsed Tokugawa forces. This resulted in the loss of power and prestige of the Shogunate. The death of Shogun Iemochi in 1866 made Hitotsubashi, who assumed power, realise the futility of clinging on to power and agree for the surrender to Satsuma, Choshu, Tosa, and Imperial army. Thus ended the 200 year-old rule of Tokogawa Shogunate.

### Check Your Progress - II

1. Who was the President of America who sent commodore perry to Japan?

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2. How is the treaty of Kanagawa important?

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### 19.9 LET US SUM UP

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1. The Europeans started arriving in Japan during the mid 16th century. Trade and religion were the twin motives of the Europeans to enter Japan.
2. From 1688 for nearly two and a half centuries the foreigners were prohibited from entering Japan, because the Japanese rulers thought that the presence of the foreigners in the country was set in the interest of the security of the Government and the nation's progress.
3. Commodore perry was sent to Japan by the U.S. President in 1852, to secure certain concessions for the American sailors and ships in the Japanese coast. The mission of perry was successful, and the treaty of Kanagawa was concluded in 1854. Later in 1858 Townsend Harris the Consul general of U.S.A. in Japan, succeeded in concluding with Japan another treaty known as the Townsend Harris treaty, which provided more concessions to the Americans in Japan.
4. The entry of the Americans in to Japan weakened the Tokugawa shogurate and ended the 200 year old rule of the Tokugawa shog unate.

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### 19.10 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : ANSWERS

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- I. 1. Trade and propagation of christianity.  
2. Because it was thought that the foreigners were instigating rebellions against the Japanese Government.
- II. 1. Fillimore.  
2. The treaty of Kanagawa is important because it ended more than two centuries of exclusion of Japan from western contacts.

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## 19.11 EXAMINATION MODEL QUESTIONS

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I. Answer the following questions in about 30 lines each.

1. Trace the arrival of Europeans into Japan and the causes for their entry.
2. Explain the factors that made Japan to become a closed country.
3. What were the attempts made by the Westerners to open Japan before the arrival of Commodore Perry?

II. Answer the following questions in about 15 lines each.

1. Describe the relations between Hideyoshi and the Western missionaries.
2. What were the provisions and significance of the Treaty of Kanagawa?
3. Examine the factors that led to the decline of Tokugawa Shogunate.

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## 19.12 BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING

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Beasley, W.G.	:	The Modern History of Japan
Brown, A.J.	:	Japan in the World of today
Brown, A.J.	:	Nationalism in Japan
Clyde, P.H. & Beers	:	The Far East
David, M.D.	:	History of Modern Japan
Latourette, K.S.	:	The History of Japan
Latourette, K.S.	:	A Short History of the Far East
Shiv Kumar & Jain	:	History of Modern Japan
Vinacke, H.M.	:	A History of the Far East in Modern Times

– K.S. Kameswara Rao

## **BLOCK - VII**

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### **MEIJI ERA**

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This block consists of 5 units. Units 20 to 24, which are part of this block, deal with developments in Japan during the Meiji era. The block starts with unit 20 which deals with Meiji restoration, and the Meiji constitution. Unit 21 deals with social, economic and military progress in the Meiji period. Unit 22 is on the conditions during the post sino-Japanese war period. Unit 23 is on the Russo-Japanese war and unit 24, the last unit in this block deals with Japan and world war I.

**Unit - 20 : Restoration of Monarchy and Meji Constitution**

**Unit - 21 : Social, Economic and Military Progress in the Meiji period**

**Unit - 22 : Conditions during the post Sino-Japanese War period**

**Unit - 23 : Russo - Japanese War**

**Unit - 24 : Japan and World war - I**

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## **UNIT-20 RESTORATION OF THE MONARCHY AND MEIJI CONSTITUTION.**

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20.2	Nature of Meiji Restoration
20.3	Significance of the Restoration
20.4	Administrative Reorganisation
20.5	Abolition of feudalism
20.5.1	Effects of the Abolition
20.6	Division in bureaucracy
20.7	Begining of the Constitutional movement.
20.8	Promulgation of the constitution of 1889
20.9	Provisions of the constitution
20.9.1	Powers and position of the emperor
20.9.2	Council of ministers and the privy council
20.9.3	Elder statesmen (Genro)
20.9.4	The Diet
20.9.5	Legal system
20.10	Criticism of the constitution
20.11	Importance of the constitution
20.12	Let us sum up
20.13	Check Your Progress
20.14	Examination Model questions
20.15	Books for further reading

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### **20.0 OBJECTIVES**

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A Study of this unit should enable you to

1. Analyse the nature, significance and effects of the Meiji Restoration
2. Explain the circumstances leading to the promulgation of the 1889 constitution and estimate the significance of the constitution and
3. Discuss critically the provisions of the 1889 constitution.

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### **20.1 INTRODUCTION**

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Two and half centuries of feudal rule ended in Japan in 1867 by the fall of the Tokugawa Shogunate. Emperor Mutsuhito, whose family had all along been kept in insignificance and seclusion, was placed with full and real authority, on the throne at Yedo in 1868. He assumed with dignity the reign-name of "Meiji" or "Enlightened Government", which continued upto 1912. This change marked the passing of Japan from medieval into modern times. It started a remarkable internal transformation which, in turn, laid said foundations for the modernisation and eventual greatness of Japan.

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## 20.2 NATURE OF THE MEIJI RESTORATION

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The Meiji Restoration was, at one and the same time, a revolution and a traditionalist restoration. It was a revolution in the sense that it led to radical changes in the internal and external policies of the country. The Restoration leaders fully appreciated and implemented the idea that in order to meet successfully the pressure from the West, the Japanese have to copy and learn many things from it in science, technology and methods of warfare. This process of modernization and internal transformation eventually launched Japan as a world power. At the same time, the Restoration did not make a sharp break with the past. The influence and the advice of clan leaders, excepting that of the Tokugawa, has not been dispensed with. In fact, the overthrow of the Shogunate and the end of feudalism had very much taken place, in the process of reestablishing the ancient centralised administration. Thus, "the ideal of the Restoration movement had been as much a reorganization of the country on the basis of new ideas imported from Europe, as a return to past practices and institutions". (H.M. Vinacke)

Meiji Restoration was also nationalistic and imperialistic. The forcible opening of Japan to the Western nations that began in 1853 and the ineffectiveness of the dual government to defy the imposition of unequal treaties acted as major provocatives to these forces. Further, the encouragement given to the study of ancient Japanese learning led to the revival of Shintoism which preached that the Emperor was not only the temporal, but also the spiritual head of the nation. The young Emperor, Mutsuhito also gave a helping hand by encouraging a return to earlier forms of Emperor-worship.

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## 20.3 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESTORATION

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Meiji Restoration was remarkably significant in the Japanese history, for it marked the passing of the state from a feudal, backward and secluded condition into that of an imperialistic, progressive and modern nation. The enthusiasm and the dedication of the young Emperor for the country's progress in line with other nations of the world, as expressed in his address in 1868, is worth nothing:

"Day and night we wonder how we can maintain our nation's position among the other world nations and fulfil the will of our ancestors. At present, when the world has greatly progressed and every nation is expanding right and left, only our nation remains remote from the rest of the world. Therefore, we pledge to bring welfare and happiness to our one billion subjects and expand over the unlimited span of ocean and waves to bring forth our national influence, and put our nation on a foundation solid as rock". In other words, the end of Shogun rule and the restoration of Mikado (Emperor) signified the death of an old order and the birth of a new one.

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## 20.4 ADMINISTRATIVE REORGANISATION

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The problems that arose from the transition called for the reorganisation of the central Government. The establishment of a strong government in the centre which was to assert its authority over the whole country, became the immediate need. The glorification of Mikado as the fountain-head of all power and authority, helped the cause of unification and internal consolidation. The new Emperor, in turn, came under the influence of his councillors who represented the four clans of Satsuma, Choshu, Hizen and Tosa. Under their direction, a central organization, known as *Daijokwan*, or Deliberative Assembly, was created in 1868. It consisted to two houses. The upper house, or Council of State, was made up the former *Gijo* (Councillors of the First Class) and *Sanyo* (Councillors of the Second Class). These were drawn from the ranks of the court nobility (*Kuge*), feudal lords (*Daimyo*) and warrior class (*Samurai*). The lower house, or the Assembly, consisted of the representatives of the feudal class. The real

power remained in the hands of the Council of State, whereas the members of the Assembly discussed only those matters that were referred to them by the former. In addition, provision was made for two chief ministers of the state and their subordinates, who served as the medium of communication between the Daijokwan and the Court. This reorganization had the double advantage of concentrating power in one body, and of fulfilling the promise made in the Imperial Oath of 1868 that advice should be taken in administering public affairs.

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## 20.5 ABOLITION OF FEUDALISM

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Besides administrative reorganization, effective centralization of authority necessitated the removal of the feudal intermediaries between the Imperial Government and the individuals. It is very much significant and appreciable to note in this connection that feudal lords belonging to the four powerful western clans of Satsuma, Choushu, Hizen and Tosa as well as the old warrior class of Samurai, readily and voluntarily welcomed this by surrendering their fiefs and position to the Emperor in 1869. Remaining lords followed suit, and the Samurai gave up their class or special privileges, such as wearing two swords, which distinguished them from the rest of the people. Finally, in 1871 an Imperial edict was issued formally abolishing feudalism in the country.

Considerations of self-interest as well as national good, played leading role in achieving this bloodless social revolution. Whereas the Samurai saw in the abolition of feudalism, a larger field to exhibit their talents, the Daimyo could feel satisfied that their interests were well protected in the settlements made at the time of the removal of their privileges. The latter were not only granted huge pensions that amounted to 1/10th of their nominal revenues which usually remained very much greater than their real incomes, but also gained freedom to spend them for their own purposes and not for the maintenance of provincial administration. Further, their incomes no longer varied either with the production or price of rice. At the same time, these classes recognized the real necessity for the abolition of feudalism, if at all Japan was to maintain herself successfully in the face of the foreign influence. The success of the government in effecting the feudalism also rested on the strength and character of its conscript army. It was recruited from all classes of the people and equipped with modern weapons.

### 20.5.1 Effects of the Abolition

The decision to grant pensions to Daimyo and Samurai imposed an extraordinary financial burden on the government, for which it was neither prepared nor capable of meeting. This crisis very much arose due to the fact that the 'unequal' treaties not permitting increase in customs revenue, the only source that remained upon to the government to meet the increased expenditure was to enhance the land tax. The increase ranged so high that it amounted to 25 to 30 per cent of the produce from the land and hence, caused widespread dissatisfaction among the peasantry. As a result, in order to rescue the government from financial bankruptcy, a scheme of communication of pensions was introduced in 1873 when Okuma became the Finance Minister. This scheme provided for down payment of six years' pension, half in cash and half in government bonds bearing 8% interest for hereditary pensioners, and four years' pension for life pensioners. Though at first voluntary, this arrangement was made compulsory three years later, and enforced rigidly. In this form, it caused real hardship to the Samurai, since, unlike the Daimyo, their nominal and real incomes remained very much identical. This caused great dissatisfaction among them. But, the state however, was relieved from the financial pressure, and the measure in that way was considered necessary and justified.

Besides feudal lords and the warrior class, other sections of the Japanese society were also affected by the abolition of feudalism. In fact, it brought about a new alignment of social classes. The landlord, the financier and the money-lender were melted down and transformed into a new moneyed class. This paved the way for the rise of a capitalist economy. This new class emerged as the chief supports of the new regime. Their cooperation essentially influenced the development of Japanese industry and banking during the Meiji era. On the other hand, the peasantry, though they became proprietors of their lands, many of them could not pay the fixed and high land tax to the government. As a result, they were forced to sell their lands and seek jobs as factory workers in the urban areas or in the new conscript army. Further, they, along with Samurai, disliked the granting of social equality to Eta, who consisted of the depressed class of scavengers and butchers. It should however, be realized here that, though high land tax troubled the Japanese peasantry, it on the other hand, compelled them to produce both food and cash crops in surplus by adopting latest agricultural techniques and inputs. Progressive agriculture was thus commenced. The discontent of the peasantry and the Samurai culminated in violence in 1876-77 which was easily suppressed. Thereafter, feudalism died out completely in Japan.

### Check Your Progress - I

1. How can the restoration be described as a Revolution?

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2. How are the peasants affected by the abolition of feudalism?

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## 20.6 DIVISION IN THE BUREAUCRACY

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Another problem which confronted the government was of a different nature, although it also related to the question of general policy and functioning. The leaders and the supporters of the Meiji Restoration got divided into two clear-cut groups. One group, termed as Military Bureaucrats, advocated a policy of war and expansion to strengthen national unity. Internally, they turned out to be reactionaries by disliking the abolition of feudalism, showing no interest in social reforms and remaining indifferent towards ideas from the West. Saigo, Goto, Soyegima and Ito were the leaders of this group. The second party was that of Civil Bureaucrats who were in favour of reform, reconstruction, codification of laws, industrial and scientific development. In short, it stood for adopting the science and technology of the West and thereby, lay a firm foundation of for the development of modern Japan. This section, which constituted the core of the new government and guided the ship of the state through all the troubled waters of the early days, had for its leaders Kido, Okubo and later Ito, the last one defecting from the former group

When the ideas and methods were so diverse and different between these two groups, it was quite natural that conflict took place between them. Issue first arose in 1871, when some inhabitants of the Loo-choo islands were wrecked on the southern coast of Formosa, and were killed by the Formosan savages. The militarists clamoured for wars against China and Korea, for, these were believed to be accountable for the killings. The peace party succeeded in preventing this, but it had to accept a coalition and compromise with the militarists by authorising a punitive expedition against Formosa. Another issue arose in 1875, when a Korean fort fired upon a Japanese warship which was making surveys in the Korean waters. The militarists had already been nursing a grievance when Korea refused to resume its allegiance to Japan on Mutsuhito's accession to the throne. The war demand put forward by this group, could only be averted through the acceptance by the Korean government of a treaty of friendship and trade.

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## **20.7 BEGINNING OF THE CONSTITUTIONAL MOVEMENT**

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In the 20 year period after the Restoration, medieval and feudal Japan had successfully passed the period of probation and gradually got prepared psychologically and institutionally for inaugurating constitutional changes. The beginning in this direction was made with the emergence of a radical group in the Japanese bureaucracy. This ranked third in the bureaucratic divisions and very much differed from the earlier two groups in its aims and thinking. Besides opposing bureaucratic cliques, these radicals favoured the organisation of a Diet elected by the people, to which the Ministers of State were to be responsible. Further, unlike most of the radical parties in Europe which advocated pacifism on the whole, the Japanese radicals tried to increase their popularity with the people by upholding a policy of expansion. This group was represented by Itagaki, and later by Okuma, two brilliant and forceful leaders of the time.

The constitutional movement was also sought to be prospered by different other means and steps. In 1874, Itagaki organized an association for the study of political questions. Immediately thereafter, in the same year, Itagaki and his associates presented a memorial to the Throne, demanding the establishment of a representative assembly. From this time onwards, the agitation, which was partly due to a real desire for representative movement brought into limelight three political parties. These were, (i) the *Jiyuto* or the Liberal party led by Itagaki, which advocated French type of popular government; (ii) the *Rikken Kaishinto* or the Progressive party, organised by Count Okuma, the Japanese Finance Minister until he resigned in 1881, which demanded the establishment of a limited constitutional government of the English model; and (iii) the *Rikken Teiseito* or the Constitutional Imperial Rule Party, eminently led by Count Ito, the foremost statesman of Meiji Japan, which favoured a constitution, but opposed all actions that would weaken the power of the emperor, very much representing the Prussian, Constitution. The third party ultimately emerged triumphant and found favour both with the emperor and the people, This was very much in accordance with the policy of "progress and restraint" that guided the Meiji government, right until 1890.

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## **20.8 PROMULGATION OF THE CONSTITUTION OF 1889**

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Accordingly, Count Ito who had succeeded Kido and then Okuma, as the real directive force in the government, was sent abroad in 1882 to study Western constitutional systems. As his intentions were to safeguard the powers and dignity of the emperor and retain power in the hands of the Restoration loyalists who saw through the critical period of the abolition of feudalism and at the same time meet the demand for a representative assembly, he quite naturally, opted for the Prussian type of constitution. Immediately on his return from abroad in 1883, a bureau under his direction was set up for the framing of the constitution in "absolute Secrecy", When

work on the constitution had gone far enough, a Privy Council was established in 1888 as a part of the governmental machinery. It became the President of this Council, which then undertook the task of revising the constitution. After it had been ratified by this body it was promulgated by the Emperor in 1889. In the meanwhile, other steps had been taken to pave the way for the establishment of a constitutional government. These related to the reconstruction of the nobility in 1884 by creating five orders and five hundred patents and the remodelling of the executive system in 1885 by replacing the Council of State by a Cabinet, the former being the governing body almost since the Restoration.

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## **20.9 PROVISIONS OF THE CONSTITUTION**

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(a) **Process of Constitutional amendment:** On February 11, 1889, Emperor Mutsuhito bestowed the Constitution upon his people as a royal gift in a formal ceremony. As the constitution was the gift of the Emperor, it could be amended by the Diet, only on Imperial order. But, as a matter of fact, the Constitution of 1889 remained unaltered in its wording of the constitution by tampering with it in any way. Further, the Imperial House Law which determined the royal succession, remained beyond the control of the Diet. It could be amended only by the Emperor himself with the advice of the Imperial Family Council and the Privy Council. Even the function of passing judgements on the constitutionality of the laws and administrative actions, was entrusted not to the Supreme Court, but to the Privy Council.

### **20.9.1 Powers and Position of the Emperor**

The Constitution of 1889 was built upon a combination of the Restoration idea that the Emperor was the source of all power and the dispenser of all favors and the feudal idea that the real power was exercised for the Emperor by others, either agents or agencies. The first chapter was devoted to the position and powers of the Emperor, which were regarded as "sacred and inviolable". He was described as "the head of the Empire, combining in himself the rights of sovereignty and exercising them according to the provisions of the present constitution." The Emperor functioned as the supreme commander of the army and navy and as such, could determine their organization, declare war and make peace solve the House of Representative issue ordinances and exercise power over the appointments and dismissals of all the officials. He could also proclaim martial law, appoint and remove the judges. All laws were to be made by the Emperor with the consent of the Imperial Diet, and after which consent was given in the form, of legislation, the law had to receive the Imperial sanction and promulgation before becoming effective. This sanction and promulgation did not have to be, and were not, given as a matter of course.

### **20.9.2 The Council of Ministers and the Privy Council**

The Emperor, however exercised this constitutional powers with the help of two constitutional advisory bodies-the Council of Ministers (Cabinet) and the Privy Council-both of which were established before the promulgation of the 1889 Constitution. Chapter 4 of the Constitution was devoted to those two bodies. Both were composed of Imperial appointees, and, under the Constitution, the responsibility of the Cabinet was solely to the Emperor.

### **20.9.3 The Elder Statesmen (Genro)**

Besides the constitutional agencies such as the Emperor, the Cabinet and the Diet, an extra-constitutional group, more suggestive of the feudal age, was later added to the administrative

machinery in the form of the Elder Statemen (**Genro**). This body included the real makers of the new Japan in the late years of Meiji such as Ito Hirobumi, maker of the Japanese constitution, Yamagato Aritomo, the the builder of Japan's modern army; Inouye Kaoru, a great reformer of taxation; Oyama Iwao, a great soldier and Matsakata Masayochi, a great financier. They all belonged to Samurai of Satsuma and Choshu. They enjoyed great power. The Genro discussed questions of war and peace and all great matters of policy, and advised the Emperor on the choice of men for Cabinet positions. In all of these matters, it had the determining voice. This institution was inconformity with Japanese tradition, by which the oldest members of the family wre consulted on important matters.

#### **20.9.4 The Diet:**

The new feature of the constitutional system was the role sentive assembly, called the Diet. Its powers, functions, and relations with the other Governmentals organs were outlined in the third chapter of the Constitution. It consisted of two chambers, known as the House of Peers and the House of Representatives. The House of Peers was the Upper House, which consisted of peers sitting either by right or by election from their class, and of Imperial nominees. While the elected members continued for a term of seven years, the Imperial appointees carried on for life. Thus, the Upper House was highly aristocratic and conservative in character. It enjoyed equal power and and prestige with the House of Representaties in all matters except financial legislation, which was to be introduced in the House of Representatives. Its main purpose was to put a check upon any too liberal or hasty decisions of the House of Representatives.

The House of Representatives was the Lower House of the Diet. It was completely an elective body, consisting of the representatives of the whole country. In the begining, it consisted of 300 members. But, until 1925, there were high property qualifications both for the candidates and for voting. Hence, many poor people were deprived of taking part in the elections. All laws, to be effective, had to receive the majority assent of the Diet, the two chambers acting separately. Complete control over the meetings of the Diet was vested in the Emperor. He could summon it in regular and special session, prorogue it within certain limits of time, and dissolve the House of Representatives, which brought about a prorogation of the House of Peers. However, the Diet had to be summoned every year for a three months' session. Its main function was to deliberate on matters submitted to it, giving or withholding its assent, although bills except the financial, might originate in either House.

The section on finance (Chapter 6) is one of the most instructive and interesting items in the constitutional document. The control of the pursewas carefully withdrawn from the House of Representatives, which however, had to give its approval before the budget prosposals became effective. Salaries, expenses of the Imperial Household, and fixed budgets of the administrative branches of the government, such as the army and the navy, were kept beyond its jurisdiction. Further, in case there was delay in preparing the budget, or the Diet refused to approve a budget, the government was empowered to repeat the budget the budget of the preceding year. Thus, the sole power of the Diet was restricted to preventing increases in expenditure.

#### **20.9.5 Legal System**

The Meiji constitution, like all other modern constitutions, provided for a sound legal system to maintain public peace. The rights and duties of the subjects were clearly defined in the second chapter. The rights of the citizens included freedom of speech, religion and association. Law courts were meant to protect the rights of every citizen and to see that the performed his duties.

properly. No one was allowed to be arrested illegally. Anybody arrested according to law was to be tried by the legally appointed judges.

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## 20.10 CRITICISM OF THE CONSTITUTION

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The new Constitution came into operation in 1890 with the convocation of the first Diet. Immediately, its inconsistencies and defects got manifested. A responsible and smooth government could not be ensured. Neither the Diet could exercise full control over the Cabinet and the Administrative process of the government, nor the Cabinet could find it easier and convenient to set aside the Diet in carrying on the government. There was friction and division between these two governmental organs. Their composition and aspirations also remained divergent. Whereas the parties controlled the House of Representatives, the Cabinet was controlled by the clan leaders; again, whereas the Cabinet stood for traditional Japanese values under which religion, philosophy and politics were one and indivisible, the Diet opted for liberalism of the West, which encouraged political diversity and individual freedom. The removal of the control of the purse from the hands of the Diet, could only enable it to obstruct, but not control the administrative machinery. On the other hand, the Cabinet, in order to overcome the opposition or the non-cooperation of the Diet, especially regarding budget approval, had to frequently resort to the dissolution of the Diet and then try to influence the electorate to return members favourable to the government. Finding this method not so fruitful, Ito the renowned framer of the 1889 Constitution, who became the Prime Minister in August, 1892, resorted in 1894-95 to the questionable expedient of a foreign war to rally the parties to the support of his government.

The Meiji Constitution was also inconsistent and ambiguous over the degree of control that the Cabinet and the Diet could exercise over the army and the navy through control of the purse strings. The Emperor, in his capacity as the supreme commander of the Armed Forces, was advised not only by the Cabinet, but independently by the Service Ministers and the Army and Naval Chiefs. The indoctrinated Army and the Navy given to Emperor-worship and wedded to fanatical nationalism, came to think of themselves as the Imperial service par excellence. The germs of fascism were thus injected into the body politic by imperial propaganda in education as well as the armed forces.

We find thus that the Meiji constitutional development was an unhealthy growth from the beginning. The adopting of Western institutions on Japanese soil without the Western spirit behind them, could not but result in the malfunctioning of the Japanese political system. This maladjustment sowed the seeds of military-fascism which manifested itself in its most virulent form in the thirties of the present century.

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## 20.11 IMPORTANCE OF THE CONSTITUTION

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With the promulgation of the Constitution of 1889, Japan found a place among the constitutional states of the world. In spite of the defects, its undemocratic and aristocratic character, it made a real, though modest, advance towards parliamentary government. It took centuries for the nations of Europe to end feudalism and despotic rule and take on to the road of democracy and constitutionalism. On the other hand, this task was accomplished in Japan in less than a quarter of a century.

Further, it is important to realize that though the Constitution of Japan was not as democratic as those of America, England or France, it was far more democratic than the constitutions of Germany, Austria and Spain. Russia and Turkey, at the time, had none. Although it did not immediately establish a parliamentary government of the familiar type with a cabinet as the

sole executive, directly responsible to the lower house of the Diet, it was flexible enough not to rule out evolution along such lines, it being dependent on the attitude of the Emperor and his circle of advisers. Indeed, democracy in Japan, as the above description of the Constitutional movement bears out, was "an accretion, not an eruption" (Okakura Kakuzi).

It could thus be seen that the restoration of the monarchy in Japan turned a new chapter in its history and development. Solid and determined beginnings were made in its efforts at modernization and Westernization. At the same time, proper balance has been struck by keeping the intellectual and cultural base as essentially Japanese and also regarding the Meiji Emperor as the source and the center of inspiration for the new and modern Japan. The abolition of feudalism and the promulgation of the Constitution of 1889, had definitely strengthened Japan in social, economic and constitutional spheres and also enabled her to stake her claim for equity of status with the Western and European nations.

### Check Your Progress - II

1. Was the Meiji constitution ever amended?

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2. What is the significance of the 1889 constitution?

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### 20.12 LET US SUM UP

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1. The Tokugawa shogunate lost its power in 1867 and the Japanese emperor, Meiji who till then remained in seclusion was restored with full Authority. This Meiji (reign name of the emperor) restoration marks the beginning of the modern era in the history of Japan. The Restoration resulted in radical changes in Japan hence it is described as a revolution also.
2. The Restoration was followed by the emergence of a strong government in the country.
3. In 1871 by an imperial edict feudalism was abolished in Japan.
4. Due to a powerful movement in favour of establishing a constitutional government it was the architect of the constitution. It was modelled on the Prussian constitution.
5. The Constitution treated the emperor as the source of all authority and provided for the exercise of the emperor's authority by the council of Ministers and the privy council.
6. The constitution established a bicameral legislature consisting of the House of Peers and the House of Representatives.

7. The Meiji constitution inspite of its aristocratic and undemocratic features, marked the beginning of the parliamentary Government in Japan.

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### 20.13 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : ANSWERS

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- I
1. The restoration was a revolution, as it was responsible for radical changes in the internal and external policies of the Government.
  2. As a result of the abolition of feudalism the peasants became Proprietors of land. But as they were not able to pay the heavy taxes most of them sold their lands and became factory workers.
- II
1. No, the Meiji constitution was not amended.
  2. The 1889 constitution is significant because it marked the beginning of parliamentary democracy in the country.

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### 20.14 EXAMINATION MODEL QUESTIONS

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I. Answers the following questions in about 30 lines each

1. State how the abolition of feudalism was effected after Meiji Restoration.
2. What were the effects of the abolition of feudalism?
3. Describe the division in the bureaucracy and its effects
4. How did the Constitutional Movement begin in the Meiji period?
5. Briefly describe the main provisions of the Constitution of 1889.
6. Critically examine the powers and functions of the Diet as provided in the Meiji Constitution of 1889.
7. Give a critique of the provisions of the Constitution of 1889.

II. Answer the following questions in about 15 lines each

1. State the nature of Meiji Restoration?
2. What was the significance of the Restoration?
3. Describe the administrative reorganisation that was effected after the Restoration
4. State how the Constitution of 1889 was established
5. What were the powers and position of the Emperor in the Constitution 1889?
6. Assess the importance of the 1889 Constitution

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### 20.15 BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING

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Beasley, W.G.	:	The Modern History of Japan
Brown, A.J.	:	Japan in the World of today
Brown, A.J	:	Nationalism in Japan
Clyde, P.H & Beers	:	The Far East
David, M.D.	:	History of Modern Japan
Latourette, K.S.	:	The History of Japan

- Latourette, K.S. : A Short History of the Far East
- Shiv Kumar & S. Jain : History of Modern Japan
- Vinacke H.M : A History of the Far East in Modern Times

— V.R.K. Reddy

BRAOU

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## **UNIT-21 : SOCIAL, ECONOMIC AND MILITARY PROGRESS IN THE MEIJI PERIOD**

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### **Contents**

- 21.0 Objectives
- 21.1 Introduction
- 21.2 Features of Modernisation
- 21.3 Reorganisation of Education
  - 21.3.1 Education of women
- 21.4 Modernisation of the army
- 21.5 Development of the navy
- 21.6 Introduction of Railways
- 21.7 Establishment of post and telegraph system
- 21.8 Industrial progress
- 21.9 Currency reforms
- 21.10 Establishment of Banks
- 21.11 Agricultural Reforms
- 21.12 Let us sum up
- 21.13 Check Your Progress : Answers
- 21.14 Examination model questions
- 21.15 Books for further reading

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### **21.0 OBJECTIVES**

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Study of this unit should enable you to

- 1 Critically discuss the social, economic and military progress of Japan from 1868 to 1895
- 2 Analyse the educational, military and economic reforms in Japan between 1868 and 1895.

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### **21.1 INTRODUCTION**

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The Meiji Restoration in Japan was followed by many reforms which resulted in the modernisation of the country. The educational system, the army and the navy and the economy in Japan became modernised between 1868 and 1895, that is in about a quarter century. These reforms are discussed in this unit.

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### **21.2 FEATURES OF MODERNISATION**

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The political developments and diplomatic achievements of the decades following the Restoration, were matched by significant social, economic, and military changes. In fact in the economic field, beginnings of a real transformation were witnessed, rather than a mere reorganization. Modernisation has been achieved within an amazingly short period of just over a quarter of a century, (1868-94) by a swift and intelligent adoption of the material and scientific civilization of the West. This rapid modernisation, in turn, enabled Japan to gain a respectable place in the comity of nations. Further, as Hazen rightly puts it "The rise of Japan as the most forceful state in the Orient accomplished in the last third of the 19th century... profoundly altered the conditions of international politics".

Before tracing the significant changes that have been effected, it is necessary to note a few

important features of the modernisation efforts. In the first place, one has to note the lead taken by the government in carrying out all-round development. Otherwise, one would receive a wrong impression of what went on. In the second place, it is significant to note that changes took place in a deliberate and systematic manner. Educational, economic and military reorganization has been well thought out and effected in a striking way. And in the third place, it is of interest to realize the extent to which the needs of Japan as understood by the government were elevated over the interests of individuals or groups. The governmental control over education and the press, the establishment of universal military service and National Banks, and the introduction of a fixed and high land tax, etc., had all been some measures that demonstrate this aspect.

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### **21.3 REORGANISATION OF EDUCATION**

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The spirit of new Japan was more clearly reflected in the field of education than in any other sphere. In accordance with the declaration made in Charter Oath that knowledge would be sought from all quarters, Japan followed vigorously the path of new education. The government had realized that the legacies of the feudal rule-ignorance, superstition and illiteracy - were the greatest obstacles to the progress of the nation. To remove these, a department of education was set up in 1871 under a law which declared that "all people, high or low, and of both sexes, should receive education, so that there should not be found one family in the whole empire, nor one member of a family, ignorant and illiterate" (Clyde). As early as 1872, the Japanese adopted the principle of compulsory elementary education and made a beginning in the establishment of a system of public schools. From the age of six, both boys and girls were required to attend school for four (later increased to six) years. During these years, they were taught the usual elementary subjects, with as much emphasis on character development as on mental training. Loyalty to the Emperor and devotion to the state were also carefully inculcated through the studies in elementary as well as higher schools. Whereas the American system became the basis for curricula, the French system became the model for educational reorganisation. The whole of Japan was reorganised into 8 university districts, each university district into 32 school districts and each secondary school district into 210 elementary school districts.

Elementary education was spread over eight years, divided into two parts of four years each. Secondary or middle schools were designed to give special training to those who would go no farther, and to prepare students for entrance to the university. Training schools were established so as to train the large numbers of teachers required for the elementary schools. Further, as the need arose, a number of special schools such as commercial institutes were organized. The introduction of English language as compulsory foreign language brought Japan closer to the West. The German emphasis on vocational education was also adopted.

#### **21.3.1 Education of Women**

Education of women formed an essential element in the development of new Japan. It led to the freedom of the Japanese womanhood from the feudal society's characteristic of obscurity and subservience to men. The starting of the modern female education in Japan owed primarily to the efforts of the Christian missionaries. The first missionary school for girls, Feries Seminary, was founded in 1870 at Yokohama. Not less than 43 schools were established by the foreign missionaries for the promotion of women's education during the first 20 years of the Meiji era. The education of girls differed but little from that of boys in the first years of school, except for an emphasis on the qualities of the women as homemakers. This emphasis became stronger in the later years, intellectual training being subordinated to it. Further, until 1902, no provision was made by the state for university training of women. But, even then, the provision made for

girls in the public school system from the beginning, i.e., 1872, was an indicator of a significant changing point of view. Some of the girls, like Tsudaymeko, also went abroad and did good work in the field of women's education.

It is thus significant to note that public education was thoroughly modernised and reorganised in the new era. A wide variety of learning and instruction, ranging from music, medicine, engineering, journalism, to human, social and biological sciences, formed its core. Japan borrowed freely from Europe and America the latest institutional, ideological and professional techniques, but at the same time, reinforced them with the native genius. This new educational system, in spite of some deficiencies, has been sound and stable, and has kept Japan technically abreast of the most advanced Western nations, has been partly responsible for her unusually rapid economic progress. As far as newspapers and magazines which also, in a way, formed part of educational activity are concerned, there was strict governmental control over them. Political ones which indulged in criticism of the government, had a precarious existence. Punishments that included suspension of papers, imposition of fines and jail sentences for the editors, were extremely numerous. Yet, the number of daily papers increased and magazines of a non-political nature found it easier to establish themselves. Every matter of interest was reflected in them, and there was even a Japanese "Ladies" "Home Journal".

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#### **21.4 MODERNISATION OF THE ARMY**

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The events in China and the exposure of Japanese military weakness in the face of Western military might in 1853 and 1863-64, convinced the Restoration leaders about the need and importance of a modern military organisation. They became determined to modernise their army and navy on the model of the West. As a first step, in order to unify the scattered soldiery under the different Daimyos, a department of Military Affairs was created in the summer of 1869. Universal service was introduced, and the army was nationalized in 1873. All able-bodied males over 21 years were to be conscripted for compulsory military service for a period of three years, after which they were to remain in the reserves for four years, and thereafter in the national army till the age of 40 years. The whole of Japan was divided into six districts from the military point of view, and many military schools were opened.

Not only did the government introduce universal military service eliminating feudal and class ideas, but the army was equipped with modern weapons and trained at first under French, and after 1885, under German direction. In 1878, General Staff Office was created on German model. By 1886, the modernisation and reorganisation was complete. A strong conscripted national army had come into being under the guidance of Western experts, which showed its mettle in putting down the Satsuma-Samurai rebellion.

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#### **21.5 DEVELOPMENT OF THE NAVY**

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The development of naval powers was equally impressive and significant. A naval training school was established in Tokyo in 1869 with predominantly English instructors. The cadets received the training in English. The development of navy and allied ship-building industry, was taken up intensively in 1872. The first warship was built in 1875 by the Yokusuka shipyards. In 1878, the 900 ton ship 'Seiki' led by the Japanese crew made a voyage in Europe. By 1882, Japan had achieved self-sufficiency in matters of navy. From a force of 17 ships totalling nearly 13,000 tonnage in 1873, the navy had expanded to 28 ships totalling 57,600 tonnage and 24 torpedo boats in 1894. The first serious trial of Japan's naval strength came in 1894, and the world was awakened to its superiority.

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## **21.6 INTRODUCTION OF RAILWAYS**

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The modernisation of administration, army and education depended on industrial and economic progress. The feudal economy ill-served the country and hence, the need was felt for applying Western science and technology in the fields of industry, transport and agriculture. Transport and communication being the means for achieving economic revolution, the Meiji leaders devoted their energies to building railway, post and telegraph systems.

The introduction of railways not only proved of use to commerce and industry by way of improved transportation facilities, but also served as a unifying and nationalizing agency. The first railroad, 18 miles in length, was opened to traffic in 1872, which ran from Tokyo to Yokohama. After 1873, the laying of railroads became rapid. The entire work was entrusted to the public works department under governmental supervision; but, in 1885, a Railway Bureau was established under the direct control of the Cabinet, whose name was later (1890) changed to Railway Board. Private railway companies were also encouraged to take up the work, so as to accelerate the pace of the transport development. Both the enterprises jointly did marvellous job in the direction. By 1894, there were 2,118 miles of railroad constructed and in operation. This development has unquestionably helped in the growth of commerce, and at the same time, in bringing the people of different clans into more intimate contact with another.

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## **21.7 ESTABLISHMENT OF POSTAL SYSTEM AND THE TELEGRAPH**

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Feudal Japan had no regular and scientific postal system. Courier service was introduced by Tokugawa Shogunate, but it was unsatisfactory and outdated. After the Restoration, the modern postal-service system was introduced by 1877. Japan became a member of International postal union and soon, her postal service began to show efficiency and swiftness.

The first telegraph lines were laid in Japan only after the Restoration. These were laid in 1869 from Tokyo to Yokohama. In the beginning, the ignorant and superstitious Japanese people tried to destroy these lines, taking them to be the work of some devil spirit. But, the Restoration leaders courageously continued to develop these lines, and soon the people realised their value. The development proceeded at such a pace that by 1894, some 762 telegraphs were opened and the Japanese sent as many as 83,59,734 messages from one place to another. Thus, the communication system has been modernised and developed, very much to the facility of the administration, economy and the people.

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## **21.8 INDUSTRIAL PROGRESS**

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The Meiji Government very much realized the significance of industrial development. In order to make the country self-sufficient, different industries were set up on the Western model to compete with the Western products both quantitatively and qualitatively. Latest machineries were imported from America and Europe, and the government provided all facilities for the industrial development. Private industrial efforts were subsidised liberally. The textile industry was developed in several ways. The product of the Japanese loom was presented to the world at several international expositions; model factories, with modern machinery, were established under government auspices; internal exhibitions were held to popularize the native product, and permanent commercial museums were established in various centres. (Vinacke). The industrial research wing was developed in order to analyse and improve production and manufactures. It explored mines and promoted iron industries, coal and explosives. Paper mills, chemical works, and factories for producing glass and cement were established to cater to the needs of the people.

In 1890, Japan could boast of more than 250 modern factories run by steam. After 1890, the industrialisation was amazingly rapid. A new class of capitalists came forward to invest its surplus wealth in the new industries that sprang up. At the turn of the century, industrial boom became the order of the day.

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## 21.9 CURRENCY REFORM

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Another important task facing the government after the Restoration was that of currency reform. Prior to 1868, there was no national currency in Japan, as there was no uniformity in the currency system. Both gold and silver were used as media of exchange, and in addition, both the Shogun's government and the several Daimyo had issued currency. Further, the relation between gold and silver coins was such that it was possible for foreigners to import their silver, exchange it for Japanese silver as guaranteed in the treaty of 1858 and later agreements, use the Japanese silver to exchange for gold, and then profitably export the gold. Consequently, there was a gold drain from the country. The only solution that appeared was treaty revision and control of exchange. Moreover in 1868, the government had inadequate revenue to meet its needs even after the taxation system had been revised. This led to the issue of large amounts of inconvertible paper currency. A nationalised and uniform system of currency, consisting of a decimal system which was partially based on the model of United States, was introduced. To an extent, currency reform also necessitated the creation of adequate banking facilities.

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## 21.10 ESTABLISHMENT OF BANKS

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The establishment of banks became necessary not only for solving the currency problem, but also for promoting industrial growth and economic development. The first step was taken in 1872, when regulations for national banks on the American plan were promulgated. These banks were given the power to issue inconvertible notes. The First National Bank was established in 1873 and two families were ordered to participate in financing it. The development was slow in the beginning, and in 1876 there were only four banks. In that year regulations were revised, permitting the conversion of notes into currency, which led to speedy development. By 1879, there were in existence 151 National Banks with a deposit of 12 million Yen. This expansion led to further increases in the issue of inconvertible notes, which in turn, led to higher prices and to considerable distress among the people. The successive Finance Ministers grappled with the problem, and finally after 1885, provision for redemption was made and a convertible currency was established. However, silver continued to be the standard until 1896, when the huge payment of the Chinese war indemnity made possible a change to the gold standard.

The extension of banking facilities revealed the defects of the National Banks. This led to the establishment of the Bank of Japan in 1882, as the chief fiscal controlling agency of the government. In 1896, the National Banks were turned into private banks and as the purposes of the government were not served by the National Banks, separate institutions were organized for special purposes. The first was the Yokohama Specie Bank, established in 1887 for the purpose of financing foreign trade and controlling the foreign exchange business. Later, after the war with China (1894-95), the Hypothec Bank and 46 industrial and agricultural Banks were established, and as time passed, other special banks, such as the Bank of Formosa and the Hokkaido Colonization Bank, came into existence. Thus, gradually, by a trial and error method, a satisfactory banking system was evolved which solidly laid agro-industrial economic foundation for the rise of new Japan.

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## 21.11 AGRICULTURAL REFORMS

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The developments of the transition period of Japan would be incomplete without a reference to the effects of the Restoration and of post-Restoration policies on the peasants. The first effect was the establishment of private right in the land cultivated. The Meiji period, thus began with widespread peasant proprietorship. In 1872, the certificates (chiken) of ownership of land were issued, and the ban on the sale of land was removed. The feudal payments in kind were abolished, and the peasants were now required to pay in cash, a fixed amount proportionate to the assessed value of the land, regardless of fluctuations in the yield or price of the crop. This amounted to 25 to 30% of their crop. As it had to be paid in cash, the peasants were forced to sell their produce as soon as it was harvested. They had no capacity to store and as a result, the middlemen got profited at their expense.

The Japanese peasants also immediately faced some additional burdens. The common lands to which no one could lay claim to title, became state lands which could not be used by the peasants. Consequently, he had to supply himself with fuel. He also began to purchase artificial fertilizers and, with the breakdown of the household production of cotton and other goods against the competition of the lower-priced imported cottons and of national industry, he was forced to make provision for a new item of expenditure, i.e., clothing. Consequently, under the new system which involved production for the market instead of a comparatively self-sufficient village economy, peasants who could not bear the new costs, began to sell some or all of their holdings. This led to increase in tenantry. By 1892, 39.99% of the total cultivated area in Japan has come to be worked by tenants. But, the consolidation of agricultural lands for cultivation could not fully take place, because the landlords were able to secure higher rents from numerous small tenants. Thus, the capitalist system in agriculture failed to displace completely the feudal during the transitional period (Vinacke). It is however, significant to note that the past was broken and a new agricultural system based on modern science was brought into being.

Thus, it could be seen that Japan during the Meiji transitional period of 1868-1894, achieved remarkable transformation in social, economic, and military spheres. A modern school system was in successful operation. Both the army and navy had been reorganised on Western models. Transport and communication systems had been perfected. Firm foundations have been laid or rapid industrial development. Currency and banking systems have been reformed and nationalised. Peasant proprietorship and scientific system of agriculture have been introduced as firm bases for the development of agriculture. The modernisation of Japan being thus complete by 1894, the reorganized Japan was to expand and take her place as an equal and increasingly important member in the family of nations.

### Check Your Progress - II

1. In which year was the first rail road opened for traffic in Japan.

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2. Which Industry was first modernised in Japan?

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### 21.12 LET US SUM UP

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1. The educational economic and military reforms introduced in Japan between 1868 and 1894 resulted in the modernisation of the country.
2. The policy of compulsory elementary education was started from 1872. Study of English was made compulsory and vocational education was also introduced. Women's education was also encouraged.
3. Compulsory military service was started and the Japanese army was modernised on the lines of the prussian army.
4. The transport and communication system was improved with the introduction of the railways and the post & Telegraph system.
5. Japan became industrialised. 250 modern factories came up by 1870 contributing to the economic prosperity of the country. Uniform national currency was introduced and banks were established. Steps were also taken for modernisation of agriculture.

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### 21.13 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : ANSWERS

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- I
1. 1872
  2. German
- II
1. 1872
  2. Textile industry

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### 21.14 EXAMINATION MODEL QUESTIONS

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I. Answer the following questions in about 30 lines each.

1. Describe how education was reorganised during the Meiji period.
2. How was the army and navy modernised and developed during the period, 1868-1894?
3. Bring out the essential features of the establishment of the banking system during the Meiji transitional period.
4. Critically examine the agricultural reforms that were effected after the Meiji Restoration.

II. Answer the following questions in about 15 lines each.

1. State the features of the modernisation during the period following the Restoration.
2. How was women's education promoted during the Meiji period?
3. Describe the modernisation of army during the period after the Restoration.

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### 21.15 BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING

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1. Ahmed L.L. : A Comprehensive History of the Far East
2. Clyde P.H : The Far East-A History of the impact of the West on Eastern Asia.

3. Shiv Kumar & Jain S. : History of Modern Japan
4. Singh A.K. : History of Japan in Modern Times
5. Vinacke H.M. : A History of the Far East in Modern Times

– V.R.K. Reddy

BRAOU

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## UNIT-22 CONDITIONS DURING POST SINO-JAPANESE WAR

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### 22.0 OBJECTIVES

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By a study of this unit you should be able to

1. Analyse the political, social and economic developments in Japan between 1895 and 1919.
2. Describe in detail the political development in Japan between 1895 and 1919.
3. Critically explain the social and economic developments in Japan between 1895 and 1919.

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### 22.1 INTRODUCTION

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The post sino-Japanese war period in the History of Japan is a crucial period. It is the period during which Japan became an imperialist power. It was also a period of tremendous social and economic changes in the country. The remarkable progress achieved in the economic field during this period, made Japan a great political power. In this unit all those developments are discussed.

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### 22.2 POLITICAL CONDITIONS FROM 1895 TO 1919

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The political history of Japan from 1890 to 1918 has witnessed constitutional compromise.

There were three stages in this development. During the period from 1890 to 1895, there were many rifts between the government run by oligarchy and the Diet. The second phase from 1895 to 1900 witnessed a series of friendly understandings between the parties and the oligarchy. The third stage from 1902 to 1918 witnessed the emergence of the leaders of oligarchy as party leaders.

### 22.2.1 First Stage

Under the Meiji constitution, elections were held in 1890. Jiyuto (liberal party) and the Kaishinto (progressive party) jointly won the election. When the first budget was presented to the Diet which consists of the House of Peers and the House of Representatives the lower House slashed it by more than 10%. Yamagata, the Prime Minister was annoyed. However, he managed to restore the cut. In May, 1891, Matsukata became the Prime Minister. He also had a rift with the Diet. He dissolved the lower House. The third Diet, formed selected Ito as the next Prime Minister. He was no better. Three more Diets changed. Finally, when the sixth Diet was dissolved and elections were held for the seventh Diet, the Sino-Japanese War broke out. The new Diet gave whatever the Government asked.

### 22.2.2 Second Stage

When the Sino-Japanese War ended, Ito was the Prime Minister of Japan. He tried to secure party support, and the Jiyuto extended it. The leader of that party, Itagaki was rewarded with the appointment as Home Minister. But, soon in September, 1896, Ito had to resign. He was succeeded by Matsukata. He appointed Okuma as foreign minister to win the cooperation of the Diet. Okuma belonged to Shimpoto party. But, soon, there were ill-feelings between Matsukata and Shimpoto. So, Okuma along with his followers, resigned from the Cabinet. The lower House passed a no-confidence resolution against the Government. Matsukata dissolved the Diet. Later, he himself resigned. Ito led the next Cabinet. The new Diet in May, 1895 rejected the Land tax increase bill. This bill was vital to the expansion of the nation's military establishment. Ito dissolved the Diet again.

In June, 1898 the Jiyuto and the Shimpoto, the two major parties amalgamated to form the Kenseito. At this time, the Genro was meeting to decide the measures to be taken to solve the financial troubles. Yamagata, an important member of the Genro, wanted to suspend the constitution and eliminate the Diet's financial control. Ito had two alternatives; either, he had to organise a new political party, or entrust to Kenseito the responsibility of the Government. Yamagata and the others finally agreed to the latter. Okuma, the leader of Kenseito, became the Prime Minister, and Itagaki, the Home Minister. But, this Cabinet had also to resign in November, 1898.

Yamagata himself became the Prime Minister, taking advantage of Ito's absence in China. As the creator of the modern Japanese army, he was anxious to keep the army free of party control. So, he added a new provision in the law. This was a very significant step. According to the newly added provision, only active military officers might hold the two services ministers army and navy. In other words, the ministers of the Army and the Navy had to be selected from the army.

Yamagata resigned in October 1900. He was succeeded by Ito, the President of a new political party, the Seiyukai. He organized a cabinet in which all the civilian ministers were party members. In May, 1901 a quarrel developed in the cabinet over financial plans. Ito resigned

General Katsura Taro Yamagata's protege, became Prime Minister. The Cabinet managed to remain in power until January, 1906. The Russo-Japanese War relieved him of trouble with the Diet.

### 22.2.3 Third Stage

The Russo-Japanese War ended with the Ports mouth Treaty. The Treaty had not provided any indemnity to Japan from Russia. The Japanese became furious. rioting broke out in Tokyo. Katsura resigned. Martial law was declared. Seionoji Kimmocsif a protege of Ito, became Prime Minister. He nationalised the Railways. In July, 1908 he was also compelled to resign because military advisers did not accept a cut in their estimates. Katsura came to power again with the support of **Seiyukai**, which was headed by Seionoji. Likewise, Katsura and Seionoji alternately became Prime Ministers for some time. But, they had differences with the army leaders over the budget allotments. The army sometimes refused even to send the War Ministers to the Cabinet, and created trouble. Admirable Count Yamamoto Gombei became the new Prime Minister in the year 1913. He commanded support from the army and from the **Keiyukai**. In 1914, the Navy was implicated in scandals by the Diet, regarding the construction of battle ships. The Diet refused to pass the budget. Yamamoto resigned. Okuma succeeded him. In 1916, Okuma, in turn was succeeded by General Terauchi. By 1918, the system of governing through their proteges by Oligarchy had weakened. Moreover, the political parties were showing a trend towards independence. Way back in 1913, Katsura tried to rule by forming his own political party, the **Doshikai**. The oligarchy soon found the **Doshikai** no more manageable than the older **Keiyukai**. But, it was evident that the younger Oligarchy did not have the prestige and the power of Ito or Yamagata.

Meanwhile, in the party politics of Japan, an important development took place. In 1913, Harakai Takashi was made the President of the **Keiyukai**. This symbolised the advent of new popular forces in Japanese politics. Harakai did not have Ito's patronage. He was an 'outsider'. At different times, he worked as editor, a bank official, president of a business firm, and a member of the Diet. He had helped Ito to found the **Keiyukai** in 1900. He entered the Foreign Ministry and soon rose to prominence. As Home Minister, he adopted different techniques to build support for the party. Districts, which supported **Keiyukai**, got facilities like roads, schools and rail lines. Bureaucrats who gave support to the party were favoured with special appointments and promotions.

In this way, the **Keiyukai** and its head, Hara Kai, were enhancing their power, as the role of the **Genro** declined. Hara Kai also reached an understanding with the powerful Oligarchy and militarist, Yamagata. In 1916, Yamagata's protege General Terauchio became Prime Minister **Keiyukai** extended support to him. This strategy of Hara Kai was successful, because his party won a majority in the Diet in 1917. Hara Kai, with his ingenious planning had created a base of political power for himself. As a result, in the troubled months of 1919, as the First World War was ending, the **Genro** recommended Hara Kai, as Terauchi's successor. Hara kai was a 'Commoner' among titled aristocrats. The appointment of Hara Kai as Prime Minister marked the end of rule by **Genro**, and the cla men of Katsuma and Choshu. It was the beginning of a new era of rule by party politicians.

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## 22.3 ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

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The abolition of class and occupational restrictions in 1870's had been a severe shock to the **Samurai** class. But, it led to the development of modern business, and the creation of skilled

and specialised labour. By 1885, Japanese economic growth became substantial. In 1882, the Bank of Japan was established as the Central Bank. To handle the financing of foreign trade, Yokohama Specie Bank had been set up in 1880. In 1896, Hypothec Bank was organised to provide long term credits. In 1900, the Industrial Bank of Japan was created to make long term loans. In 1908, the Bank of Formosa was established. The Oriental Development Company, and the Bank of Korea were established in 1908 and 1909 respectively, to aid in the economic exploitation of the new territories.

There was a big growth in the size of the budget. Before the Sino-Japanese War, Japan's budget had amounted to nearly 80,000,000 Yen. But, by 1913 it was increased to 600,000,000 Yen. This increase in expenditure was, of course, largely for military purposes, and for the development of industries. To augment the resources of the Government, tax rates were raised, and tobacco and camphor were made a state monopoly. A number of foreign loans were floated. By 1913, 80% of Japan's national debt was held by foreigners.

### **22.3.1 Growth of Population and Agriculture**

Since the early 1870's to 1913, there had been an increase of 47% in the population of Japan. This increase was due to modern medical services and improved hygiene. This increase in population resulted in an abundant supply of well-trained, docile and cheap labour. Until 1900, most of this increased population was absorbed by the country that time, all the agricultural land was brought under cultivation. So, the increasing surplus rural population had to move to the cities, and to the new industries. The supply of labour increased faster than the demand for it. Naturally wages remained low. The result was, the standard of living of the labour class had not increased. Neither was there satisfaction in the farming sections. By 1913, only 72% of the population was living in towns with a population of less than 10,000. More than half was still engaged in agriculture. Rice production increased by 30%. Yet after 1900, Japan had to import its food requirements, because the arable land in Japan was small. In 1910, 2/3 rds of the total farms were those under 2 1/2 acres. Between 1868 and 1910, the percentage of arable land under tenancy rose from 20 to 45%. Only 1/4 theof the farmers owned all the land they tilled. Tenants paid 45 to 60% of their crop in rent. Moreover, the farming population was paying a larger percentage of income in taxes than the city merchants or the industrialists. All these factors led to discontentment among farmers.

### **22.3.2 The Rice Riots of 1918**

In October, 1916, Okuma resigned as Prime Minister. There was a dispute between him and Genro over the appointment of his successor. The Genro appointed General Count Terauchi as Prime Minister, turning down the recommendation of Okuma to appoint Katokomai to that office. Terauchi dissolved the hostile Diet. In the ensuing election, Seiyukai, which supported the Government won the majority. The new Government had to face a problem relating to the level of prices. As a consequence of the First World War, the prices had almost doubled. Wages had risen too, but not to the extent of the rise in prices. In August, 1918, a number of women from a fishing village called Toyema had rebelled against the high price of rice. The revolt soon spread throughout the country. Troops had to be called to suppress the revolt. Terauchi resigned, and Hara Takashi was selected by Genro as the next Prime Minister. Hara, as described already, was the first Prime Minister without a title of nobility. He was also the first person to emerge from the lower House to the seat of Prime Minister.

### **22.3.3 Progress of Industrialisation**

During this period, Japanese industries made tremendous progress. The era witnessed great development in the field of textiles. In this field, Japan had the following advantages. 1. Traditionally, Japan was famous for its handicrafts in silk textiles. 2. Availability of cheap female labour due to population explosion. 3. Textiles machinery was relatively inexpensive in Japan. As a result, by the beginning of 20th century, Japan had become the largest producer of raw silk. She maintained the quality also, because there was enormous demand for Japanese Silk.

Cotton-spinning industry also developed. The factories used surplus rural labour. By 1910, Japan was producing nearly 500 million pounds of cotton yarn each year. The silk industry and cotton industry provided more than 50% of the jobs in factory employment. In 1901, the Government Iron Works at Yawata came into operation. A number of private firms were started. But, Japan was handicapped in the field of Iron industries by lack of iron-ore and coaking coal. Ship-building industry also made progress. These heavy industries were originally designed to serve the strategic needs of Japan. But, with the outbreak of First World War, the situation changed. The War brought orders to Japan for munitions, various War supplies and civilian goods. Export of Japanese cotton cloth increased by 185% between 1913 and 1918.

### **22.3.4 Growth of Railways and Shipping**

The first rail road was laid in Japan in the year 1872. By 1893, the country had 2,000 miles of rail track. After the Portsmouth Treaty, Katsura was made to resign, and Kimmochi became Prime Minister. During his Ministry, the trunk rail roads were nationalised.

Even prior to 1860, a ship-building yard was established in Japan. The famous Yokosuka naval yard had made its beginning even in the Shogunate period. Meiji government expanded the shipping activities. The ship-building industry was heavily subsidised. It made tremendous progress, and by the World War I, it was able to construct warships.

### **22.3.5 Growth of Foreign Trade**

Raw silk, silk goods, cotton yarn and cotton goods constituted over half of Japanese exports during this period. By 1930, Japan supplied 1/4 th of the world cotton yarn.

This was all due to the general world prosperity and the absence of trade barriers. In fact, after 1913, there were dark clouds in the foreign trade situation. Japan was in desperate straits. It appeared that Japan's finances would collapse. This was all due to the big increase in the Japanese military budget, and the great increase in the expenses of colonial development. In fact, the government was contemplating raising a foreign loan to pay the interest on the already existing foreign debt. At this juncture, the First World War came in handy for Japan. As already stated, there was a sharp increase in the demand for Japanese goods, and the Japanese exports increased by 40%. The industrial production expanded. The ship-building industry has doubled its production, and its earnings increased ten times during the War period i.e., from 1914 to 1919. By the end of the First World War, Japan suddenly changed from a debtor nation to a creditor nation.

### **22.3.6 Prominence of Zaibatsu**

An outstanding feature in the economic life of Japan was the concentration of much of the capital of the country in the hands of a few families. This was due to the Government policy in the second half of the 19th century.

Immediately after the advent of Perry, the Government took a leading role in the economic transformation of the country. Then, the Government utilised some existing business families to meet its financial problems. In this process, the family groups enhanced their power. They maintained close connections with the Government, and associated themselves with the two most important political parties.

There were outstanding families in the spheres of finance, industry and commerce. The fourth group was action in banking. These four family groups were known collectively as the **Zaibatsu**. Of these, the largest were the **Mitsui**. The Mitsui family had voluntarily become commoners and entered into trade and money-lending in the times of Tokugawa. Next in size was the family of **Mitsubishi**, which also had existed under the Tokugawa. The third family **Sumitomo**, was engaged in Tokugawa times in copper-mining and refining and in the rice trade. Later on, it multiplied its business activities. **Yasuda**, the smallest of the big four families of the **Zaibatsu**, expanded its banking and money lending activities.

The **Zaibatsu**, profiting by Japanese territorial expansion, made large investments in overseas enterprises.

### Check Your Progress - I

1. In which village did the rice riots of 1918 start?

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2. Which were the families who were most benefitted by the economic development of Japan?

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## 22.4 PROGRESS IN EDUCATION - WESTERN INFLUENCE

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The leaders of Meiji Restoration believed that only an educated Japan could become a strong Japan. This belief was expressed in the charter oath (1868) and the education laws of 1871-72. A department of education was created in 1871. In the same year, the system of universal education was introduced by a law. This was the beginning of a new era. Western education served the cause of modernisation in Japan. By the beginning of the 20th century, education became a highly organised state system. The principles of compulsory education and the national school system was accepted. Illiteracy was almost eradicated. There were some 27,000 elementary schools with an attendance of 5 million children. Vocational and technical training was imparted at the stage of secondary education. In 1903, there were 240 technical schools. Higher education in imperial schools was provided only to the well-to-do people. The utilitarian character of education was very well marked at higher stages. Tokyo became the educational centre of the Far East. Uniform text books were adopted, and teachers were

carefully trained. The text books emphasised three themes:

1. The emperor is a sacred authority.
2. The nation is a super family in which the obedience and loyalty to the emperor is a must.
3. Patriotism is the backbone of the country.

Thus, the educational systems emphasised the development of character, patriotism and morality at all stages, and provided the ideological base for Japanese nationalism.

In short, the goal of education was not how to think, but what to think.

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## 22.5 CHANGES IN SOCIETY

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### 22.5.1 Influence of the West on Family and Women

During 1870's, there was a mad rush in Japan for Westernisation. This led to confusion. The chartered oath of the 1868 proclaimed that absurd customs would be discarded. Buddhist priests were even asked to marry and eat beef. Abortion and infanticide, which were common in Tokugawa period, were prohibited. But slowly, a section of the people started demanding the preservation of Japanese traditional values. The roots of the leaders of Meiji Restoration were deep in their traditions. So, they made an effort to preserve the basic cultural identity of Japan without prejudice to Westernisation. As a result, Western systems and modern ideas helped to enrich the Japanese society.

But yet, in many ways, the superficial aspects of Japanese life continued to be altered. Population mounted; industries grew by leaps and bounds. The number of cities multiplied. The use of automobiles increased. Motor buses became common. Western sports became popular. Labour unions were formed.

Legislations were made to safeguard labour. Women and girls were employed in factories.

Prostitution had long been present in Japan as anywhere else. The professional entertainers were called the Geishas. The Geisha institution slowly started disappearing, but in its place rose, cafes and dance halls of the Western type. The relations between the two sexes-male and female-were beginning to change. There was a trend towards emancipation of women. Women's organisations were started. They demanded more privileges. The activities of women extended from home to the liberal professions of medicine, education, journalism and factories.

However, with all these changes, the basic fabric of Japanese life was but little modified. The family continued as a fundamental social institution. It continued to be the basic unit of social organisation. It still had control over the members of the society. The individual was kept subordinate to society.

### 22.5.2 Growth of Press and Literature

With the advancement in education, after the Meiji Restoration, the press also started growing. The first newspaper in Japan had appeared in 1872. But, during the period from 1880 to 1919, the Oligarchy, led by Genro, tried to control all movements of political liberalism, and to uphold its authoritarian concepts on the economic and social structure of society. In order to achieve this, freedom of speech and the freedom of press were suppressed. The Press Law of

1875 and the Peace Preservation Ordinance of 1887 were intended to control the "dangerous thoughts".

But, the First World War which was stated to have been fought to "make the world safe for democracy" and the Communist Revolution, altered the situation. A popular movement for universal suffrage and for the establishment of true parliamentary democracy was started under the leadership of professors like Yoshino Sakuzo. Sakuzo organised the 'Reimuikai', an association to popularise the democratic ideas.

Along with these movements, the press also developed a liberal tone. Magazines such as **Chuo Koran** and such newspapers as the **Tokyo Asahi** became vehicles for the spread of new ideas. There were two main newspaper groups in Japan. They were the **Asahi** and the **Mainichi** ones. In fact, these newspapers contributed very much to the success of parties 1924.

After the introduction of the radio and the cinema, they too became popular. Many literary magazines of high intellectual standard were started. Translation of foreign books was multiplied. Historical and social novels were written. The Tokyo university students started **Kenyasha** movement. A colloquial style was adopted. Poems were written in old **haiku**- form short poems with 17 syllables. Soseki was a famous novelist. Shoya, Koya and Rohan, who are considered as the trinity in Japanese literature, lived in the last quarter of the 19th century.

### 22.5.3 Changes in Religion

**Position of Shintoism** : Shinto had originally been a combination of nature and ancestor worship. Later, it developed a theory according to which, **Izanagi**, the sky-father, the **Izanami**, the earth-mother gave birth to the islands of Japan, and to various Goddesses. One of their children, **Anaterasu Omikami** became the Sun-Goddess. She sent down her grandson to found a dynasty which was to rule over Japan for ever.

#### 22.5.3.1 Position of Shintoism

**Shinto** religion flourished in Japan for many centuries. But, it was submerged by Buddhism, which was brought by the Chinese into Japan. In the period of Tokugawa, **Shinto** was revived, by emphasising the emperor's divine right to rule Japan. **Meiji** statesmen also found an excellent device in **Shinto** for focussing the loyalty of the Japanese people to the emperor and his government. So, they discouraged Buddhism and revitalised **Shinto**. It was made the spiritual foundation of the new state. The nationalistic values in **Shinto** were exploited to the full.

There were 13 major **Shinto** sects in Japan. They were apart from the state **Shinto**. Only the State **Shinto** was allowed to have shrines called **Jinja**, where Gods dwelled. Each household had its own shrine, at which family ancestors were worshipped. They believed that the spirits of all the dead were **Kami** or 'God-like' beings. The old system of dual shrines was abolished. To discourage Buddhism, members of the royal family were withdrawn from Buddhist orders. Buddhist ceremonies were forbidden. Yet, Buddhism survived.

The government continued its efforts to establish a state cult. By 1930s, it was supporting over 15,000 priests, and more than 1,00,000 shrines. The shrines were divided into twelve grades. The grand shrine at Ise, which was dedicated to the Sun-Goddess, is the chief shrine. Attendance at these shrines was a test of loyalty for every Japanese, whether he is a **Shintoist**, Buddhist or a Christian. The three basic tenets of Shintoism were propagated. They were:

- (1) The emperor is divine

- (2) Japan is under the special guardianship of the Gods, and
- (3) Japan's divine mission is to bring "the whole world under one roof".

These dogmas reinforced the traditional Japanese thoughts and served to create a climate unfavourable to democratic ideas.

### 22.5.3.2 Decline of Buddhism

Buddhism, though its original importance was lost, remained a force in Japanese life. It was more vigorous than in either China or Korea. Some of the Buddhist monks were able men. As a result of their efforts, Buddhism adapted itself to changing conditions and developed new methods and organisations to meet the problems presented by the times.

### 22.5.3.3 Growth of Christianity

Christianity first entered Japan in the middle of the 16th century. The Tokugawa rulers were hostile to Christianity. So, prior to 1873, there was a ban against Christianity. This ban, which was two centuries old, was removed in 1873. After that, British and American Protestant missionaries were well received in Japan. In 1875, Japanese Christian converts started Doshisha, an English school. By 1890, five more Christian schools and colleges were established. But, soon there was opposition for opening such institutions from various sections of Japan.

In the 1890's the spread of Christianity suffered a setback. Anti-Christian laws were passed. But, soon it became evident to the Government that this policy was detrimental to the nation's foreign relations. So, Christian prisoners were released, and anti-Christian laws allowed to die. Thereafter, Christianity grew in strength and influence. Protestantism of various forms grew. The Roman Catholic and Orthodox Church had made a little impact.

However, Shintoism was more suited to the mood of Japan, and it served the national cause very much.

### Check Your Progress - II

1. Mention the values emphasised by the Japanese Education System.

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2. What was the effect of westernisation on Japanese family?

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## 22.6 LET US SUM UP

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1. The period between 1895 and 1919 witnessed the growth of political parties and constitutional processes in Japan. But it was also the period which made Japan an imperialist power.
2. There was tremendous economic development in Japan in the post Sino-Japanese war period. Industries trade and communications developed. However, due to increase of population and prices, in 1918 the rice riots broke out in Japan. Much of the wealth in the country was concentrated in the Zaibatsu group of families.
3. In education, loyalty to the emperor, patriotism morality and character were emphasised.
4. Due to western influence women became educated and independent. However the family continued to be the basic unit of the society.
5. Shintoism became prominent and the importance of Buddhism declined during this period. Christianity also spread in Japan in the period under reference.

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## 22.7 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : ANSWERS

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- I. 1. Toyama  
2. Mitju Mitsubisti, sumitomo and yosuda- known collectively as Zaibatsu.
- II. 1. Morality, nationalism and character  
2. Westernisation affected the family only superficially. Even after western impact the family continued to be the basis of the social fabric.

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## 22.8 EXAMINATION MODEL QUESTIONS

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- I. Answer the following questions in about 30 lines each.
  1. Trace briefly the politically conditions in Japan from 1895 to 1919.
  2. What were the main features of the economic development of Japan during the period 1895-1919?
  3. Describe the educational, social and religious changes in Japan between 1895-1919.
- II. Answer the following questions in about 15 lines each.
  1. Explain the growth of population and agriculture in Japan during the period 1870-1913.
  2. Trace the progress of industrialisation in Japan from 1895 to 1919.
  3. What was the prominence of Zaibatsu in the economic life of Japan?
  4. Describe the influence of the West on the social institutions of Japan during the period 1870-1919.
  5. State the growth of press and literature during the period 1880 to 1919.
  6. Examine the position of Shintoism in Japan during the quarter ending in 1919.

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## 22.9 BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING

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1. Allen, G.C. : Modern Japan and its Problems
2. Latourette, K.S. : The History of Japan

4. Paul H. Clyde & : The Far East  
Burton F. Beers

– K. Millikarjun Rao

BRAOU

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## UNIT-23 : RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR

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  - 23.2.1 Sino-Japanese War
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- 23.9 Books for Further Reading

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### 23.0 OBJECTIVES

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Study of this unit should enable you to

1. analyse the causes for the Russo-Japanese war
2. describe the course of the war
3. explain the provisions of the treaty of portsmouth
4. analyse the results of the war and estimate its significance.

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### 23.1 INTRODUCTION

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The Russo-Japanese war is a great land mark not only in the history of Japan but also in the history of the entire world. It demonstrated to the world the superiority and great ness of Japan. It was indirectly responsible for the Russian Revolution and for the liberation movements in Asia. The causes, course results and significance of the war are discussed in this unit.

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### 23.2 CAUSES FOR THE WAR

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By the end of 19th century, East Asia had become a focal point in the rivalry of great European powers. Japan, an Asian country, modernised herself and entered the colonial race. Her eyes fell on Korea. But, China and Russia had also interest in Korea. Thus, out of the

Korean problem came a long train of events which affected the entire world. The Sino-Japanese War was one such event. To a proper understanding of the causes for the Russo-Japanese War, the Sino-Japanese War and its consequences provide a back drop.

### 23.2.1 The Sino-Japanese War

**The Sino-Japanese War :** The Sino-Japanese War was fought mainly on the question of Korea. Japan emerged victorious. The colonial powers who did not take sides in the War witnessed Japan's military strength both on land and sea. The War ended with the Treaty of Shimonoseki signed in 1895. The provisions of the Treaty were favourable to Japan. China had to:

1. recognise the independence of Korea;
2. cede Taiwan and Liaotung Peninsula in Manchuria to Japan;
3. pay Japan an indemnity of 300 million *Teals*; and
4. conclude a new treaty of commerce with Japan.

In 1896, a Sino-Japanese commercial treaty was also signed. Thus, Japan achieved whatever she wanted. But, she was not allowed to escape with this big booty. Startled by the quick, complete and unexpected victory of Japan in the War, the big European powers, viz., Russia, France and Germany, intervened in the matter, and therefore, sent a note to Japan, "advising" her to return the Liaotung Peninsula to China. Japan accepted the advice, as it did not like the idea of fighting three major powers. The Liaotung peninsula was returned to China. In return, China agreed to pay an additional indemnity of three million *Teals*. Thus, the Japanese who had won the War, lost the peace.

The triple intervention had tremendous effects on Japanese policy, and on the temper of Japanese people. The people were very much disappointed with the outcome of the War. The return of Liaotung Peninsula was a blow to the national pride of Japan. In fact, it was to shape both the internal and external policies of Japan in the coming years.

### 23.2.2 Japan's Colonial Interests and their Clash with Russian Interests

Japan wanted the recognition of the European powers for her following claims:

1. to have a voice in the affairs of China;
2. to have a predominant position in Korea; and
3. to have an "open door" into Manchuria.

#### 23.2.2.1 China

**China :** Japan's gains in China by the Sino-Japanese War were notable. But, the three European powers by their intervention deprived her of the advantages.

On the other hand, Russia got from China the privilege of building the trans-Siberian Railway, as a reward for her interference. This provided a hold to Russia on northern Manchuria. In addition, Russia guaranteed a loan, raised in Paris by China, to pay the indemnity due to Japan. Thus, in effect, Russia established a financial protectorate over China.

### **23.2.2.2 Korea**

**Korea :** The Sino-Japanese War had given Japan a predominant position in Korea. But, this was lost by Japan late in 1895, when Korean uprising, in which Japanese participated, led to the murder of Korean queen. The king and the crown prince took refuge in Russian embassy where they were subjected to Russian influence. During the next few years, Japan attempted to obtain Russia's recognition of Japan's special position in Korea. In June 1896, Yamagata-Lobanov Agreement was signed. Again in 1898, Nishi-Rosen Convention was signed. But, the Russians did not respect the arrangements.

### **23.2.2 Scramble of European Powers for "Spheres of Influence" in China-Manchuria**

In 1897 began a scramble of European powers for leased territories and "spheres of influence" in China.

China's weakness became evident to the world in her war with Japan. Germany in 1897 demanded a 98 year lease on the harbour of Kiaochow in the province of Shantung. Here, she built a city, and established railway lines. Russia, on her part, demanded and obtained in 1898 lease on Port Arthur and Dairan in Liaotung Peninsula of which, she deprived Japan scarcely three years before. She connected them with railways. A Russo-Chinese Bank was in a position to dominate all Manchuria and North China. This was the worst insult Japan had to bear. Japan however established a sphere of influence in Fukien province across from Formosa. But, this could not compensate the Liaotung injustice. Great Britain also obtained a lease on Wei-hai-wei. She also established her sphere of influence in the Yangtze valley. France was given a lease in South China. But, France and Britain were not considered as rivals by Japan.

### **23.2.3 Japanese Part in Repressing the Boxer Rebellion in China**

Meanwhile, a reform movement was started in China. The progressives, led by the young Emperor, made serious efforts to reorganise their nation, as Japan did. Reaction followed. In 1900, led by a conservative party, called the Boxers, an armed attempt was made, to rid the land of the Westerner. The foreign residents in Peking were attacked. Christian missionaries were killed. An international army was formed. Japan organised a relief expedition. Behaving in an exemplary fashion, Japan made a good impression upon foreign observers. It rescued farmers in Peking. As a result, Japan gained a voice in international councils over Chinese affairs. However, the Boxer rebellion brought fresh difficulties with Russia.

### **23.2.4 Clash of Interests in Manchuria**

Russia had taken advantage of the Boxer rebellion in China. She rushed her troops into Manchuria, to protect her citizens and her property. The rebellion was over. But still, Russia maintained her forces in Manchuria. Japan protested. The United States of America attempted to ensure in Manchuria the principle of territorial integrity and the open door policy. Finally, in April, 1902, Russia promised to remove her troops. But it appeared that, she was determined to permanently occupy Manchuria into a Russian province." America, Britain and Japan protested. But yet, Russia in 1903 obtained special privileges in Manchuria. She appointed a viceroy too in Manchuria as though it was under her rule.

### **23.2.5 The Anglo-Japanese Alliance of 1902**

Russia's determination to have her way in Manchuria produced a vigorous response in

Japan and Great Britain. Until 1901, Britain hoped for a settlement with Russia. Ito Hirobumi, the Prime Minister of Japan, believed that Japanese interest in Korea, would be restored by an arrangement with Russia rather than with Britain. But now, Ito had resigned. General Katsura Taro, a protege of Yamagata had become the Prime Minister. Yamagata believed that war with Russia was inevitable. Meanwhile, common fear of Russia brought the Japanese and English together. So, an Anglo-Japanese Alliance was signed on January 30, 1902. the terms of the Treaty recognised England's primary interest in China, and Japan's in Korea. The signatories pledged to support the "independence and territorial integrity" of China and Korea, and the "open door" policy. The real importance of the Alliance was its recognition of the special interest of both the powers in China, and the special interests of Japan politically as well as commercially, and industrially in Korea. This unprecedented Alliance between Britain and Japan ended Britain's splendid isolation. It elevated Japan to the great power status. It also gave her freedom to handle the Russian danger in Manchuria and Korea. It gave Japan the much-needed support of the London bankers.

The Treaty was to remain valid for a period of five years. It was renewed and revised in 1905 and again in 1911, for a period of 10 years. But, the Treaty was abrogated by Britain in 1922. Thus, the Treaty was in force for a period of nearly 20 years.

The most immediate effect of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance was a Russo-Chinese Agreement concluded in April, 1902. Russia promised to evacuate her troops from Manchuria within eighteen months. But, she did not specify whether it would recognise and respect Japan's special interest in Korea. Meanwhile, Japan was also acquiring strategic property in Korea. In June, 1903, Japan decided to start discussions with Russia. She was prepared to acknowledge Russian rights in Manchuria. In return, she sought for Russian recognition of Japanese special interest in Korea. Negotiations continued into January, 1904. But, no settlement was reached. Japan issued her final terms. No reply was received by February, 4. So, the Japanese Government decided for war. Japan broke off diplomatic relations with Russia. Russian troops crossed the Yalu river into Korea. Admiral Togo attacked and crippled the Russian squadron at Port Arthur, on February, 8. Two days later, Japan declared war. Thus started the Russo-Japanese War.

### Check Your Progress - I

1. Which was the region in China over which Russia and Japan clashed?

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2. By the Anglo-Japanese treaty in which region of China were the special interests of Japan recognised by Britain?

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### 23.3 COURSE OF THE WAR

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Russo-Japanese War was fought primarily on the soil of Manchuria which belonged to China originally. On land and sea, Japanese were uniformly successful. The Japanese inflicted a severe blow on the Russian fleet at Port Arthur, on Feb. 8, 1904. On the very day, Japanese armies occupied Seoul, the capital of Korea.

The battle of Yalu river commenced when General Kuroki advanced from Seoul northwards. General Nogi captured Port Arthur on 1st January, 1905. The Russians were driven out from Southern Manchuria, and Marshal Oyama advanced towards the north. The heroes of Port Arthur under General Nogi also marched to Manchuria to join the forces of Marshal Oyama.

The battle of Mukden was fought for three weeks in February and March, 1905. Mukden was the capital of Manchuria. There, the Russians suffered heavy casualties. Over 150000 men were killed and wounded before the city fell to the Japanese. The battle of Mukden is one of the great battles of history. The Russian troops were cleared from Southern Manchuria.

Meanwhile, Russians wanted to regain control of the sea. The Baltic fleet was commissioned to Far Eastern waters. In May, 1905 the fleet headed towards Vladivostok. On the morning of May 27, 1905 the fleet was attacked in the straits of Tsushima-between Japan and Korea-by the Japanese under Admiral Togo and was smashed. The next day, three Russian admirals surrendered. Thus, the last Russian fleet was destroyed in this battle which is known as the battle of Tsushima or "battle of the sea of Japan."

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### 23.4 TREATY OF PORTSMOUTH

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Though Japan had won military victories on land and had destroyed Russian sea power, she could not destroy the Russian armies. Her economy was very much strained. Russia on the other hand, though not crushed in war, became unpopular at home. A revolution broke out in Russia. It was ready for peace negotiations. So, when the president of U.S.A., Theoder Roosevelt offered his mediation, both the powers accepted it.

The negotiations held at Portsmouth in U.S.A., concluded in September, 1905 with the signing of the Treaty of Portsmouth. The following are the provisions of the Treaty.

1. Japan's paramount position in Korea was recognised.
2. Both powers agreed to evacuate Manchuria simultaneously.
3. Russia transferred to Japan her rights in Liaotung Peninsula, and her railways and mining privileges in Southern Manchuria.
4. The Southern half of Karafuto (Sakhalin) was given to Japan by Russia.
5. Fishing privileges were given to Japan in the seas to the north and west of its Islands.
6. Both powers agreed to keep their armed railway guards in Manchuria.
7. Sakhalin was not to be fortified by both the powers. Manchurian railways should not be used for strategic purposes.
8. Chinese authority was to be respected in Manchuria. Open door policy was to be followed by all nations there.

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### 23.5 RESULTS OF THE WAR

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The Russo-Japanese War and the Treaty of Portsmouth had far-reaching consequences in

the modern history of East Asia. It opened the door to a period of Russo-Japanese collaboration in Manchuria. Japan had established its paramountcy on Korea. It upset the balance of power both in Europe and Asia. The very fact that an European power, Russia, was defeated by a small Asian nation like Japan had electrified the thinking of Asians. In India, the extremist age had begun in the Freedom Movement.

### **23.5.1 Japanese gains**

Japanese were not satisfied with the outcome of the War. The Treaty was unpopular because it had not promised any indemnity to Japan. There were mass protests in Japan. But yet, Japan's gains cannot be underestimated. It established her authority in Korea and Southern Manchuria. The danger of Russia had completely been wiped out. Japan was recognised as world power. Japan got a free hand to follow her expansionist policies in China. Japan's economy flourished with the possession of new markets in Korea and Manchuria. Her prestige in the West had increased. The Anglo-Japanese Alliance was renewed in August 1905. In that, the reference to Korean independence was dropped. It also led to the signing of the Sino-Japanese Treaty in 1905.

### **23.5.2 Impact on Russia**

Russia emerged as a loser nation after the War. This changed the course of European politics. Russia was checked in Asia. So, Russia changed the direction. She developed interest in the Balkans which brought her into confrontation with Germany and Austria. International prestige and respect of Russia went down.

It paved the way for the Russian Revolution. The people of world in general, and the people of Russia in particular, realised the weakness of the Tzarist rule in Russia. There was unrest. It also led the way to a period of Russo-Japanese collaboration in Manchuria. In 1907, the Russians and the Japanese came together, and signed a number of agreements. There was a secret agreement also dividing Manchuria.

### **23.5.3 Impact on China**

It is China that lost her territories due to Russo-Japanese War. The integrity of China was itself in danger. The War itself was fought primarily in Manchuria which was a Chinese territory, though it was under the military occupation of Russia from 1900.

After this War, the nationalist feelings in China became intense. Nationalism was respected and loved in China. Chinese students went to Japan in large numbers to study and learn the Japanese techniques in war and peace. The Reform Movement of 1911 in China had its roots in the Russo-Japanese War.

The Treaty of Portsmouth transferred to Japan the Russian territorial railway in South Manchuria with the condition that Chinese consent has to be obtained. By Komura treaty, signed in December 1905, this consent was obtained by Japan from China. An additional China-Japanese agreement was also signed. By the authority of these agreements, Japan created the South Manchuria Railway Company-(Han-yeh-ping Company). This Company became an effective instrument of Japanese penetration into Manchuria. The Han-yeh-ping Company held coal mines, iron mines and iron works in central China. The working of this Company made foreign nationals jealous, and it also created fear among them. They feared that using this Company, Japan may ease out all the non-Japanese from South Manchuria.

### 23.5.4 Impact on Asia

The impact of the War on Asia was very strong. The very fact that a tiny Japan defeated a mighty Russia, infused a new spirit in the people of Asia. The political thinking of Asia changed; rather it was revolutionised. The nationalists of Persia, India and China were inspired by the victory of Japan, and they started looking to Japan as a model for their nations.

#### Check Your Progress - II

1. What is the effect of the portsmouth treaty on Japan's position in Korea?

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2. What was the effect of Japan's Victory against Russia on the colonial countries in Asia?

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### 23.6 LET US SUM UP

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1. The clash of interests between Japan and Russia in China was the main cause for the Russo-Japanese war.
2. The war was mostly fought on the Manchurian soil in China. The war which started in Feb 1904 ended in May 1905 with the defeat of Russia.
3. The portsmouth treaty which was concluded after the war resulted in many gains to Japan and many losses to Russia. Southern sakhalin island was given to Japan by Russia.
4. The victory of Japan over Russia surprised the entire world. It inspired the people of colonial countries in Asia to fight for independence.

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### 23.7 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : ANSWERS

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- I.
  1. Manchuria
  2. Korea
- II.
  1. Japan's paramount position in Korea was recognised.
  2. The victory of Japan against Russia inspired the people in the colonial countries to fight for their independence.

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### 23.8 EXAMINATION MODEL QUESTIONS

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- I. Answer the following questions in about 30 lines each.

1. Trace briefly the causes that led to the Russo-Japanese War.
2. What were the causes, terms and results of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance of 1902?
3. Examine the results of the Russo-Japanese War.

II. Answer the following questions in about 15 lines each.

1. Briefly describe the course of the Russo-Japanese War.
2. What were the provisions of the Treaty of Portsmouth?
3. Examine the impact of Russo-Japanese War on China.

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### 23.9 BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING

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1. Allen, G.C : Modern Japan and its Problems
2. Latourette, K.S. : The History of Japan
3. Norman, E.H. : Japan's Emergence as a Modern State
4. Paul H. Clyde & Burton F. Beers : The Far East

— K. Mallikarjun Rao

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## UNIT-24 : JAPAN AND WORLD WAR-I

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- 24.2 Circumstances leading to the entry of Japan into the war
- 24.3 Twenty one demands
- 24.4 Gains of Japan from the war
- 24.5 Siberian Expedition
- 24.6 Japan at the Paris Peace Conference
- 24.7 Effects of the War on Japan
- 24.8 Let us sum up
- 24.9 Check Your Progress : Answers
- 24.10 Examination Model Questions
- 24.11 Books for Further Reading

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### 24.0 OBJECTIVES

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Study of this unit should enable you to

1. trace the circumstances leading to the entry of Japan in to World War I
2. explain the gains of Japan from the war
3. estimate the role of Japan in the Paris Peace Conference and
4. analyse the effects of the war on Japan.

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### 24.1 INTRODUCTION

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The first world war helped Japan to become a great Political Power. It also helped Japan to increase her industrial production. In this unit, Japan's entry in to World War I, her compaigns and her gains form the war are discussed. Japan's role in the Paris peace conferences is also explained in this unit.

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### 24.2 CIRCUMSTANCES LEADING TO THE ENTRY OF JAPAN INTO THE FIRST WORLD WAR

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When the First World War broke out in 1914, there was political instability in Japan, and authority in Government, died. It will be interesting to note that General Nogi of Russo-Japanese War fame committed *harakiri* to follow him to the other world. That was an invalid and he did not possess the personality of his illustrious father. Under his rule, the throne became a symbol, but not a driving force. The political parties were not strong, and the influence of elders in **Genro** was waning. Military members of the Cabinet created troubles to the Government.

Economically too, Japan was not sound. As a result of the policy of expansion, her finances were exhausted. She was contemplating to raise foreign loans. In addition, population was growing.

It was in these circumstances that the First World War came to Japan as a God-sent gift.

The First World War, which started in August 1914, was primarily an European conflict. It

started as a war between Serbia and Austria. But, soon its scope was extended when Russia and Germany joined the War, supporting Serbia and Austria respectively. When France and Britain declared war against Germany, it became a World War.

When the War started, under the obligation of Anglo-Japanese alliance, Japan was required to help Britain. Japan was ready to honour her obligation because it offered her an opportunity to establish herself in China and Pacific. On August 7, 1914, Britain requested Japan to destroy the German navy in the Pacific Ocean. On August 15, Japan sent a note to Germany asking her to withdraw armed ships and men of war from the Pacific. She also asked Germany to give up to her the leased territory of Kiaochow so as to restore it to China. Germany did not send a reply. So, Japan entered the War on August 23, 1914.

Immediately, China was alarmed, and declared her neutrality. She delimited a war zone in the areas adjacent to Kiaochow. She nationalised the coal and iron mines administered by Han-yeh-ping Company. In January, 1915, she abolished the Shantung war zone.

But, Japan attacked Tsingtao, a port in Kiaochow, from the rear, as it was under a naval blockade. Kiaochow surrendered on November 10, 1914. Japan took over Kiaochow and all German interests in Shantung, including the Tsingtao-Tsinan Railways. She also obtained from China the authority of policing the rail roads outside Kiaochow.

Japan's fleet also captured the Marshall, Mariane and Caroline islands in the North Pacific. They belonged to Germany. She cooperated with Britain in the Pacific and Indian Oceans against German raiders. A Japanese destroyer force was despatched to the Mediterranean on anti-submarine duty. Her navy patrolled the seas from India to South America. But, Japan declined the frequent requests of Britain to send land forces to the Western front.

Meanwhile, Japan wanted to take further advantage of the War and establish complete control over China.

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### **24.3 TWENTY-ONE DEMANDS**

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On January 18, 1915, Japan presented to China demands. These 21 demands were arranged in five groups.

**Group 1:** The demands in this group related to Shantung. China should not accept to return Shantung to Germany at the close of the War. She was to give Japan additional railway concessions and new ports.

**Group 2:** Related to South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mangolia. China has to concede the paramount interest of Japan in this area by extending many privileges to her.

**Group 3:** Related to Han-yeh-ping Company. This Company has to be made a joint undertaking of China and Japan. China should not dispose off her rights to the Company without the consent of Japan.

**Group 4:** Prohibited China from ceding and leasing to any other power other than Japan, any harbour or island along her coast.

**Group 5:** Provided that the Chinese were to employ Japanese as advisers in political, financial, and military affairs. The police departments in important cities in China were to be under joint administration of China and Japan. Japan should be granted a monopoly of mine, harbour and road development in Fukien, a province opposite to Formosa. China should

conclude an agreement with Japan to purchase arms in Japan. Japanese right to foster religious doctrines should be accepted. Japanese should be allowed to establish hospitals, schools and temples in the heart of China.

These demands were presented to Yuan Shih-Kai, President of China, by Japanese minister at Peking, Hioki. The maintenance of secrecy insisted upon. But, China leaked them through unofficial channels. Immediately, there was violent reaction from the Chinese. There was vigorous criticism in foreign quarters. There was opposition even in Japan.

But, China was not in a position to offer armed resistance. European powers were busily engaged in the War. The United States was not willing to use force on this issue. Meanwhile, the negotiations dragged on. On May 7, 1915, Japan presented China with an ultimatum, demanding acceptance of provisions in the first four groups. She accepted for the postponement of discussions on the fifth group of demands. China yielded. On May 25, China and Japan signed a number of treaties.

### Check Your Progress - I

1. Under which treaty Japan agreed to help Britain in the I world war?

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2. Which groups of the 21 demands were accepted by China and on which group of demands acceptance was postponed?

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### 24.4 GAINS OF JAPAN FROM THE FIRST WORLD WAR

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By all these treaties, Japan gained the following:- 1. Shantung was recognised as a Japanese sphere 2. Leasehold on Kwantung was extended to 99 years, with additional privileges in South Manchuria 3. To raise foreign capital for the construction of railway or harbour in Fukien, China was to consult Japan first.

In 1916 disorders broke in Eastern Inner Mangolia. It gave a chance to Japan to strengthen her control over that region. Her position was further strengthened by a five year defensive alliance with Russia in 1916. It was an agreement for joint action.

Early in 1917, Britain and France by secret treaties assured Japan that they would support at the Peace Conference her claims in Shantung and Pacific islands. Italy and Russia also promised by secret treaties that they would not stand in her way. By the Lansing-Ishi agreement, it seemed that America had also given its approval.

Japan controlled the corrupt military Anfu clique in Peking, which came to power after death of Yuan. The Anfu clique gave many military advantages to Japan.

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## 24.5 SIBERIAN EXPEDITION

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Meanwhile, the Tsarist Government fell in Russia in 1917 as a result of the Bolshevik Revolution.

In order to rescue the marooned Czechoslovak in Siberia, an army was sent by the Allies in July 1918. But even before that, Japanese saw in the chaotic conditions in Russia an excellent opportunity to take over Eastern Siberia or at least to set up a friendly buffer state there. So, even in April, 1918, Japanese navy occupied Vladivostok. Now, when Allied army landed in Serbia, Japan sent in 75,000 troops three times bigger than Allied army. The Allied troops were withdrawn in 1920, but the Japanese army remained. Some Japanese at Nicolaiusk, a Serbian town, were killed. Taking advantage of this incident, Japan occupied the Russian part of Sakhalin. The entire Siberian expedition was not only costly, but also became very unpopular. Japan did not get any glory out of it, but worry.

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## 24.6 JAPAN AT THE PARIS PEACE CONFERENCE

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The First World War swept away the old balance of power not only in Europe, but also in East Asia. The War had provided Japan an opportunity to expand her economy and armed forces, and achieve her supermacy in China and the Pacific. She wanted to consolidate her gains. Japan made elaborate preparations for the Paris Peace Conference. She was represented by Baron Makino, Nagata and Viscount Chinda, Sugawara and Saito at the Peace Conference.

Japan presented three demands at the Conference. 1. Cessation of already acquired former German islands in the North Pacific the Marianas, the Marshalls and the Carolines. 2. Confirmation of her right to Shantung province which formerly belonged to Germany. 3. Declaration of racial equity among nations as a basic principle of the proposed League of Nations.

After much discussion, Japan accepted for compromise on the first issue. North Pacific islands were not to be annexed by Japan. Under the system of Mandates, these islands became the Mandatory territories of Japan.

Her insistence of racial equity was opposed by Australia and Britain. The Conference did not accept the amendment proposed by Japan to the draft covenant of the League of Nations. Japan had to accept the defeat.

But, Japan threatened to withdraw from the Conference if her claims to the former German rights in Shantung province were not accepted. Finally, she won. Her claims in Shantung were confirmed by the Conference. China refused to sign the treaty. Japan was made one of the five permanent members of the Council in the newly created League of Nations. Thus, she was recognised formally as a world power.

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## 24.7 THE EFFECTS OF THE WAR ON JAPAN

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1. The War enhanced the influence of Japanese army over the policy decisions of the Government in Japan.
2. It led to Pan-Asianism in Japan.
3. Japan's relations with Europe and America deteriorated. There was a feeling in those

countries that Japan had shown little interest in the defeat of Germany, and that she used the War to advance Japanese sphere of influence in China. On the other hand, Japan felt that her legitimate aspirations were checked by European powers, and especially by America.

4. The War had produced a desire for democracy in Japan also. Hara became Prime Minister. He formed a party Government.
5. On the eve of the First World War, Japan's economy was in a serious situation. But, the War had created an unprecedented boom in her commerce and industry. During the War, Asian markets were thrown open to Japan, because Europe was unable to export goods. This resulted in the growth of shipping, munition and other industries in Japan. There was tremendous expansion in the range and volume of industrial production. The number of workers in factories rose by 70%. The merchant marine doubled in size. She got a net gain in her international accounts of more than three billion Yen. But, this was all short-lived.
6. The War time boom which lasted until 1920, contributed to the demands of reforms in many fields, particularly in the economic sphere.

### Check Your Progress - II

1. Why did Japan think of the siberian expedition?

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2. How did the desire for democracy develop in Japan due to World War I

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### 24.8 LET US SUM UP

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1. Due to Anglo-Japanese Treaty, Japan entered the War.
2. Japan compelled china to accept majority of her 21 demands.
3. In the paris peace conference Japan was recognised as a world power.
4. Japan was able to get the territories, rights and privilages which Germany earlier had in the shantung province of china.
5. Japan's economy improved due to the war consequent on the boom which Japan's industry and commerce had

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### 24.9 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : ANSWERS

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- I 1. Anglo-Japanese treaty of 1902

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## 24.9 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : ANSWERS

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- I
1. Anglo-Japanese treaty of 1902
  2. The first four groups of demands were accepted and the acceptance of the fifth group of demands was postponed.
- II
1. Japan planned the siberian expedition to occupy siberian or atleast to set up a friendly buffer state.
  2. Japan's tie up with Allied Democratic countries in the war promoted the desire for democracy in Japan.

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## 24.10 EXAMINATION MODEL QUESTIONS

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I. Answer the following questions in about 30 lines each

1. Examine the circumstances that led to the entry of Japan into the First World War and its initial role in it.
2. Describe the 21 Demands.

II Answer the following questions in about 15 lines each

1. What are the gains that Japan gained from its conclusion of treaties with China in 1915?
2. Write about Japan's role at the Paris Peace Conference.
3. Examine the effects of the First World War on Japan.

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## 24.11 BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING

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1. Allen, G.C. : Modern Japan and its Problems
2. Latourette, K.S. : The History of Japan
3. Norman E.H. : Japan's Emergence as Modern State
4. Paul H. Clyde & Burton F. Beers : The Far East

— K. Mallikarjuna Rao

## **BLOCK - VIII**

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### **JAPAN BETWEEN THE TWO WORLD WARS**

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This block consists of units 25, 26 and 27. The conditions in Japan between the two world wars are discussed in the units. The industrial and military expansion of Japan during that period, Japan's invasion of Manchuri and Japan's victories and final defeat in the second world war are discussed.

**Unit - 25 : Industrial Expansion and Militarism**

**Unit - 26 : Conflict with China and Manchurian Invasion**

**Unit - 27 : Japan in World War II**

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## **UNIT-25 JAPAN BETWEEN THE TWO WORLD WARS – INDUSTRIAL EXPANSION – MILITARISM**

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### **Contents**

- 25.0 Objectives
- 25.1 Introduction
- 25.2 Transformation of Japan from an agrarian to industrial economy
- 25.3 Factors which stimulated industrial expansion
- 25.4 Growth of heavy industries
- 25.5 Role of Ziyabats in industrial development
- 25.6 Depression of 1929 and its effects on Japan's economy
- 25.7 Decline of Agriculture
- 25.8 Causes for militarism
- 25.9 Stengthening of Army and Navy
- 25.10 National Pride
- 25.11 February 1936 incident
- 25.12 Let us sum up
- 25.13 Check Your Progress
- 25.14 Examination Model Questions
- 24.15 Books for further Reading

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### **25.0 OBJECTIVES**

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Study of this unit should enable you to

1. Give an account of the economic development of Japan between the two world wars.
2. Analyse the causes for industrial expansion between the two world wars
3. Discuss the growth of militarism in Japan between the two world wars and
4. Explain the causes for militarism

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### **25.1 INTRODUCTION**

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Industrial expansion and rise of militarism were the two important developments in Japan between the two world wars. In this units factors responsible for those developments and the features of those changes are discussed.

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### **25.2 TRANSFORMATION OF JAPAN AN AGRARIAN TO THE INDUSTRIAL ECONOMY**

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The population of Japan rose to about 72 millions by 1938. It had been increasing at the rate of about a million a year. In spite of that, Japan wanted to improve the standard of living of the population.

In Japan, most of the land was not suited to agriculture. As a result, the farming population did not increase in the 1930's. Yet, most of the soil was brought under cultivation. Intensive cultivation was made. Chemical fertilisers were used in place of night-soil, fish and vegetable wastes. However, the system of land-holding and the ownership in Japan stood in the way of development. Moreover, Korea produced rice at a lower cost. Japan had to face the competition of Korean rice. Japan had to import potash and phosphates. In spite of these shortcomings

during the 1930's, Japan was producing most of her food, though she imported some rice from Korea and sugar from Formosa. She produced most of her rice. She was not only able to have enough fish for her consumption, but also exported some.

Moreover during the 1930's huge quantities of raw silk were also produced by the farmers of Japan. Most of the silk was exported, mainly to the United States. Immediately after the First World War, there was economic prosperity in America. The demand for silk from Japan increased very much. But, with the Depression in 1929 and the early 1930's the demand for Japanese silk from America almost vanished. The price of Japanese rice also fell sharply. The effect of this on the farmers was disastrous. Many farmers who depended upon silk for their livelihood were affected, and peasants sank into poverty. Though Japan turned to the production of rayon and soon led the world, it did not benefit the farmers immediately.

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### 25.3 FACTORS WHICH STIMULATED INDUSTRIAL EXPANSION

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Japan also wanted the development of industries to improve the standard of living of her rising population. The Government established the Institute of Physics and Chemistry in 1917, to carry on research for the development of industries. Efforts were made in a big way to increase the power generation; industries, commerce and shipping developed.

Japan's industries were chiefly in urban centres like Tokyo Yokohama, Nagoya and Osaka-Kova. Between 1929 to 1939, the volume of industrial production increased by more than 80%.

Industrialisation was achieved in Japan by adopting two methods.

- (1) Multiplication of small units
- (2) Growth of large-scale industries

In the sector of small-scale industries, came the traditional handicrafts like silk textiles, potteries, and porcelains etc. It also included the new industries producing electric lamps, bicycles and hosiery. However, the increase in the sector accounted for only 20% of the industrial production.

To start with, large-scale industries were extensively employed in cotton textiles. In the 1930's the cotton textiles of Japan were in great demand. It became a major commodity for export. Even after the Japanese silk lost its demand, cotton goods had maintained their popularity. China, India and Dutch Indies imported Japanese textiles.

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### 25.4 GROWTH OF HEAVY INDUSTRIES

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Then came the heavy industries. In fact the heavy industries, such as steel machinery, and ship-building, started growing even before the First World War. But, their rate of growth was very slow, because they were originally intended to serve strategic needs. But now, the emphasis was on increasing the production. The production of steel, railway rolling stock, ship-building and heavy machinery etc., increased enormously. Electric generating capacity increased fourfold. In the beginning, the availability of cheap labour at home, put Japan in a favourable position in world markets. Later on, she concentrated on improved machinery and organisational efficiency.

Raw-materials and markets are two fundamental requisites for the industrial development. Japan had sufficient coal. She also developed hydro-electric power, thanks to her mountain streams. She produced copper too. But, Japan had no iron ore. She depended upon imports for

iron, steel, petroleum, and some of the chemicals needed for her fertilizer and chemical industries. Japan wanted a sure supply of raw-materials, and also assured markets. The economic necessity explains, to a certain extent, the imperial policy vigorously followed by Japan even between the two Wars. With the acquisition of Manchuria, and certain provinces of China, she got control over the resources of raw-materials and assured markets.

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## 25.5 THE ROLE OF ZAIBATSU IN INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT

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The growth of heavy industries and large-scale commercial operations was due to the leadership provided by **Zaibatsu**-the houses of **Mitsu, Mitsubishi, Yasuda and Sumitomo**. There was a very large number of small, family-owned enterprises, who operated as sub contractors or suppliers for these giant industries. These family-owned enterprises manufactured 30% of the total goods. Known as cartels, they controlled production and distribution, and maintained price levels in most of the important industries. Between the two World Wars, this was a dominant feature in the economic life of Japan. During the 1930s and the 1940s, the government extended patronage to **Zaibatsu**. The **Mitsui** became the predominant monopolist house of Japan. It constructed a diversified private capitalist pyramid. It owned a bank, a life insurance company, rayon, ropeway, iron works and oil refining companies, rubber, chemicals, cement and mining industries, and departmental stores.

The **Zaibatsu** profited by Japan's territorial expansion. They made large investments in acquired territories.

By 1937, Japan was producing all the machine tools required by her. This was achieved by improving technical efficiency and diversification of industrial production. Moreover, until 1937 there was no Government control over industries but later on it adopted a policy of strict controls.

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## 25.6 THE WORLD DEPRESSION OF 1929 AND ITS EFFECTS ON JAPAN'S ECONOMY

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By 1929, Japan had not closed the gap between imports and exports. So, the Japanese Government followed a policy of encouraging less consumption and more production. It also organised a nationalism movement to help industry reduce export prices.

Meanwhile, in 1929 the world Depression came. Japan's exports dropped by more than 30% between 1929 and 1931. Agriculture and industry suffered.

In order to achieve economic recovery, the Japanese government adopted an inflationary policy in 1931. **Takahashi Kore Kiyoo** was the Finance Minister at that time. Instead of increasing taxes to balance the budget, he increased the currency circulation. This resulted in the devaluation of the *Yen*. However, in 1936, he returned to a balanced budget, but the army which had become powerful in the government, did not allow it. Japan had to continue the policy of deficit financing, upto, and even, during the Second World War.

The devaluation of the *Yen* contributed to an export boom again in the 1930s. In terms of foreign currency, Japanese goods became cheap. By 1936, Japanese exports had increased by 20% over those of 1929. But, there was competition in the world markets. Many restrictions had developed in the form of tariffs and quota arrangements. Yet, Japanese foreign trade continued to increase because of its territorial expansion.

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## 25.7 DECLINE OF AGRICULTURE

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As already explained, the demand for Japanese silk and rice had been affected as a result of the world Depression of 1929. Many of the peasants lost their livelihood. The younger people from the farming class were conscripted into the army. They communicated to their officers the dissatisfaction of the peasants. These junior and middle level officers wanted to relieve the pressure of the farmers in Japan by expanding the Japanese territories into Manchuria and China. This in turn, influenced the expansionist policy of Japan.

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## 25.8 CAUSES FOR MILITARISM

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Modernisation of Japan, combined with a sense of national pride, the growth of population, the industrial development, control of Japan's economy and commerce by **Zaibatsu** and the policy of expansion followed by Japan, as explained in detail above and also in preceding lessons, had contributed to the rise of militarism in Japan. Yet, had the political parties succeeded in providing a strong and stable leadership, this development would have been checked. The failure of the political parties was one of the main causes for the rise of militarism in Japan which we have to study in greater detail.

While discussing the political conditions of Japan from 1882-1918 (Lesson No.22) it was explained how the **Seiyukai** and its leader Hara were enhancing their power as the role of **Genro** had declined. It was the beginning of a new era of rule by party politicians.

The First World War which ended with the ushering of in democratic ideas, the intellectual liberalism propounded by Yoshino-Sakuzo and propagated by writers like Minobe, Tatsukichi and Mushakosi Saneatsu, and the economic boom all contributed as the base for the new politics in Japan. Moreover, by the end of World War I, the personalities of the oligarchy had either died or lost their influence. Itagaki died in 1919. Yamagata and Okuma died in 1922. Matsukata died in 1924, but left politics even earlier. The only remaining **Genro**, Saionji was sympathetic towards party government.

Between 1918 and 1932, twelve cabinets changed. They were all short-lived. But, during the period of Tanaka, the army and navy had acquired political influence.

### Check Your Progress - I

1. To what extent small scale industries developed in Japan between the two world wars?

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2. How did the depression of 1929 affect Japan?

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## 25.9 STRENGTHENING OF ARMY AND NAVY

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Tanaka followed a stronger policy towards China. He despatched troops to Shantung as there were some disturbances. In 1928, fighting took place between the Japanese and the Kuomintang troops of China. This hard line of Tanaka provoked anti-Japanese boycott in China. Tanaka also tried to strengthen Japan in Manchuria. Taking advantage of the positive foreign policy of Tanaka, some officers of Japan's Kwantung army assassinated the Manchurian ruler, the war-lord, Chang-Tso-Lin. Tanaka wanted to punish the officers and establish discipline in the army. But, his measures were blocked by the powerful military affairs bureau. Tanaka resigned. It was a victory for the arrogant military officers. It also proved the independent political authority enjoyed by the army.

Hamaguchiyo, the President of Minseito party, was the next Prime Minister. This party was founded in 1927 by merging Kenseikai and Seiyuhontō. Shidehara became Foreign Minister again. He adopted a conciliatory policy towards China. This cabinet signed the London Naval Agreement of 1930. But, the Japanese Navy opposed the provisions of the London Naval Conference. Hamaguchi gave the chief of the Naval Staff, a veto over future agreements, and obtained Navy's consent to the London Naval treaty. He also agreed to expand its airforce. Hamaguchi was shot at by a young fanatic. Though he survived, he resigned the Prime Ministership. He was succeeded by Wakatsuki Reijiro who formed a cabinet for the second time. His cabinet could not control the activities of the army in Manchuria. He was made to resign.

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## 25.10 NATIONAL PRIDE

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It was in response to Perry's mission that nationalism took its rebirth in Japan. It learnt lessons from the history of India, China and other Eastern countries where one or the other of the European countries had established their political and economic control. In order not to leave any room for the repetition of history in their own country, Japan wanted to modernise herself. So, in the Meiji period, it imported the technology and techniques of the West along with Western political, economic and social ideas. But, she assimilated all this knowledge into her own indigenous institutions and values. Thus, arming herself with national temper, Japan, as we have seen in earlier lessons, paid the European powers in their own coin. After the First World War, Japan was recognised by one and all as a great power in the world.

At the Paris Peace Conference, Japan pleaded unsuccessfully for the endorsement of the principle of racial equality. By this, Japanese national pride was affected. Yet, immediately after the War, there was a trend towards democracy in Japan. But, later as a reaction, ultra-nationalism emerged as a force.

In the 1920's, the ultra-nationalists started organising themselves, along with the liberals, to reduce the influence of Yoshino Sakoyō, a liberal organisation which Okowa Shumei had established. **Rosokai**, an ultra-nationalist society was started even in 1918. In 1919, greater Japan Nationalists Society **Dia-Nihon, Kokusui** was founded. In 1924, Baron Hiranuma Kiichiro founded **Kokuhonsha**. It became very popular soon. Politicians, admirals, generals and businessmen joined in it. The aim of this society was to protect Japan's national policy. Youth associations and imperial reservists' associations spread patriotic thought into villages. Among the army officers also, small societies came into existence. **Sakurakai** the Cherry Society was one such society established in Tokyo, in September, 1930. The **Sakurakai** even planned secretly to establish a military dictatorship. But, the plan failed. Another group of officers wanted to assassinate the whole cabinet in 1931. But, the plot was discovered, and leaders were arrested.

The political history of Japan after 1931 is the history of extreme nationalism. It was best personified by General Araki Sadao, founder of **Koda Ha**.

Inukai Tsu-Yoshi became the Prime Minister after Wakatsuke. The new cabinet supported the army activities in Manchuria. Large military appropriations were made. Meanwhile, social unrest was increasing in Japan. Many important people were killed. This was the work of a group of navy officers, army cadets and civilians, who called themselves "blood brotherhood". In May 1932, Inukai was assassinated. The group also attacked the Tokyo central headquarters, the Bank of Japan, the Mitsubishi Bank, the home of chief officials of the imperial house-hold, and the Seiyukai headquarters.

The army even refused to supply an army minister to another party cabinet. Saionji picked admiral Saito Makoto, a military a military man, as the next Prime Minister. Thus, the party cabinet disappeared, and no one bothered, many of the Japanese strongly believed that the parties were controlled by the **Zaibatsu**. There was also a feeling that the parties and the governments were acting in the interest of the financial groups of **Zaibutsu**.

Saito Cabinet, formed in 1932, survived until 1934. Thereafter, until 1941, nine cabinets changed.

Saito's cabinet wanted to eradicate liberal thought. The government dismissed professor Tawaka of the Kyoto Imperial University Law School. In protest, the entire law faculty has resigned. Government dismissed many liberal professors.

The next cabinet was headed by Admiral Okada, another Navy moderate. He became Prime Minister in July 1934. Anti-liberal policy was continued. Professor Minobe Tatsukichi had propounded a theory that the emperor was an "organ" of the state. This "organ theory" was condemned by reactionaries and the army. The Okada cabinet also rejected this theory.

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## **25.11 FEBRUARY 1936 INCIDENT**

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By about the early 1930's there were two main groups in the army. One was the imperial faction known as **Kodo Ha**. This group consisted of lower ranking officers. They wanted the army to capture control over the government and establish state socialism. The second group consisted of the higher army officers. They favoured the extension of army control at home, and expansion abroad. But, they wanted to achieve these aims within the existing social and economic framework. This group was known as **Tosei Ha**. It was actually controlling the Government by 1934. **Tosei Ha** had to face the violence created by **Kodo Ha**. The senior officers sympathising with **Koda Ha** were transferred to remote places, from Tokyo. In August 1935, a Lieutenant-Colonel, who was under transfer, went into the army ministry, and killed general Nagata, the army personnel officer. On February 26, 1936 some young officers who were under transfer orders to Manchuria, revolted, and actually captured central Tokyo. They tried to kill the Prime Minister Okada in vain. But, they were successful in killing the army Inspector-General, the Finance Minister, and the Admiral Saito. On February 29, 1936, the rebels were made to surrender. The leaders were executed, and insubordination in the army was stamped out. As a result of this incident, the cooperation between army leaders and the **Zaibatsu** increased. The political leaders in the government became hesitant to oppose military demands.

In March, 1936 Hirotakoki formed the new government. He formed the cabinet, appointing ministers approved by the minister of War. General Count Terauchi Juichi. Certain "basic principles for national policy" were decided upon by the cabinet secretly. Hirota accepted them. Yet, the army forced him out of office to have one of the army Generals as Prime Minister.

General Hayashi Senjuro formed the next cabinet, which consisted of military men and professional bureaucrats. Hayashi was not an able administrator. He was replaced by Prince Konoe Fumimoro in June 1937. Scarcely after one month, the Second Sino-Japanese War broke out. The Konoe cabinet geared the nation for the War. Compulsory military training was introduced in all the schools. To improve the physical condition of the army men, a welfare ministry was established, and a national health insurance law was introduced in the Diet. A cabinet advisory council with representatives of all the factions was constituted. A central federation for national spiritual mobilisation was created. A cabinet planning board was established. Konoe also created an inner cabinet, consisting of the Foreign Minister, the Finance Minister, the Army Minister and the Navy Minister. In March, 1938 the mobilisation law was passed. This law had given the government full powers to dispose off all the resources of Japan. Thus, army became all powerful. Government by law was substituted by Government by decree.

In January, 1939, Konoe resigned. After the fall of three more cabinets, Konoe organised his second cabinet on July 22, 1940. While out of office, Konoe organised a new party named, the "Imperial Rule Assistance Association" (IRAA). After he became Prime Minister, all the political parties in Japan merged into the new party "IRAA". The New Party was inaugurated on October 12, 1940. The Party had a pyramidal structure.

Meanwhile, the Second World War, started in 1939, continued, and the relations between Japan and America were deteriorating. Negotiations were held. But, they were not successful. General Tojo Hideki, the Army Minister, wanted to make preparations for a war with America. Konoe was not prepared for it. On October 16, 1941, he resigned. Tojo became Prime Minister. He sent final terms to America. They were rejected. On December 2, the Tojo government issued orders to the army to bomb Pearl Harbour. America declared war on Japan. Japan welcomed it.

### Check Your Progress - II

1. Was industrial development responsible for the growth of militarism?

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2. What was the February 1936 incident?

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### 25.12 LET US SUM UP

1. During the inter war period, Japan's agricultural economy was transformed into an industrial economy.
2. Increasing contacts with the west, emphasis on scientific research, the determination of the

rulers and favourable economic factors helped the industrial, and agricultural development of Japan.

3. The Zaibatsu group of rich families played a major role in the economic development of Japan.
4. Industrial development, and national pride contributed to the rise of militarism in Japan. The army and the navy became strengthened.

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### 25.13 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : ANSWERS

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- I
  1. The development of small scale industries account to 20% of the total industrial development in Japan between the two world wars.
  2. The depression of 1929 decreased the exports of Japan As a result of it, industry and agriculture were adversely affected.
- II
  1. Yes
  2. It was a revolt of the lower rank officers of the army who wanted the army to control the Government.

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### 25.14 EXAMINATION MODEL QUESTIONS

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I. Answer the following questions in about 30 lines each

1. Trace the industrial development in Japan between the two World Wars.
2. Describe the growth of militarism in Japan during the period 1924-1941.
3. How did nationalism get promoted in Japan between the two World Wars? What was its immediate impact?
4. What was the February 1936 incident? State its impact in Japan?

II Answer the following questions in about 15 lines each

1. Explain the factors that stimulated industrial expansion in Japan during the period 1929-39.
2. Describe the role of Zaibatsu in the industrial development of Japan.
3. What are the effects of 1929 World Depression on Japan's economy?
4. Examine the causes for the rise of militarism in Japan.

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### 25.15 BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING

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1. Alfred Crofts & P. Buchanan : A History of the Far East
2. Allen, G.C : A Short Economic History of Modern Japan
3. Arthur Tiedemann : Modern Japan
4. Burton, H. : Japan Since 1931
5. Claude, A. Buss : Asia in the Modern World
6. Hugh Byes : Government by Assassination
7. Paul H. Clyde & Burton F. Beers : The Far East

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# UNIT-26 CONFLICT WITH CHINA AND MANCHURIAN INVASION

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  - 26.4.2 Lease hold of Liotung peninsula
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  - 26.4.4 The Japanese Railway gaurds and consuler police,
  - 26.4.5 Presence of Koreans in Manchuria
  - 26.4.6 Attempt of China to build Parallel Rail roads  
againt south Manchurian Railway.
  - 26.4.7 China's refusal to repay loans of 150 million yen to Japan.
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- 26.11 Let us sum up
- 26.12 Check Your Progress : Answers
- 26.13 Examination Model Questions
- 26.14 Books For further Reading

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## 26.0 OBJECTIVES

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1. Explain Japan's conflict with China leading to her invasion of Menchuria and
2. Analyse the causes for Japanese invasion of Manchuria
3. Analyse the effect of Japan's invasion of Manchuria

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## 26.1 INTRODUCTION

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In this unit the conflict between china and Japan after world war I is explained. The back ground to the conflict and th causes to the Japanese invansion of Manchuria are discussed. The consequences of that invasion are also analysed in this unit.

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## 26.2 BACKGROUND FOR THE CONFLICT WITH CHINA

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After the First World War, Japan, England and the United States of America emerged as three major dominant powers in the Far East. France was worried about safeguarding the provisions of the Treaty of Versaillies in Europe. The new-born Communist Russia was busy reorganising and defending herself. China was too weak to have a voice of herown in the politics

of the Far East. The relations between Japan and America were severely strained because of the unresolved problem of immigration, and also the conflict of interests in the Pacific Ocean and in China. All that encouraged Japan to pursue her plans of imperialism in China.

Meanwhile, some important developments took place in China which were not to the liking of Japan.

The World War had produced a spirit of nationalism in the people of China. The 21 Demands made by Japan and their acceptance by the Chinese government under pressure was not liked by the Chinese. China unsuccessfully tried to reverse the 1917 treaties with Japan at the Paris Peace Conference. On May 4th 1919, a national movement broke out in China. The disillusioned and desperate youth, burning with patriotic zeal, started the movement. It soon spread all over China.

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### 26.3 WASHINGTON DISARMAMENT CONFERENCE AND AFTER

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Under these circumstances, America with the consent of England, decided to call for a Disarmament Conference, to discuss the problems relating to East Asia and the Pacific. Invitations were sent to Britain, France, Italy, Japan, Belgium, China, the Netherlands and Portugal

The Washington Disarmament Conference which was inaugurated by President Harding on November 12, 1921, finally produced 6 treaties, and adopted 13 resolutions.

By a four-power treaty, England, America, France and Japan agreed to call joint conferences in future, to decide the controversial questions between them. A treaty provided for the ending of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance.

The five-power naval treaty signed on February 6, 1922 was designed to stop naval competition. It also provided for, among others:

1. A ten-year holiday in capital ship construction.
2. Fixed the tonnage of the capital ships at 5:5:3:1.7:1.7 for for America, England, Japan, France and Italy respectively.

The inferior capital ship ratio accorded to Japan, wounded her national pride. All the powers participating in the Conference signed a nine-power treaty. They agreed to respect the territorial integrity of China, to allow her an opportunity to put her house in order, to maintain an "open door", and to refrain from exploiting the conditions of China to their advantages.

The Shantung issue was discussed directly by China and Japan outside the pruvew of the Washington Conference. By a treaty, Japan agreed to restore the entire lease-hold territory of Shantung to China. Japan was allowed to retain controlover the Tsinam-Tsingtao railway for 15 years. The demand of China for the revocation of the Twenty One Demands was not accepted.

Besides the above treaties, some other treaties were also concluded. They provided some advantages to China.

For some years after the Washington Conference (1922-31) the relations between Japan and China were, by far, cordial. The foreign policy of Japan was conducted by Baron Shidehara Kijuro, who believed in a policy of conciliation and adjustment to China's new nationalism. But, he was not prepared to renounce Japan's claims in South Manchuria which was considered as the "life line" of Japan. Sidehara was the Foreign Minister of Japan from 1924 to 1927, and from 1929 to 1931. In his time, only on two occasions, Japan resorted to force in Manchuria.

The attempt of Shidehara to reconcile China's aspirations with Japan's interest had aroused bitter opposition among Japanese military, bureaucracy and some business circles. It was considered a "weak policy". In 1927, Tanaka became the Prime Minister. Shidehara lost his position. Tanaka represented the Seiyukei Party. The party and Tanaka formulated the so-called "positive policy". According to this policy, Japan would not like to the aspirations of the people of China and the moderate elements of the Kuomintang. But, the policy emphasized Japan's "special interest" in Manchuria and Eastern Mongolia. China was establishing industries and building railroad. And thus, the special position of Japan was in danger. So, Tanaka adopted a tough attitude towards China. When the Nationalist forces in China were marching towards North China, Tanaka sent Japanese troops to Shantung to check the advance of Kuomintang forces and prevent the joining of Manchuria with Nationalist China. The result of this measure was to enhance the initiative exercised by the military extremists in Japan. Naturally from that time onwards, the course of Japanese foreign policy was under the increasing threat of extreme militarism.

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## **26.4 CAUSES FOR THE CONFLICT BETWEEN CHINA AND JAPAN**

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In the year 1928, Kuomintang-nationalist government was established in China. Its capital was Nanking. In the same year, a crisis developed in East Asian relations. The status of Manchuria was the crux of the problem.

Manchuria is a vast territory with abundant economic resources. It is rich not only in agricultural products but also, in timber, coal, iron and gold mines. In addition to these resources, Manchuria is considered strategically important. Naturally, China considered it as a part of her country. But, it had long been subjected to Russian and Japanese control. After 1928, Kuomintang Government wanted to recover her rights over Manchuria and started propaganda. But, both Russia and Japan were not willing to concede the Chinese demand.

Manchuria was under the control of Chang-Tso-Lin, a bandit-turned statesman. He played a political game, alternatively attacking and supporting the government of China. He was murdered in 1928. He was succeeded by his son, Chang Hsueh-Liang, who announced his allegiance to the newly established Kuomintang government in China.

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## **26.4 CAUSES FOR THE CONFLICT BETWEEN CHINA AND JAPAN**

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The following issues between China and Japan were the important causes for the Japanese invasion of Manchuria:

### **26.4.1 Conflicting Attitudes**

Chinese nationalists considered Manchuria as the "first line" of defence to their country. The Japanese government considered it as a "life line". China called Manchuria the "granary of China". The Japanese, on the other hand, felt that they had won Liaotung in 1895, that they had saved Manchuria from Russia in 1905. They also felt that the development of Manchuria from Russia in 1905. They also felt that the development of Manchuria was attained with Japanese capital, and thus, they had acquired a special position.

### **26.4.2 Leasehold of Liaotung Peninsula**

The Peninsula was leased to Russia for a period of 25 years. After the defeat of Russia in the Russo-Japanese War of 1905, the lease was transferred to Japan. Later on, by the treaties of

1915, Japan got the period of lease extended from 25 to 99 years. The nationalist government of China was not willing to recognise the treaties of 1915 as they were thrust upon China by force. In 1923 the lease period of 25 years ended. Still, Japan continued the occupation of the Peninsula. In the view of the Chinese, the occupation was illegal and unacceptable.

#### **26.4.3 South Manchurian Railway**

The South Manchuria railway was controlled by Japan. In course of time, Japan was exercising political and administrative functions as well in that area. The nationalists of China wanted to make the South Manchurian railway a purely commercial enterprises divesting it of the political and administrative function. Moreover, the lease period of the railway was over in 1923. But Japan, on the basis of treaties of 1915, insisted upon her control of the railroad.

#### **26.4.4 The Japanese railway guards and consumer police:**

The Japanese railway guards and consular police in Manchuria had become an irritation to nationalist sentiment in Manchuria. These officials were posted not only in the railroad areas, but also at Japanese consulates in various towns.

#### **26.4.5 The Presence of Koreans in Manchuria**

There were 800,000 Koreans in Manchuria who became the subjects of Japan after Korea was defeated by Japan in 1910. They started acquiring land in Manchuria. The Chinese opposed it. Japan also refused to recognise the naturalisation of the Koreans as Chinese.

#### **26.4.6 Attempt of China to build parallel railroads against South Manchurian Railway**

The Japanese, through their transportation system obtained increasing power in Manchuria. The very existence of the Japanese-controlled railways was repugnant to the Chinese nationalists. So, after 1924, the Chinese started building railway lines parallel to South Manchurian railway system. These lines were connected with the Chinese-controlled ports. They diverted traffic from the Japanese rail roads. The Japanese protested because the action of the Chinese was in violation of the Sino-Japanese treaty of Peking concluded in December, 1905.

#### **26.4.7 China's refusal to repay loans of 150 million Yen to Japan**

An amount of 150 million Yen was spent by Japan in the construction of Chinese railways. China connected that the loans were extended by Japan for strategic and political reasons and denounced the obligation to repay the amount.

#### **26.4.8 The Restive Mood of the Japanese**

By 1931, there were about 300 disputes, major or minor between China and Japan. The militarists in Japan were clamouring for expansion. Moreover, the abrogation of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance, the passage of the American immigration law, the inferior naval ratio, the growing corruption in the political and economic life of the country, and the London Naval treaty of 1930 made the patriotic Japanese restive.

### **26.4.9 The Nakamura Incident**

In such an atmosphere, the Nakamura incident served as an immediate cause for the invasion of Manchuria.

Captain Nakamura was a Japanese intelligence officer. In June, 1931, he was killed by the Chinese troops in Inner Mongolia. The circumstances and the reasons of the murder were obscure. Already there were anti-Chinese riots in Korea. There was an anti-Japanese boycott in China. The Nakamura incident thus cleared the way to military action which was being advocated by the militarists.

#### **Check Your Progress - I**

1. To what agreement did the members of the Washington conference come with regard to China.
2. Which were the immediate causes for the Japanese invasion of Manchuria?

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### **26.5 INVASION OF MANCHURIA**

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On September 18, 1931, a section of the South Manchurian railroad was destroyed in a bomb explosion. On the pretext that it was an attempt by the Chinese to blow up the track of the railways, the Japanese Kwantung army seized Mukden on the same night. The Japanese moved quickly and seized Chang-chung and Kirin. In three months the Japanese extended their authority almost to the border of China Proper in a south-ward direction. Northward, they went beyond the main line of the Chinese Eastern border. Soon, Japan completed her military conquest of Manchuria. The forces of Chang Hsueh-liang were eliminated from Manchuria.

The time for the invasion of Manchuria was well chosen by Japan. The world was undergoing a period of economic depression. All the countries were busy in solving their own problems. Meanwhile, there was a rift between military commanders and the cabinet in Japan. The commanders refused to discuss their plans with the Government. The Civil Government was unable to control the army leaders. Finally, the militants won. They successfully defied the Civil authority.

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### **26.6 CHINA'S APPEAL TO THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS**

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On the appeal of China, the League of Nations, on October 24, issued an order to the Kwantung Army to withdraw from the occupied territory. Japan ignored it. Finally, on December 10, the Lytton Commission was sent to investigate the issue. Meanwhile, the League wanted to enlist the support of the United States. In response, the United States came out in January, 1932, with the Stimson Doctrine. By this, the United States declined to recognize any agreement concluded by China and Japan which would impair her treaty rights and treaties made contrary to the obligations of the Pact of Paris or Kellogg-Briand Pact.

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### **26.7 SHANGHAI WAR**

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The Chinese, failed to check the Japanese troops, restored to a boycott of Japanese goods, towards the end of January, 1932. Japan had suffered great financial losses. In reply to the boycott movement of China, Japan landed a force on the international city port of Shanghai. China again appealed to the League of Nations. The League Assembly unanimously adopted Stimson's Doctrine of non-recognition. At last, China and Japan made peace at Shanghai. The peace terms were worked out by the Consumer Committee of the League.

Meanwhile the Lytton Commission submitted its report. It held Japan to be at fault, and recommended a method of settlement. Japan was unwilling to accept it.

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## 26.8 CREATION OF MANCHUKUO

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From the beginning of 1932, the Japanese promoted the organisation of local self-governing bodies throughout Manchuria. Later, these were combined into a new state, called Manchukuo. On February 18, 1932, the new state declared its independence of China and the Nanking Government. On March 9, the former and the last emperor of Manchu dynasty of China, Henry Puyi, became the ruler of this new state, Manchukuo. Japan recognised the new ruler, but the members of the League and the United States declined to give Manchukuo official recognition under Stimson non-recognition Doctrine. Japan finally resigned her membership of the League of Nations.

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## 26.9 JAPANESE MANCHUKUO

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The Japanese after creating Manchukuo Government propagated that the new government was the result of a spontaneous drive of the people of Manchuria.

Japan wanted to consolidate her hold upon Manchukuo. She concluded an agreement in 1932, with the puppet ruler of Manchukuo. According to this agreement, Japan secured a number of concessions and privileges, both economic and political. In return, Japan guaranteed to the new government law and order and security from foreign aggression. In utilization of her privileges, Japan created her own administration, increased the strength of the Kwantung Army, took over the South Manchurian Railway for her administration, assumed rights of extra-territoriality, and made Hsienking, the new capital of Manchukuo. The three posts of commander of Kwantung Army, the governor of Liaotung Peninsula, and the Ambassador of Japan were vested in one person. Thus, this person became *de jure* ruler of Manchukuo. In the Government of Manchukuo, the Japanese were appointed for number of posts. Thus, the Manchukuo Government was made a dependency of Japan.

Meanwhile, there was a striking economic development in Manchukuo. Japan increased its investments in Manchukuo very heavily. The investment was in the form of imports of mining, factory and textile machinery, and of consumer goods. By 1937, Japan integrated the economic and strategic interests of Manchukuo with those of the homeland. Manchukuo provided Japan with the raw materials and food stuffs, and also protected markets. Thus, it served the need of Japan's growing industrial society. It soon developed into a good colony of Japan.

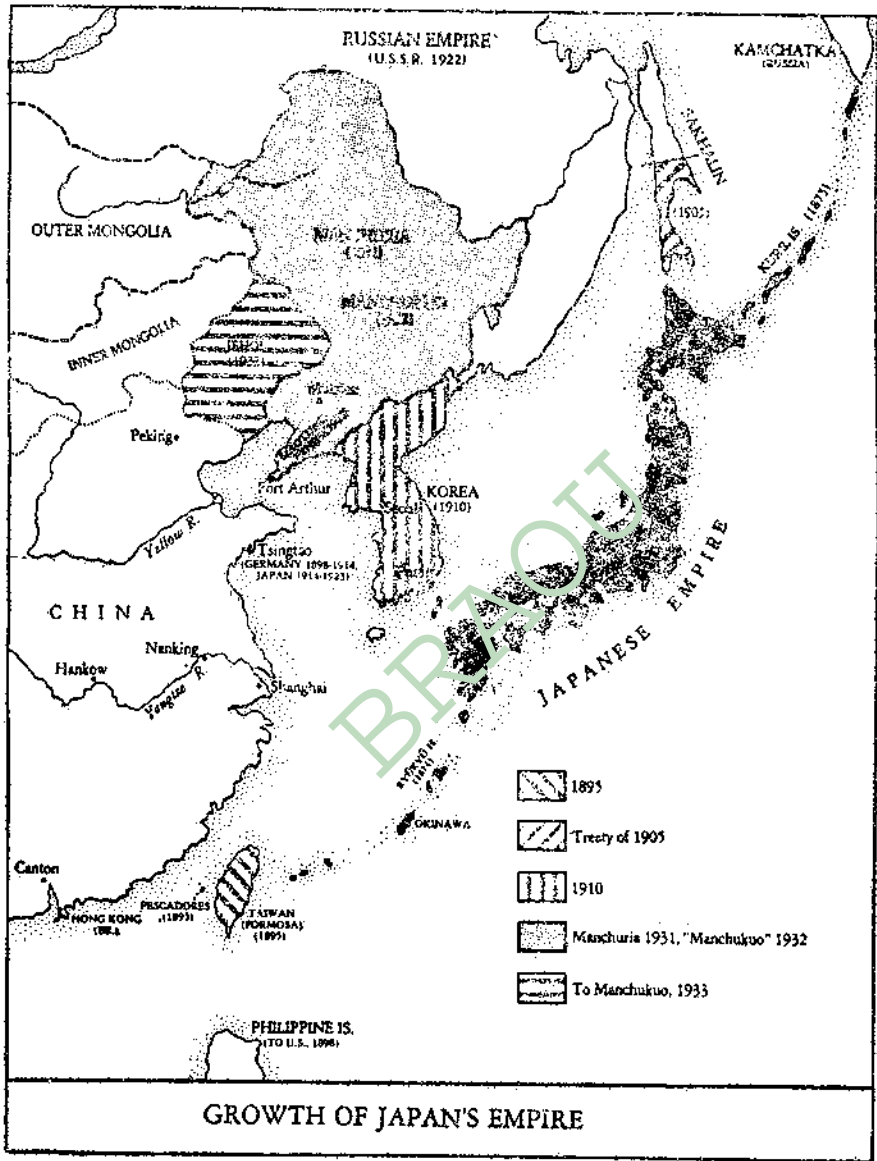
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## 26.10 CONSEQUENCES OF JAPAN'S INVASION OF MANCHURIA

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The Invasion of Manchuria by Japan, and the creation of Manchukuo, had far-reaching consequences.

1. In internal politics of Japan, the political parties lost their importance, and the militarists became predominant in politics. It was the militarists who guided the destinies of Japan. This ultimately led Japan into the Second World War.
2. Japan's easy victory in Manchuria increased her confidence, and so, she started following a more daring and aggressive course in China and other places.



3. The rich economic resources obtained from Manchuria strengthened her military and economic power.
4. It led to the collapse of the system of collective security followed by the League of Nations, and ultimately, to the death of the League of Nations.
5. It reshaped the Far Eastern situation radically.
6. It alarmed Russia, Britain and America. Russia strengthened her defence of Outer Mongolia. Britain and America came closer against the common danger from Japan.
7. It can also be stated that the formation of Rome-Berlin-Tokyo axis, the attack on Pearl Harbour, the conquest of all East Asia except Siberia by Japan, the crushing defeat of Japan finally, and the destruction preceding it, the conquest of China by the Communists, all have their roots in the single action of Japan on the night of September 18, 1931, *i.e.*, the Manchurian invasion.

### Check Your Progress - II

1. What was Japan's reaction to the league of Nations appeal to Japan to withdraw her forces from Manchuria?
2. Who was made the ruler of Manchukuo?

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### 26.11 LET US SUM UP

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1. After World War I the relations between China and Japan became, extremely strained due to the conflicting interests in the Pacific Ocean and in China.
2. The Washington conference held in 1921 restrained Japan from an adventurous policy in China.
3. Japan's ambition to exercise control over Manchuria was the main cause for Japan's invasion of Manchuria. Japan's control over south Manchuria Railway, China's refusal to repay the loan to Japan and the killing in China of Nakumara the Japanese intelligence officer contributed to the Japanese invasion of Manchuria.
4. Japan invaded Manchuria in September, 1931 and established a perfect Government there known as Manchukho.
5. The League of Nations was not able to check Japan's aggression over Manchuria.

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### 26.13 EXAMINATION MODEL QUESTIONS

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#### I. Answer the following questions in about 30 lines each

1. What were the causes that led to the Sino-Japanese conflict in 1931?
2. How did Japan effect the invasion over Manchuria? Examine its consequences.

#### II. Answer the following questions in about 15 lines each

1. What was the background for the Sino-Japanese conflict of 1931?
2. Trace the character of the Sino-Japanese relations during the period 1922-31.
3. How did Japan create Manchukuo and administer it?

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## 26.14 BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING

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1. Alfred Crofts & P. Buchanan : A History of the Far East
2. Allen, G.C : A Short Economic History of Modern Japan
3. Arthur Tiedemann : Modern Japan
4. Burton, H : Japan Since 1931
5. Claude, A. Buss : Asia in the Modern World
6. Hugh Byes : Government by Assassination
7. Paul H. Clyde & Burton F. Beers : The Far East

– K. Mallikarjuna Rao.

BRAOU

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## UNIT-27 JAPAN IN WORLD WAR II

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- 27.7 Bombing of pearl Harbour
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- 27.9 Use of the atom bombs and surrender of Japan.
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- 27.11 Causes for defeat
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### 27.0 OBJECTIVES

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A Study of this unit should enable you to

1. Explain Japan's Munro Doctrine
2. Explain the circumstances leading to Japan's entry into World War II
3. Describe Japan's Victories in world war II
4. Analyse the effects of the war on Japan and
5. Account for the defeat of Japan in the War.

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### 27.1 INTRODUCTION

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Japan's aggression over china paved the way for world war II. In the war Japan won remarkable victories and at the end was defeated by the allied strength. The atom bombs were dropped over Japan to make her surrender. All these matters pertaining to Japan's role in world War II and the effects of the war are discussed in this unit.

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### 27.2 JAPAN'S AGGRESSION IN CHINA

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Even after the conquest of Manchuria, Japan was not satisfied. She wanted to extend her territories towards the mainland of China. She had a plan to create an economic block of Japan Manchukuo North China.

In March 1933, Jehol was captured and annexed to the Kingdom of Manchukuo. Next she turned her attention towards Inner Mongolia. The Inner Mongolian provinces of Chaher, Suiyuan and Ninghsia were attacked. Chaher was captured easily. China was forced to give certain concession to Japan. Inner Mongolia's separate existence was made to depend on the mercy of Japan.

Japan also tried to dominate over Outer Mongolia. But, it was resisted by Outer Mongolia

with the help of Russia.

The Kwantung army then invaded Hopei in North China. The Tangku truce was made on May 31, 1933. China was compelled to accept many unreasonable demands of Japan.

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### 27.3 JAPAN'S MONROE DOCTRINE

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It now became clear that Japan was not content with Manchukuo, but wanted to absorb North China also. Japan also resented the increasing amount of aid given to China by Western powers. An airplane factory was set up in China by Curtiss-Wright, a foreign company. America had sold fighter planes to China. A retired American officer was supervising pilot training in China. A German had become chief military adviser in Nanking.

Japan did not like all this, and wanted to assert her supremacy in East Asia. The then Foreign Minister of Japan, Hiroto Koki made a statement in January 1934. According to it, Japan bore the entire burden of responsibility for the peace of East Asia. This statement was stressed by the famous Amai statement on April 17, 1934. Amai Eiji was a foreign ministry official of Japan. His statement virtually proclaimed a Japanese "Monroe Doctrine" for East Asia. He declared that Japan had a special position in China, and special responsibilities in East Asia. So, it was her duty to maintain peace in the region. He would oppose all measures by any of the powers calculated to threaten the peace of the region. Japan also warned Western nations against giving any kind of military, technological or financial aid to China. This is popularly known as Japanese "Monroe Doctrine".

There was wild reaction to this statement from foreign powers. So, Hiroto Koki, the Foreign Minister, issued a second statement in which he toned down the Amai statement. Yet, Hiroto still asserted Japan's responsibility for law and order in East Asia.

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### 27.4 SINO-JAPANESE CONFLICT AFTER 1935

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In 1935, the Kwantung army maintained continuous pressure on the Great Wall of China. By June, Japan succeeded in getting the Chinese to agree to withdraw all the troops from Chaher, an Inner Mongolian province. She also agreed to end all Kuomintang operations in the province. In July, the Ho-Umezu agreement was made between the two countries. This agreement virtually established Japanese domination on Hopei. Only nominal control was exercised by the Nanking Government of China.

By the end of the year, the Japanese North China Army, stationed in the peiping Tiessing area under the Boxer protocol, started new moves to establish an independent administration in North China. Against this move, the Nanking Government was obliged to set up the autonomous Hopei-Chaher political council. Thus, China retained those areas under Central Government control.

Meanwhile, Hirohito became the Prime Minister of Japan. In October, 1935 he proposed a three-point programme to settle the Sino-Japanese dispute. Accordingly China was to

- (a) end anti-Japanese activity;
- (b) recognize Manchukuo, and
- (c) accept Japanese help in suppressing Communism.

Most of the year 1936 was spent in negotiations. In November, 1936, Mongolian troops, sponsored by Japan, attacked Fuyuan province. The talks broke off.

Japan was out to consolidate and expand her control in the mainland of China. Militarily weak, China resorted to the boycott movement in Tantung and Shanghai. The anti-Japanese feeling among the Chinese increased. This forced Chiang-Kai-Shek to harden his attitude towards Japan. He even prepared to enter into negotiations with the Chinese Communists, his arch enemies.

In Japan, the general staff was not anxious for immediate war. But, the officers of the Japanese North China army and Kwantung army had their ideas. Tojo Hideki, then Chief of Staff of the Kwantung army, warned Tokyo in June 1937 to strike before Chiang-Kai-Shek and the Communists got together.

In China, the Nationalists and Communists joined hands after the Suiyuan incident. The patriotic Chinese took to terrorist activities. The Japanese property in China was destroyed. Japanese officials were killed. When this was going on in China, the Government in Japan fell. Prince Konoye became Prime Minister, and Hiroha, the Foreign Minister, on May 31, 1937. Konoye government made Japanese industry, war-oriented. Thus, Japan was preparing for a total war.

On the night of July 7, 1937, about nine miles south-west of Peiping at Marco Polo bridge near Lukanchio, a local skirmish broke out between the Chinese and the Japanese forces. The local Japanese officers permitted it to expand into a full-scale war. Japan's forces demanded that Chinese troops should withdraw south of Peiping and Tientsin. China refused. Japan occupied Peiping and Tientsin in July. Suiyuan province was overrun. But, at Shansi, the Japanese met their first reverse at the hands of the Eighth Regiment (Communist Army). However, the Japanese captured Nanking, the capital and the symbol of New China, in December 1937. Many brutal acts were committed against the people there. The Chinese Government moved westward, and made Hankow, its capital. When Japan captured it on October 25, 1938, the Chinese retreated still further westward, and established their capital at Chungking. As the Japanese advanced deeper into the interior, they had to face guerrilla warfare which brought them to a halt.

Now, Japan wanted to play another game. She decided to ignore the Kuomintang-Nationalist Government. She sought to establish a puppet government, similar to that in Manchukuo. The first provisional Government of the Republic of China was proclaimed at Peiping on 19, December, 1937. But, its authority was challenged by the border government of Hopei, Shansi, and Chaher organized by the Chinese Communists. Japan then established a new National Government at Nanking on 30, March 1940 under the leadership of Wang-Ching-Wei. Wang was a follower of Sun-Yat-Sen. He held many of the highest posts in the Kuomintang and the Kuomintang-Nationalist Government. He had a long and distinguished revolutionary record. He was originally a leader of the left wing in the Kuomintang, but later opposed the Communists. He had developed a spirit of rivalry towards Chiang-Kai-Shek. Wang's Government was recognized by Japan. A treaty was also concluded with Tokyo in November, 1930 by which, Japan actually controlled the occupied territories of China. They extended from Shanghai to Hankow in the South, to Peiping and Chaher province in the North. Japan now turned to economic exploitation of the occupied territory. The idea was to integrate that area into the economic framework with Manchukuo and Japan.

The Nationalist Government of Chiang-Kai-Shek with the cooperation of Chinese Communists continued its resistance against the invader from Chungking, their capital. The people of China started migrating to the new capital, and established schools, universities and factories. In the north-west, the resistance movement was led by the Chinese Communist Party. The Communists and the Kuomintang were, no doubt, still opposed to each other. But, in the face of a common enemy, they had concluded a truce, and fought together. The Japanese

communication and supply line had become so long that it became impossible to guard it against guerrilla tactics adopted by the Chinese. So, Japan wanted China to be strangled by an economic blockade. By 1939, Japan had virtually closed China by occupying her coastal areas. However, China received military supplies from Russia and the West with great difficulty.

After 1939, the undeclared Sino-Japanese War acquired greater importance on account of the Second World War.

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### **27.5 ROME-BERLIN-TOKYO AXIS**

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The Sino-Japanese conflict had its effect on world politics. Japan carried on her expansionist activities when the important European nations were engaged otherwise. The rise of Hitler and Mussolini in Germany and Italy, respectively, had posed great danger to the democracies of the world. They were preparing to face the threat from the Fascists. Japanese activities were also looked upon with suspicion by Britain, America and other powers. The relations of Japan with Soviet Russia had already been strained over Outer Mongolia. As a result, Japan started feeling isolated. Her search for political allies led Japan to sign the Anti-Comintern Pact with Nazi Germany in 1936. By this Pact, the two signatories agreed to suppress Communism. In November, 1937, Italy also signed the Pact, and transformed it into the tripartite agreement against Comintern activity. The Anti-Comintern Pact paved the way for the Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis.

The Anti-Comintern Pact was received by the world with mixed feelings. On September 7, 1940, Germany, Italy and Japan entered into a totalitarian alliance block against the democracies. This Pact included:

1. The recognition by Japan of the leadership of Germany and Italy in the creation of a new order in Europe.
2. Germany and Italy to respect Japan's leadership in the construction of a "new order" in Greater East Asia.
3. Germany, Italy and Japan agreed to help each other with political, economic, and military aid in the event of any power being attacked by a power not involved at the time in the European and the China War.
4. The Pact was to remain in force for ten years.

This Pact was received with hostile reaction in America. Yet, Japan obtained new allies and new strength.

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### **27.6 JAPAN'S AGGRESSION IN INDO-CHINA AND SOUTH-EAST ASIA**

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In 1939, the Second World War broke out. Japan announced that she would not be involved in the European struggle. America, a neutral country, began to supply aid to European countries on a cash-and-carry basis. In June, 1940, Holland, Belgium and France fell, and the Battle of Britain began. Japan took advantage of this situation.

France, and the Dutch Netherlands had commercial and colonial interest in Asia. In Indo-China and Indonesia, these two countries together had dominant colonial and commercial interests. Yet, Japan's forces were permitted to be stationed in Northern Indo-China by the new Vichy government in France. By the end of September, 1940, the Japanese were in occupation of Indo-China. The Japanese also intervened in a war between Thailand and Indo-China, and forced a settlement on the two countries. By this settlement, Indo-China and Thailand agreed not to make an agreement with any power which might endanger Japanese interest. After the surrender of France and Holland to the Germans, Japan compelled the new French government known as the Vichy Government, to sign a humiliating economic agreement with it. Japan also

secured the right of sending more troops into Indo-China.

Japan also requested a large share of oil, rubber and tin from the Dutch in the East Indies. But, the Dutch resisted. Japan took to force, and invaded the East Indies. Thus, the entire region of South-East Asia was under the subjugation of Japan for some time.

But, America did not like the expansion of Japan into South-East Asia. The undeclared Sino-Japanese War strained the relations between Japan and America. The immigration policy of America was also a cause for ill-will between the two countries.

In 1939, the American Senate approved the largest peace-time war department appropriation. On July 26, the treaty of Commerce and Navigation of 1911 with Japan was denounced. It was a clear warning to Tokyo not to infringe upon American rights in Eastern Asia. America insisted on Japan to adhere to the open door principle in China. There were many conferences between the two countries. But, they could not come to a settlement over the questions in South-East Asia. In July, 1940, America banned the export of many important items to Japan except under licence. In July, 1941, the Japanese assets in America were frozen. Gradually, American markets closed the supplies to Japan. The Japanese people became restive, and demanded a strong policy towards America.

In August 1941, Japan made a proposal to America. She promised to make no advance beyond Indo-China, to leave Indo-China when the China War was settled. She also gave a guarantee for the safety of the Philippines. In return, America was to stop military preparations in the Far East, lift the embargo, and the Japanese position in Indo-China was to be recognized. It was also said that America should bring pressure on Chiang-Kai-Shek to end the China War. America rejected the Japanese proposals. In September 1941, Japan made one more attempt to obtain from America a neutrality and non-aggression pact. But, America remained stubborn. In October, 1941, General Tojo prepared for a total war in the Pacific.

Meanwhile, the Second Sino-Japanese War had encouraged militaristic tendencies, and opened the road to military dictatorship in Japan. The fascist organisations of Japan described war as the Father of Creation, not to be denounced but encouraged. Slogans like "Asia for Asians", "Greater East Asian Co-Prosperity Sphere", "New Order", etc., were evidences of the imperialist spirit of the Japanese. The army leader wanted Prime Minister Konoe to break off the talks with America, and start war early. But, Konoe did not want to plunge the nation into war. In October 1941, he resigned, and Tojo became Prime Minister. With his advent, a new chapter began in the history of Japan.

### Check Your Progress - I

1. What was the aim of Japan's Munroe doctrine?

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2. Which countries were signatories to the Tripartite agreement against the comintern activity?

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## **27.7 BOMBING OF PEARL HARBOUR PORT**

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On December 1, an imperial conference of Japan made the final decision for war with America. America was expecting war from Japan, but it thought Japan would attack British and Dutch territories in South-East Asia, but not American territory. The discussions between Japan and America had broken finally on December 7, 1941. The same day, 150 aeroplanes of Japan attacked United States Pacific fleet stationed at Pearl Harbour. American aircraft in the Hawaiian islands was also destroyed, and American naval power paralyzed in the Pacific Sea. Thus, started the war between America and Japan.

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## **27.8 JAPAN'S VICTORIES IN THE WAR; FALL OF MALAYA, SINGAPORE, AND BURMA**

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The next day, England, Netherlands and China declared war against Japan. Japan conquered Hongkong in December 1941. Japan continued her victories, and conquered Manila, Malaya and Singapore, the Dutch Indies, Bataan, Corregidor and Burma by June, 1942. After thus conquering South-East Asia, the Japanese were racing southward towards Australia, and eastward towards Hawaii. Their advance was brought to a halt by Australian and American troops in New Guinea. In the Battle of Midway, fought from 3rd to 6th June, 1942, the American army defeated the Japanese. The United States started gradually assuming the offensive, and captured Guadal Canal in the Soloman Islands. The Japanese were pushed back from South-Western Pacific. Australia was made the head-quarters to carry on war against Japan under the commandship of General Mac-Arthur. The Allied Powers, *Viz.* America, England, and France, captured one after another, the Japanese strangolds. In January, 1943, America and England gave up their rights and privileges in China in order to secure full cooperation from her. In June, 1944 Japan was defeated in the battles fought of Levte. There, the fiercest naval battle of the Second World War was fought. Japan was defeated in this battle, because of the superiority of the American air force.

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## **27.9 USE OF THE ATOM BOMBS AND SURRENDER OF JAPAN**

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The Allied Powers now started attacking Japan in her own territory. In March, 1943, Tokyo was bombed. The city suffered destruction. The Japanese were also compelled to withdraw from Manipore, and Upper Burma was reoccupied by Britain. Britain now started helping China again.

Meanwhile, the Allied Powers held the Yalta Conference in February, 1945. Russia agreed to enter into the war against Japan. In return, the Allies promised to give all those facilities in Korea and Manchuria which Russia possessed prior to 1905. Later, Russian forces invaded Manchuria. Manchukuo's independent existence disappeared. In Europe, Germany was defeated; Hitler committed suicide, and Germany surrendered. Now, Japan was left alone in the Second World War.

By this time, the economy of Japan was in a deplorable condition. America tightened the blockade around the main Japanese islands. Japan depended on imports for oil, coking coal, iron ore, bauxite, and many other materials. The imports were almost entirely cut off. Production in

industries fell after 1944. A peace movement was started in which Konoe, Wakatsuki, Hiranuma and Okada had taken important roles. In July 1944, Tojo was forced out of office. He was succeeded by Koiso Kuniaki. His cabinet replaced by that of Admiral Suzuki Kantoro on April 7, 1945. He began to move in the direction of peace. The supreme war council decided to request Soviet Russia to act as a mediator, but the Russians refused. On July 26, America, Britain and China issued the Potsdam Proclamation. Japan was called upon to surrender unconditionally, or face "prompt and utter destruction". Japan did not respond immediately to this demand. As a result, on August 6, 1945, America dropped the first Atom bomb on the city of Hiroshima, which destroyed the city. Soviet Russia now declared war against Japan, and attacked Manchuria. On August 9, 1945, America dropped the second Atom bomb on the city of Nagasaki. On the night of August 9, Japan accepted the Potsdam Proclamation with a condition. But America insisted upon unconditional surrender. In spite of the opposition from the army, the emperor of Japan accepted the surrender, on August 15, 1945. The Americans under the leadership of General Mac Arthur began to arrive in Japan. On September 2, the formal surrender ceremony was held on the American battleship, *Missouri*, in Tokyo Bay.

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### 27.10 RESULTS OF THE WAR ON JAPAN

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1. Japan was almost reduced to ashes. She was faced with the task of reconstruction. Her dreams and ambitions were shattered.
2. Colonial and imperialistic structure of the world had crumbled. In a way, the Second World War also responsible for the attainment of freedom from the foreign yoke, by India, Ceylon, Burma, Indo-China and Indonesia. The empire of Japan had itself collapsed. Her boundaries were shrunk to pre-Sino Japanese War days.
3. General Mac Arthur occupied Japan and declared the end of despotism and introduction of the constitutional democratic political structure in Japan.
4. Formosa was given back to China. Korea was divided. North Korea and South Korea went under the influence of Soviet Russia and America respectively.

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### 27.11 CAUSES FOR DEFEAT

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1. In Japan, the militarists and bureaucracy joined hands together to demolish party democracy, and concentrated all powers in their hands.
2. After General Tojo became the Prime Minister, he carried Japan to the brink of ruin with his unlimited ambitions.
3. Japan strongly believed that Germany would be victorious in Europe against Britain. This calculation proved wrong.
4. The Japanese also underestimated the American strength and will to fight.
5. The boundless Japanese ambition was indeed the chief cause of Japan's defeat. The military leaders became arrogant after the victories in the initial stages. But, they did not realise that final victory belongs to those who wield greater economic, industrial resources, and manpower. The Allied Powers, particularly the U.S.A., had great resources, and scientific, technological and military superiority.
6. The invention and use of the Atom bomb had contributed very much to the defeat of Japan.

7. The joining of Soviet Russia in the War at the last stages, had also contributed to the defeat of Japan.
8. There was no cooperation and coordination between various organs of war in Japan. Actually, there was open rift between the army and the navy during the War.

All the above causes together brought the downfall of Japan in the Second World War.

### Check Your Progress - II

1. Which incident led to the war between Japan and the U.S.A.?

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2. On which two cities the atom bomb was dropped?

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### 27.12 LET US SUM UP

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1. In 1934 the policy called Japanese Monroe Doctrine was announced by Japan to keep other countries away from China.
2. In 1937 a war (II Sino-Japanese war) started between China and Japan which merged into the second world war.
3. By 1937, Japan, Germany and Italy formed an alliance.
4. The bombing of Pearl Harbour by Japan in 1941 forced America to declare war against Japan.
5. During the war Japan won several victories and gained Mastery over the whole of S.E. Asia. Her conquests included Hongkong, Phillipines, Malaya and Singapore.
6. Two Atom bombs were dropped over Japan in 1945 to make her surrender.
7. Japan's final defeat in the war resulted in terrible destruction and loss to her.
8. The use of atom bombs, the adventurous aggressions of Japan and other factors contributed to the defeat of Japan.

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### 27.13 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : ANSWERS

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1. 1. Japan's aim was to stop all aid to China from other countries.
2. Italy, Germany and Japan.

- II. 1. The bombing of Pearl Harbour by Japan led to war between Japan and U.S.A.  
2. Hiroshima and Nagasaki.

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### 27.14 EXAMINATION MODEL QUESTIONS

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I. Answer the following questions in about 30 lines each.

1. Describe the Sino-Japanese conflict of the later thirties and its effects.
2. Examine the nature and the extent of Japan's aggression in Indo-China and South-East Asia.

II. Answer the following questions in about 15 lines each.

1. Explain Japan's "Monroe Doctrine".
2. Bring out the salient features of Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis formation.
3. What victories did Japan gain in the Second World War?
4. How was Japan forced to surrender?
5. Analyse the causes for Japan's defeat in the Second World War.

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### 27.15 BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING

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1. Alfred Crofts & P. Buchanan : A History of the Far East
2. Allen, G.C. : A Short Economic History of Modern Japan
3. Arthur Tiedemann : Modern Japan
4. Burton, H. : Japan Since 1931
5. Claude, A. Buss : Asia in the Modern World
6. Hugh Byes : Government by Assassination
7. Paul H. Clyde & Burton F. Beers : The Far East

– K. Mallikarjun Rao

## **BLOCK - IX**

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### **POST WAR JAPAN**

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This last block has one Unit (Unit-28) which explains the conditions in Japan after the American Occupation of the country as a consequence of Japan's defeat in the war.

**Unit - 28 : American Occupation and Post-War Reconstruction**

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## UNIT-28 : AMERICAN OCCUPATION AND POST WAR JAPAN

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### Contents

- 28.0 Objectives
- 28.1 Introduction
- 28.2 Loss of territories
- 28.3 Occupation problems and Machinery  
S.C.A.P. (Supreme Command of Allied Powers)
- 28.4 Objectives of Occupation
  - 28.4.1 Disarmament
  - 28.4.2 Democratisation
  - 28.4.3 Education
- 28.5 Economic Reforms
- 28.6 New Constitution of 1947
  - 28.6.1 Preamble
  - 28.6.2 Emperor
  - 28.6.3 Parliamentary Government
  - 28.6.4 Executive
  - 28.6.5 Bill of Rights
  - 28.6.6 Judiciary
  - 28.6.7 Renunciation of War
  - 28.6.8 Local Self Government
  - 28.6.9 Finance
  - 28.6.10 Amendment
  - 28.6.11 Political Parties
- 28.7 Declaration of Independence
- 28.8 Let us sum up
- 28.9 Check Your Progress : Answers
- 28.10 Examination Model Questions
- 28.11 Books for Further Reading

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### 28.0 OBJECTIVES

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Study of this unit should enable you to

1. explain the aims and nature of American occupation of Japan after world war II
2. Analyse the Policies of the occupation powers in Japan and discuss those policies
3. describe the features of the 1947 constitution of Japan and sovereignty to Japan in 1952
4. trace the circumstances leading to the restoration of sovereignty to Japan in 1952.

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### 28.1 INTRODUCTION

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After being defeated in the Second World War, Japan surrendered to the Allied forces in 1945. She accepted the terms and conditions of the Potsdam Declaration. The American General, Mac Arthur became Supreme Commander of the Allied Powers (S.C.A.P.) to accept Japan's surrender, and to carry out the occupation of that country. Thus, Japan lost her independence, and her glory came to an end. The American General ruled Japan until 1952 as "Conjout Emperor"

## 28.2 LOSS OF TERRITORIES

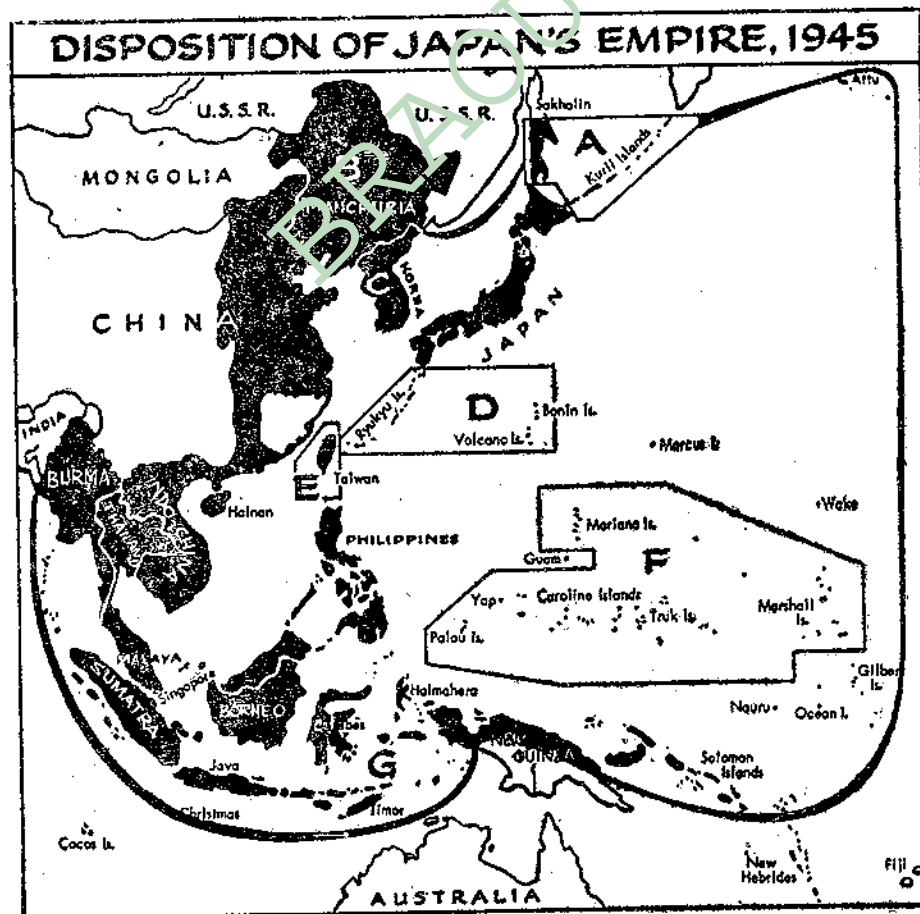
Her defeat in the War reduced Japan to the status of a third-class power. She lost all the territories she had acquired since the Meiji Restoration except the four islands-Kyushu, Honshu, Shikoku and Hokkaido. The Kuriles and the Southern Sakhalin went to Russia. The Pacific islands Carolinas, the Marshals and Marianas Bonin and Ryuku islands were transferred to the United States' trusteeship. Manchuria and China Proper were evacuated. Formosa and Pescadores were returned to China. Philippines and Korea became independent.

## 28.3 OCCUPATION PROBLEMS AND MACHINERY (S.C.A.P.)

The occupation administration had to face serious problems that arose as a result of the War. The chief problems were: (1) punishment of War criminals, (2) disarmament of the Japanese armed forces, (3) democratisation of Japan, (4) reconstruction of Japan, and (5) the end of war-oriented economy.

The United States of America suggested to create an international body to frame the future policy of Japan, and also to make sure that the Japanese fulfilled their obligations. At the Moscow Conference of Foreign Ministers it was decided to form the Far Eastern Commission with a membership of representatives of thirteen states to sit in Washington, and of an Allied Council of the four major Pacific powers to sit in Tokyo. This organisation did not change the American character of the occupation. The real authority continued in the hands of S.C.A.P.

The Allied authority was erected over, but not in displacement of the Japanese Government. The latter was continued as the instrument under S.C.A.P.'s guidance and direction for the realisation of the purposes of occupation. The pre-surrender Government established a central liaison office through which contact between the Japanese Government and the occupation authorities could be channelled.



- A- Southern SAKHALIN and KURIL ISLANDS occupied by U.S.S.R.
- B- MANCHURIA to China; temporary Russian occupation.
- C- KOREA: North occupied by Russia; south by U.S.A.
- D- RYUKYU and BONIN ISLANDS Occupied by U.S.A.
- E- TAIWAN occupied by Nationalist China.
- F- Occupied and administered by U.S.A. under U.N. trusteeship.
- G- SOUTHEAST ASIA: Limited occupation by British, French,

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## **28.4 OBJECTIVES OF OCCUPATION**

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After the occupation, the Emperor Hirohito was retained. The country enjoyed stability of rule and continuity of authority. In the words of Clyde and Beers "the ultimate objectives of occupation were to ensure that Japan would cease to be a threat to peace and security, and to encourage the development of responsible Government supported by the freely expressed will of the Japanese people".

The Far Eastern Commission (F.E.C.), the top-level allied policy-making body, defined two major objectives. These objectives were to be achieved by (i) limiting the Japanese sovereignty to her main islands and a few outlying islands. (ii) Completely disarming and demilitarising Japan; (iii) affording the Japanese the opportunity to develop an economy which would meet the requirements of peace-loving people; and (iv) helping in the formation of democratic and representative organisations in Japan.

The implementation of the occupation policy was entrusted to Mac Arthur, who throughout the occupation came to be associated with the military tradition. Entering Japan as a conqueror, he assumed the role of the representative of a super power to exercise a stabilising influence on the War-shaken Japan.

### **28.4.1 Disarmament**

The demilitarisation of Japan was achieved by the complete demobilisation and repatriation of the Japanese armed forces. It involved the confiscation and destruction of all ammunition and military equipment. The Imperial General Headquarters, Ministers of War and Navy, all military and para-military organisations were disbanded. Air-crafts and all defence installations were destroyed. Factories producing war materials were closed down. The manufacture of arms and ammunition was banned. All researches in such fields were stopped. The Japanese leaders were tried to Tokyo.

### **28.4.2 Democratisation**

To democratise Japan, a number of measures were taken. A new constitution was proclaimed on the death of the Meiji constitution. All political persons were set free. The feudal and authoritarian tendencies were replaced by the Government by more liberal and democratic methods. Freedom of the press, thought, assembly, speech and religion were permitted. Women were given the right to vote. The police system was decentralised. Local governments were made more responsible to public opinion. The despotic authority of 124th Mikado of Japan was abolished.

### **28.4.3 Education**

The education system was completely revised. Teaching of Shinto in schools was forbidden. The teaching of morals was banned. New text books were written. Compulsory education to the children below the age of 9 was introduced. Efforts were also made to equalise the quality of education at all levels, that would contribute most fully to the development of the individual talents. School administration was decentralised. Elected local school boards were set up. Men and women were given equal rights. Arrangements were made to train the teachers.

### Check Your Progress - I

1. Was the Japanese Government replaced by the Government of the Allied Powers after the second world war?

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2. How was shintoism affected in Japan after the occupation of the country by the Allied powers

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## 28.5 ECONOMIC REFORMS

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In 1946, land reforms were enacted. Absentee landlords were forced to sell all their lands to the Government. The lands so acquired were sold to the tenants on a long range purchase plan. The land reform programme changed the pattern of land ownership. It increased the area of land under cultivation. The profits of the peasants increased considerably, and rural indebtedness practically vanished. Vinacke writes "This was one of the occupation reforms of probable permanance, and real political, social as well as economic significance.". Though it improved the lot of the peasantry, it failed to narrow down the wide gap between the rural and urban people. As Teiedemann says 'By 1952, 5,000,000 acres of land changed hands, and 90% of the farm land was owned by persons cultivating it."

Workers were given the right to join unions, bargain collectively, and also to go on strike. The trade unions were formed. But, Government employees were not allowed to go on strike. Japan Labour Organisation and Industrial Labour Congress were two important labour organisations. Foreign exchange was made available for the reconstruction of Japanese economy. All encouragement was given to economic and industrial ventures. The Japanese virtues and superior technical knowledge coupled with generous U.S. assistance made it possible to resurrect her economy.

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## 28.6 NEW CONSTITUTION OF 1947

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Steps were taken for the enactment of a new constitution. It replaced the Meiji Constitution of 1889. The Constitution was the work of the S.C.A.P. The elections to the Diet were held in 1946, and the new Constitution was promulgated by the Emperor. It came into effect on May, 3, 1947. It is a very elaborate Constitution.

### 28.6.1 Preamble

The preamble of the Constitution states "We the Japanese people desire peace for all time

we desire to occupy an honoured place in an international society striving for the preservation of peace and banishment of tyranny and slavery, oppression and intolerance for all time from the earth". For the first time, Japan became a parliamentary state.

### **28.6.2 Emperor**

In the new Constitution, sovereignty is vested with the people. The Emperor was defined as the "symbol of the state and of the unity of the people". He was to perform only formal and ceremonial functions. All his actions required the sanction of the government. Thus, he was made a constitutional monarch.

### **28.6.3 Parliamentary Government**

Parliamentary or the Diet was to be "the highest organ of state power and sole law-making authority". Two Houses the House of Representatives and the House of Councillors were established. All the men and women of the age of 20 and above, were made eligible to vote in all the elections.

The House of Representatives or the Lower House was to be elected for a four-year term. It had 466 members. Later, it was increased to 511. The 250 members of the Upper House were to be elected for six years, but half of the members were to retire every three years.

The Diet was to meet at least annually. Provision was also made for calling extraordinary sessions of the Diet, and also for the dissolution of the House of Representatives. All the legislative responsibilities including the control of the budget were given to the Diet. No bill can become law unless it is passed by both the Houses.

### **28.6.4 Executive**

The executive power was vested with the Cabinet. It consisted of the Prime Minister and not more than 18 state Ministers. They were collectively responsible to the Diet. The Prime Minister, who is a member of the Diet, must be appointed by the Emperor, but must be designated by the Diet. The Cabinet Ministers are to be chosen by the Prime Minister. They must be civilians.

The Cabinet was given powers to administer the law, conclude treaties, administer the civil services, prepare the budget and decide general amnesty. The Cabinet had to resign if a no-confidence motion was passed against it.

### **28.6.5 Bill of Rights**

The Constitution contained an elaborate Bill of Rights consisting of 31 articles. All rights were to be used for the welfare of the public. All the people were declared equal before law. The right to choose public officials, the right of petition, right to freedom of assembly, speech, religious freedom, freedom of press and the right to form labour organisations, were included in the Constitution. State Shinto was abolished. The Constitution declared that the people have "the right to maintain the minimum standards of wholesome and cultural living".

### **28.6.6 Judiciary**

The Judiciary was made completely independent of the executive and legislative branches of the government. A Supreme Court, eight High Courts and a District Court in each prefecture

were established. Family Courts to deal with domestic complaints were also organised.

The Emperor was to appoint the Chief Justice on the advice of the Cabinet. No Judge can be removed from office except by impeachment.

The Supreme Court was vested with the power to determine the constitutionality of any law, order, regulation or official act. Cruel punishments were removed.

### **28.6.7 Renunciation of War**

The Constitution declared that the Japanese people proclaimed their external renunciation of war except in self-defence. The Constitution mentions the resolve of the Japanese not to use force as a means for settling international disputes.

### **28.6.8 Local Self-Government**

To strength the democratic basis of the country, local self-government was given considerable importance. A substantial power of legislative authority was delegated to the prefectural and Municipal Governments.

### **28.6.9 Finance**

The powers over national finance were to be exercised by the Diet. The Diet has to prepare and pass the budget. All money was to be spent with its approval. The property of the Imperial House is to belong to the state. No public property can be utilised for the benefit of any religious institutions. Public accounts were to be audited by a Board of Audit which had to send its report to the Diet.

### **28.6.10 Amendment**

any amendment to the Constitution was to be initiated by the Diet, and ratified by the people. The Emperor could promulgate amendment in the name of the people. Richard Storry says "This new Constitution in large measure, the product of American brains was broadly acceptable to the people of Japan".

According to Clyde & Beers "The Constitution of 1947 was for the Japanese, a revolutionary document. In it, sovereignty reposes with the people, not with the Emperor".

Thus, by the end of 1947, the primary goals of occupation had been achieved. The Soviet Russia was against the continued presence of foreign troops in Japan, and the continuation of American influence in Japan; she vetoed the proposal in the Security Council on the peace treaty with Japan. As a result, the occupation continued for five more years.

### **28.6.11 Political parties**

In the post-War period, a host of political parties appeared in Japan. The Two main groups were the left-wing elements and the conservatives. The left-wing group excluding the Communists, organised the Social Democratic party. The Conservatives politicians established the Liberal Party and the Progressive Party.

With the democratisation of Japan, and inauguration of the Parliamentary system, political parties played an importance role.

Though for a period, the Socialists and Communists had a popular appeal, the liberal leader, Shigeru Yoshida, backed by America, remained as the Premier of Japan for six years (1948-54.) In 1954, the Liberal Democratic Party leader, Hatoyama became Premier. After 1955, the Japanese Communist party also made some headway in the Japanese politics under the leadership of Nozaka.

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## 28.7 DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

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The extension of 'cold war' in the Far East and the victory of Communism in China, radically altered the attitude of the United States towards Japan. America hoped to use Japan as a counterpoise to the growing Communist influence in the Far East. In 1951, at a conference held in San Francisco, 49 states signed a peace treaty with Japan. This treaty restored Japan's sovereignty, and freed her from any obligation to maintain statutes passed under the occupation. Japan accepted the territorial losses outlined in 1945, and committed herself to abide by the United Nations' Charter.

Russia and other Communist countries attended the conference, but did not sign the treaty. After prolonged negotiations, a compromise agreement was signed with Russia in 1959, which finally ended the state of war between the two countries.

After the ratification of the majority of the signatories including the United States, the peace treaty came into force on April 28, 1952. With it, occupation officially ended, and Japan once again formally became an independent nation.

### Check Your Progress - II

1. On whom was sovereignty vested in Japan by the 1947 Constitution.

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2. How many countries signed the peace treaty with Japan in 1951.

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## 28.8 LET US SUM UP

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1. Japan came under the occupation of the Allied powers in 1945 after her surrender
2. The supreme command of the Allied powers (S.C.A.P.) was created to implement the policies of the Allied powers and achieve their objectives
3. Disarming Japan, democratising the country and transforming the war-oriented economy into a peace oriented economy were the objectives of the Allied powers in Japan.

4. The Meiji constitution of 1889 was replaced by a new constitution in 1947. It contained many democratic features.
5. Japan's independence was restored in 1952 after 49 countries signed a treaty with Japan after the San Francisco conference.

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### 28.9 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : ANSWERS

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- I.
  1. No. The Allied authority was placed over the Japanese Government and did not replace it.
  2. After the occupation, teaching of Shintoism in schools was forbidden.
- II.
  1. Sovereignty was vested with the people.
  2. 49 countries

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### 28.10 EXAMINATION MODEL QUESTIONS

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- I. Answer the following questions in about 30 lines each
  1. Mention the objectives of the occupation of Japan. How did the occupation policy work?
  2. What were the main features of the Japanese Constitution of 1947?
- II. Answer the following questions in about 15 lines each
  1. State the problems that the occupation administration had to face and the machinery that was evolved to meet them.
  2. Write about the functioning of the Parliamentary system under the new Constitution.
  3. Describe the nature and the functioning of the political parties in the Post-War Japan.
  4. What were the developments that led to the declaration of Japan's independence?

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### 28.11 BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING

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- |                        |   |  |
|------------------------|---|--|
| 1. Chatterjee          | : | Modern Japan Short History                 |
| 2. Claude & Buss       | : | The Far East                               |
| 3. Crofts and Buchanan | : | History of the Far East                    |
| 4. Latourette          | : | A Short History of the Far East            |
| 5. M.D. David          | : | History of Modern Japan                    |
| 6. Story & Richard     | : | A Story of Modern Japan                    |
| 7. Vinacke, H.M.       | : | A History of the Far East in Modern Times. |

– K. Mallikarjuna Rao

# Dr. B.R. Ambedkar Open University

UNDERGRADUATE PROGRAMME

Faculty of Social Sciences

**HISTORY**

**COURSE IV : History of Modern China and Japan (1840 - 1964)**

**SYLLABUS**

---

- Block - I      China Background**
- Unit-1      Geographical Features people, Society and Culture  
Unit-2      Salient Features of Manchu Rule
- Block - II      Contact with and the West and Its Effects**
- Unit-3      Western Traders  
Unit-4      Opium Wars-Causes and Effects  
Unit-5      Taiping Rebellion  
Unit-6      Efforts at Modernisation  
Unit-7      Sino-Japanese War  
Unit-8      Concessions and spheres of Influence
- Block - III      Nationalism in China**
- Unit-9      Hundred Days of Reform  
Unit-10      Boxer Rebellion  
Unit-11      1911 Revolution
- Block - IV      Republican China, 1911 - 1948**
- Unit-12      Sun-yet-Sen and his three principles  
Unit-13      Early Republic and its Problems
- Block - V      Communist China**
- Unit-14      China in World War I and Twenty one Demands  
Unit-15      May 4th Movement and Chinese Communist Party  
Unit-16      Kuomintang and Communist Conflict  
Unit-17      Civil War People's Republic of China and its Achievements
- Block - VI      Japan - Background**
- Unit-18      Geographical Features, People and Tokugawa shogunate  
Unit-19      Foreign Missions and Decline of the Tokugawa shogunate
- Block - VII      Meiji Era**
- Unit-20      Restoration of Monarchy and Meiji Constitution  
Unit-21      Social, Economic and Military Progress in the Meiji period  
Unit-22      Conditions during the post Sino-Japanese War period  
Unit-23      Russo - Japanese War  
Unit-24      Japan between the two world wars
- Block - VIII      Japan Between the Two World Wars**
- Unit-25      Industrial Expansion and Militarism  
Unit-26      Conflict with China and Manchurian Invasion  
Unit-27      Japan in World War II
- Block - IX      Post-War Japan**
- Unit-28      American Occupation and Post-War Reconstruction

# **Dr. B.R. Ambedkar Open University**

**B A THIRD YEAR (3 YEAR DEGREE COURSE) EXAMINATION**

**MODEL QUESTION PAPER**

**HISTORY**

**COURSE IV : HISTORY OF MODERN CHINA AND JAPAN**

**Time: 3 hours**

**Max. Marks: 100**

## **SECTION - A**

Answer any four of the following eight questions

Each question carries 15 marks

**4 × 15 = 60**

Answer the following in about 30 lines

1. Discuss the causes and results of the I Opium war
2. Explain the causes for the failure of the Taiping rebellion
3. What is meant by the open Door policy? What were its results?
4. Discuss the nature and impact of the 1911 Revolution
5. Analyse the causes for the success of the communists over the Kuomintang in China
6. Describe the political, economic and social conditions in Japan under the Tokugawa Shogunate
7. Describe critically the 21 demands
8. What were the effects of the II world war on Japan?

## **SECTION - B**

Answer any five of the following questions in about 15 lines each

Each question carries 8 marks

**5 × 8 = 40**

9. Write briefly about taoism
10. Write about the Li Fournier convention
11. What is the significance of the Hundred days reforms?
12. Explain the three principles of Dr. Sunyatsen
13. Write briefly about the May 4th movement
14. Estimate briefly the achievement of Chiang-Kai-Shek
15. What were the social divisions in pre-modern Japan?
16. What were the achievements of Townshed Harries?
17. What was the significance of then Meji Restoration?
18. Write about the impact of the Russo Japanese war on China

# **Dr. B.R. Ambedkar Open University**

UNDERGRADUATE COURSE - III YEAR

SUBJECT : HISTORY

COURSE - IV HISTORY OF MODERN CHINA AND JAPAN

ASSIGNMENT - 1

*Note:*

1. Do not copy the answer directly from any of the books
  2. As far as possible, try to answer the questions independently in your own words
  3. If it is necessary to quote from any source, give the correct reference
  4. Use your own foolscap pages for writing the assignment
  5. Leave sufficient margin for the comments of the evaluators
  6. Completion of this assignment normally should not take more than 2 hours time
- 

**PART A**

**I. Answer the following questions in about 30 lines each**

1. Describe the salient features of Manchu administration.
2. Explain the causes and effects of the Taiping Revolution.
3. What were the important hundred days reforms? Why did they fail.

**PART B**

**II. Answer the following questions in about 15 lines each.**

1. What were the important ideas of Confucius?
2. Explain the important provisions of the Treaty of Nanking.
3. Write about Hung-Hsiu-Chuan.

# **Dr. B.R. Ambedkar Open University**

UNDERGRADUATE COURSE - III YEAR

SUBJECT : HISTORY

COURSE - IV HISTORY OF MODERN CHINA AND JAPAN

ASSIGNMENT - 2

*Note:*

1. Do not copy the answer directly from any of the books
  2. As far as possible, try to answer the questions independently in your own words
  3. If it is necessary to quote from any source, give the correct reference
  4. Use your own foolscap pages for writing the assignment
  5. Leave sufficient margin for the comments of the evaluators
  6. Completion of this assignment normally should not take more than 2 hours time
- 

## **PART A**

**I. Answer the following in about 30 lines each**

1. Explain the causes and results of the Boxer Rebellion.
2. Explain the causes for the 1911 Revolution.
3. Describe the salient features of the 1889 constitution of Japan.

## **PART B**

**II. Answer the following in about 15 lines each**

1. Write about the three principles of the people.
2. Write about the character of Yuan-shih-Kai.
3. Explain the significance of the treaty of Kanagawa.

# **Dr. B.R. Ambedkar Open University**

UNDERGRADUATE COURSE - III YEAR

SUBJECT : HISTORY

COURSE - IV HISTORY OF MODERN CHINA AND JAPAN

ASSIGNMENT - 3

*Note:*

1. Do not copy the answer directly from any of the books
  2. As far as possible, try to answer the questions independently in your own words
  3. If it is necessary to quote from any source, give the correct reference
  4. Use your own foolscap pages for writing the assignment
  5. Leave sufficient margin for the comments of the evaluators
  6. Completion of this assignment normally should not take more than 2 hours time
- 

**PART A**

**I. Answer the following questions in about 30 lines each.**

1. Explain the features of economic development of Japan between 1895-1919.
2. Explain the causes and results of the Russo Japanese War
3. What were the objectives of American occupation of Japan in 1945? How were the objectives realised?

**PART B**

**II. Answer the following questions in about 15 lines each.**

1. Write about the prominence of Zaibastu in the economic life of Japan.
2. What were the main causes for the Sino-Japanese war of 1931.
3. What were the important aspects of Japan's Munroe Doctrine. What was its significance?

BRAOU