

# HISTORY OF CHINA AND JAPAN FROM 1900 TO 1976 A.D

18BHI63C (UNIT I)

V.VIJAYAKUMAR

9025570709

## III B A HISTORY - VI SEMESTER

### Boxer Rebellion

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The **Boxer Rebellion** (拳亂), **Boxer Uprising**, or **Yihetuan Movement** (義和團運動) was an [anti-imperialist](#), [anti-foreign](#), and [anti-Christian](#) uprising in China between 1899 and 1901, towards the end of the [Qing dynasty](#).

It was initiated by the Militia United in Righteousness (*Yihéquán*), known in English as the [Boxers](#) because many of their members had practiced [Chinese martial arts](#), also referred to in the Western world at the time as *Chinese Boxing*. Villagers in North China had been building resentment against Christian missionaries. The immediate background of the uprising included severe drought and disruption by the growth of foreign [spheres of influence](#) after the [Sino-Japanese War of 1895](#). After several months of growing violence and murder in [Shandong](#) and the [North China Plain](#) against foreign and [Christian presence](#) in June 1900, Boxer fighters, convinced they were invulnerable to foreign weapons, converged on Beijing with the slogan "Support the Qing government and exterminate the foreigners." Foreigners and Chinese Christians sought refuge in the [Legation Quarter](#).

In response to reports of an invasion by the [Eight Nation Alliance](#) of American, Austro-Hungarian, British, French, German, Italian, Japanese, and Russian troops to lift the siege, the initially hesitant [Empress Dowager Cixi](#) supported the Boxers and on June 21 issued an [Imperial](#)

[Decree declaring war](#) on the foreign powers. Diplomats, foreign civilians, and soldiers as well as [Chinese Christians](#) in the Legation Quarter were besieged for 55 days by the Imperial Army of China and the Boxers. Chinese officialdom was split between those supporting the Boxers and those favoring conciliation, led by [Prince Qing](#). The supreme commander of the Chinese forces, the Manchu General [Ronglu](#) (Junlu), later claimed he acted to protect the foreigners. Officials in the [Mutual Protection of Southeast China](#) ignored the imperial order to fight against foreigners.

The Eight-Nation Alliance, after being initially turned back, brought 20,000 armed troops to China, defeated the Imperial Army, and arrived at Peking on August 14, relieving the [siege of the Legations](#). Uncontrolled plunder of the capital and the surrounding countryside ensued, along with [summary execution](#) of those suspected of being Boxers. The [Boxer Protocol](#) of 7 September 1901 provided for the execution of government officials who had supported the Boxers, provisions for foreign troops to be stationed in Beijing, and 450 million [taels](#) of silver—approximately \$10 billion at 2018 silver prices and more than the government's annual [tax revenue](#)—to be paid as [indemnity](#) over the course of the next 39 years to the eight nations involved.



## **Origins of the Boxers**[\[edit\]](#)

The Righteous and Harmonious Fists (Yihequan) arose in the inland sections of the northern coastal province of [Shandong](#), long known for social unrest, religious sects, and martial societies. American Christian missionaries were probably the first to refer to the well-trained, athletic young men as "Boxers", because of the martial arts and weapons training they practiced. Their

primary practice was a type of [spiritual possession](#) which involved the whirling of swords, violent prostrations, and chanting incantations to deities.<sup>[8]</sup>

The opportunities to fight back Western encroachment and colonization were especially attractive to unemployed village men, many of whom were teenagers.<sup>[9]</sup> The tradition of possession and invulnerability went back several hundred years but took on special meaning against the powerful new weapons of the West.<sup>[10]</sup> The Boxers, armed with rifles and swords, claimed supernatural invulnerability towards blows of cannon, rifle shots, and knife attacks. Furthermore, the Boxer groups popularly claimed that millions of soldiers would descend out of [Heaven](#) to assist them in purifying China of foreign oppression.<sup>[11]</sup>

In 1895, despite ambivalence toward their heterodox practices, [Yuxian](#), a Manchu who was then prefect of [Caozhou](#) and would later become provincial governor, cooperated with the [Big Swords Society](#), whose original purpose was protection against banditry, to fight bandits.<sup>[12]</sup> The missionaries of the German Society of the Divine Word had built up their presence in the area, partially by taking in a significant portion of converts who were "in need of protection from the law".<sup>[12]</sup> On one occasion in 1895, a large bandit gang defeated by the Big Swords Society claimed to be Catholics to avoid prosecution. "The line between Christians and bandits became increasingly indistinct", remarks Paul Cohen.<sup>[12]</sup> Some missionaries such as George Stenz also used their privileges to intervene in lawsuits. The Big Swords responded by attacking Catholic properties and [burning](#) them.<sup>[12]</sup> As a result of diplomatic pressure in the capital, Yuxian executed several Big Sword leaders, but did not punish anyone else. More martial secret societies started emerging after this.<sup>[12]</sup>

The early years saw a variety of village activities, not a broad movement with a united purpose. Martial folk religious societies such as the [Baguadao](#) (Eight Trigrams) prepared the way for the

Boxers. Like the Red Boxing school or the [Plum Flower Boxers](#), the Boxers of Shandong were more concerned with traditional social and moral values, such as filial piety, than with foreign influences. One leader, Zhu Hongdeng (Red Lantern Zhu), started as a wandering healer, specializing in skin ulcers, and gained wide respect by refusing payment for his treatments.<sup>[13]</sup> Zhu claimed descent from [Ming dynasty](#) emperors, since his surname was the surname of the Ming imperial family. He announced that his goal was to "Revive the Qing and destroy the foreigners" ("扶清滅洋 *fu Qing mie yang*").<sup>[14]</sup>

The enemy was foreign influence. They decided the "primary devils" were the Christian missionaries, and the "secondary devils" were the Chinese converts to Christianity. Both had to recant or be driven out or killed.<sup>[15][16]</sup>

### **Causes of conflict and unrest**[\[edit\]](#)

The combination of extreme weather conditions, Western attempts at colonizing China, and growing anti-imperialist sentiment fueled the movement. First, a drought followed by floods in Shandong province in 1897–1898 forced farmers to flee to cities and seek food. As one observer said, "I am convinced that a few days' heavy rainfall to terminate the long-continued drought ... would do more to restore tranquility than any measures which either the Chinese government or foreign governments can take."<sup>[17]</sup>

A major cause of discontent in north China was missionary activity. The [Treaty of Tientsin](#) (or Tianjin) and the [Convention of Peking](#), signed in 1860 after the [Second Opium War](#), had granted foreign missionaries the freedom to preach anywhere in China and to buy land on which to build churches.<sup>[18]</sup> On 1 November 1897, a band of armed men who were perhaps members of the [Big](#)

[Swords Society](#) stormed the residence of a German missionary from the [Society of the Divine Word](#) and killed two priests. This attack is known as the [Juye Incident](#).

When [Kaiser Wilhelm II](#) received news of these murders, he dispatched the [German East Asia Squadron](#) to occupy [Jiaozhou Bay](#) on the southern coast of the Shandong peninsula.<sup>[19]</sup> In December 1897, Wilhelm II declared his intent to seize territory in China, which triggered a "scramble for [concessions](#)" by which Britain, France, Russia and Japan also secured their own [sphere of influence](#) in China.<sup>[20]</sup> Germany gained exclusive control of developmental loans, mining, and railway ownership in [Shandong](#) province.<sup>[21]</sup> Russia gained influence of all territory north of the Great Wall,<sup>[22]</sup> plus the previous tax exemption for trade in [Mongolia](#) and [Xinjiang](#),<sup>[23]</sup> economic powers similar to Germany's over [Fengtian](#), [Jilin](#) and [Heilongjiang](#) provinces. France gained influence of [Yunnan](#), most of [Guangxi](#) and [Guangdong](#) provinces,<sup>[24]</sup> [Japan](#) over [Fujian](#) province.<sup>[24]</sup> Britain gained influence of the whole [Yangtze River](#) Valley<sup>[24]</sup> (defined as all provinces adjoining the Yangtze river as well as [Henan](#) and [Zhejiang](#) provinces<sup>[22]</sup>), parts of<sup>[25]</sup> [Guangdong](#) and [Guangxi](#) provinces and part of [Tibet](#).<sup>[26]</sup> Only [Italy](#)'s request for [Zhejiang](#) province was declined by the Chinese government.<sup>[24]</sup> These do not include the lease and [concession territories](#) where the foreign powers had full authority. The Russian government militarily occupied their zone, imposed their law and schools, seized mining and logging privileges, settled their citizens, and even established their municipal administration on several cities,<sup>[27]</sup> the latter without Chinese consent.<sup>[28]</sup>

In October 1898, a group of Boxers attacked the Christian community of Liyuantun village where a temple to the [Jade Emperor](#) had been converted into a Catholic church. Disputes had

surrounded the church since 1869, when the temple had been granted to the Christian residents of the village. This incident marked the first time the Boxers used the slogan "Support the Qing, destroy the foreigners" ("扶清滅洋 *fu Qing mie yang*") that later characterised them.<sup>[29]</sup> The "Boxers" called themselves the "Militia United in Righteousness" for the first time one year later, at the [Battle of Senluo Temple](#) (October 1899), a clash between Boxers and Qing government troops.<sup>[30]</sup> By using the word "Militia" rather than "Boxers", they distanced themselves from forbidden martial arts sects, and tried to give their movement the legitimacy of a group that defended orthodoxy.<sup>[31]</sup>

Aggression toward missionaries and Christians drew the ire of foreign (mainly European) governments.<sup>[32]</sup> In 1899, the French minister in Beijing helped the missionaries to obtain an edict granting official status to every order in the Roman Catholic hierarchy, enabling local priests to support their people in legal or family disputes and bypass the local officials. After the German government took over Shandong, many Chinese feared that the foreign missionaries and possibly all Christian activities were imperialist attempts at "carving the melon", i.e., to colonize China piece by piece.<sup>[33]</sup> A Chinese official expressed the animosity towards foreigners succinctly, "Take away your missionaries and your opium and you will be welcome."<sup>[34]</sup>

The early growth of the Boxer movement coincided with the [Hundred Days' Reform](#) (11 June – 21 September 1898), in which progressive Chinese officials, with support from Protestant missionaries, persuaded the [Guangxu Emperor](#) to institute sweeping reforms. This alienated many conservative officials, whose opposition led [Empress Dowager Cixi](#) to intervene and reverse the reforms. The failure of the reform movement disillusioned many educated Chinese and thus further weakened the Qing government. The empress seized power and placed the reformist emperor under house arrest.

The national crisis was widely considered as caused by foreign aggression.<sup>[35]</sup> Foreign powers had defeated China in several wars, forced a right to promote Christianity and imposed [unequal treaties](#) under which foreigners and foreign companies in China were accorded special privileges, extraterritorial rights and immunities from Chinese law, causing resentment among Chinese. France, Japan, Russia and Germany carved out spheres of influence, so that by 1900 it appeared that China would be dismembered, with foreign powers each ruling a part of the country. Thus, by 1900, the Qing dynasty, which had ruled China for more than two centuries, was crumbling and Chinese culture was under assault by powerful and unfamiliar religions and secular cultures.<sup>[36]</sup>

Boxer War[[edit](#)]

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### **Intensifying crisis**

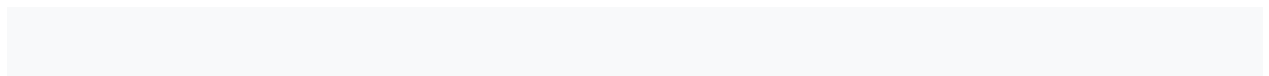
In January 1900, with a majority of conservatives in the imperial court, Empress Dowager Cixi changed her position on the Boxers, and issued edicts in their defence, causing protests from foreign powers. In spring 1900, the Boxer movement spread rapidly north from Shandong into the countryside near Beijing. Boxers burned Christian churches, killed Chinese Christians and intimidated Chinese officials who stood in their way. American Minister [Edwin H. Conger](#) cabled Washington, "the whole country is swarming with hungry, discontented, hopeless idlers." On 30 May the diplomats, led by British Minister [Claude Maxwell MacDonald](#), requested that foreign soldiers come to Beijing to defend the legations. The Chinese government reluctantly acquiesced, and the next day a multinational force of 435 navy troops from eight countries debarked from warships and travelled by train from [Dagu \(Taku\)](#) to Beijing. They set up defensive perimeters around their respective missions.<sup>[38]</sup>

On 5 June 1900, the railway line to Tianjin was cut by Boxers in the countryside and Beijing was isolated. On 11 June, at [Yongding gate](#), the secretary of the Japanese legation, Sugiyama Akira, was [attacked and killed by the soldiers](#) of general [Dong Fuxiang](#), who were guarding the southern part of the Beijing walled city.<sup>[39]</sup> Armed with [Mauser](#) rifles but wearing traditional uniforms,<sup>[40]</sup> Dong's troops had threatened the foreign Legations in the fall of 1898 soon after arriving in Beijing,<sup>[41]</sup> so much that [United States Marines](#) had been called to Beijing to guard the legations.<sup>[42]</sup> The German [Kaiser Wilhelm II](#) was so alarmed by the Chinese Muslim troops that he requested the [Caliph Abdul Hamid II](#) of the [Ottoman Empire](#) to find a way to stop the Muslim troops from fighting.

The Caliph agreed to the Kaiser's request and sent Enver Pasha (not to be confused with the [future Young Turk leader](#)) to China in 1901, but the rebellion was over by that time.<sup>[43]</sup>

Also on 11 June, the first Boxer, dressed in his finery, was seen in the Legation Quarter. The German Minister, [Clemens von Ketteler](#), and German soldiers captured a Boxer boy and inexplicably executed him.<sup>[44]</sup> In response, thousands of Boxers burst into the walled city of Beijing that afternoon and burned many of the Christian churches and cathedrals in the city, burning some victims alive.<sup>[45]</sup> American and British missionaries had taken refuge in the Methodist Mission and an attack there was repulsed by American Marines. The soldiers at the British Embassy and German Legations shot and killed several Boxers,<sup>[46]</sup> alienating the Chinese population of the city and nudging the Qing government towards support of the Boxers.

The Muslim Gansu braves and Boxers, along with other Chinese then attacked and killed Chinese Christians around the legations in revenge for foreign attacks on Chinese.<sup>[47]</sup>





As the situation grew more violent, a second multinational force of 2,000 sailors and marines under the command of the British vice-admiral [Edward Seymour](#), the largest contingent being British, was dispatched from Dagu to Beijing on 10 June 1900. The troops were transported by train from Dagu to Tianjin with the agreement of the Chinese government, but the railway between Tianjin and Beijing had been severed. Seymour resolved to move forward and repair the railway, or progress on foot if necessary, keeping in mind that the distance between Tianjin and Beijing was only 120 km. When Seymour left Tianjin and started toward Beijing, it angered the imperial court.

As a result, the pro-Boxer Manchu Prince Duan became leader of the Zongli Yamen (foreign office), replacing Prince Qing. Prince Duan was a member of the imperial [Aisin Gioro](#) clan (foreigners called him a "Blood Royal"), and Empress Dowager Cixi had named her son as next in line for the [imperial throne](#). He became the effective leader of the Boxers, and was extremely anti-foreigner. He soon ordered the Qing imperial army to attack the foreign forces. Confused by conflicting orders from Beijing, General [Nie Shicheng](#) let Seymour's army pass by in their trains.<sup>[48]</sup>

After leaving Tianjin, the convoy quickly reached Langfang, but found the railway there to be destroyed. Seymour's engineers tried to repair the line, but the allied army found itself surrounded, as the railway both behind and in front of them had been destroyed. They were attacked from all parts by Chinese irregulars and Chinese governmental troops. Five thousand of Dong Fuxiang's "[Gansu Braves](#)" and an unknown number of "Boxers" won a costly but major victory over Seymour's troops at the [Battle of Langfang](#) on 18 June.<sup>[49][50]</sup> As the allied European army retreated from Langfang, they were constantly fired upon by cavalry, and artillery

bombarded their positions. It was reported that the Chinese artillery was superior to the European artillery, since the Europeans did not bother to bring along much for the campaign, thinking they could easily sweep through Chinese resistance.

The Europeans could not locate the Chinese artillery, which was raining shells upon their positions.<sup>[51]</sup> Mining, engineering, flooding and simultaneous attacks were employed by Chinese troops. The Chinese also employed pincer movements, ambushes and sniper tactics with some success against the foreigners.<sup>[52]</sup>

News arrived on 18 June regarding attacks on foreign legations. Seymour decided to continue advancing, this time along the Beihe river, toward [Tongzhou](#), 25 kilometres (16 mi) from Beijing. By the 19th, they had to abandon their efforts due to progressively stiffening resistance and started to retreat southward along the river with over 200 wounded. Commandeering four civilian Chinese [junks](#) along the river, they loaded all their wounded and remaining supplies onto them and pulled them along with ropes from the riverbanks. By this point they were very low on food, ammunition and medical supplies. Unexpectedly they then happened upon [the Great Xigu Arsenal](#), a hidden Qing munitions cache of which the Allied Powers had had no knowledge until then. They immediately captured and occupied it, discovering not only [Krupp](#) field guns, but rifles with millions of rounds of ammunition, along with millions of pounds of rice and ample medical supplies.

There they dug in and awaited rescue. A Chinese servant was able to infiltrate the Boxer and Qing lines, informing the Eight Powers of the Seymour troops' predicament. Surrounded and attacked nearly around the clock by Qing troops and Boxers, they were at the point of being overrun. On 25 June, a regiment composed of 1,800 men (900 Russian troops from [Port Arthur](#), 500 British seamen, with an ad hoc mix of other assorted Alliance troops) finally arrived on foot

from Tientsin to rescue Seymour. Spiking the mounted field guns and setting fire to any munitions that they could not take (an estimated £3 million worth), Seymour, his force, and the rescue mission marched back to Tientsin, unopposed, on 26 June. Seymour's casualties during the expedition were 62 killed and 228 wounded.<sup>[53]</sup>

### **Conflicting attitudes within the Qing imperial court**

Meanwhile, in Beijing, on 16 June, Empress Dowager Cixi summoned the imperial court for a mass audience and addressed the choice between using the Boxers to evict the foreigners from the city and seeking a diplomatic solution. In response to a high official who doubted the efficacy of the Boxers, Cixi replied that both sides of the debate at the imperial court realised that popular support for the Boxers in the countryside was almost universal and that suppression would be both difficult and unpopular, especially when foreign troops were on the march.<sup>[54][55]</sup>

Two factions were active during this debate. On one side were anti-foreigners who viewed foreigners as invasive and imperialistic and evoked a nativist populism. They advocated taking advantage of the Boxers to achieve the expulsion of foreign troops and foreign influences. The pro-foreigners on the other hand advanced rapprochement with foreign governments, seeing the Boxers as superstitious and ignorant.<sup>[citation needed]</sup>

The event that tilted the Qing imperial government irrevocably toward support of the Boxers and war with the foreign powers was the attack of foreign navies on the [Dagu Forts](#) near Tianjin, on 17 June 1900.<sup>[citation needed]</sup>

### **Siege of the Beijing legations**<sup>[edit]</sup>

On 15 June, Qing imperial forces deployed electric [mines](#) in the [River Beihe](#) (Peiho) to prevent the Eight-Nation Alliance from sending ships to attack.<sup>[56]</sup> With a difficult military situation in Tianjin and a total breakdown of communications between Tianjin and Beijing, the allied nations took steps to reinforce their military presence significantly. On 17 June they took the Dagu Forts commanding the approaches to Tianjin, and from there brought increasing numbers of troops on shore. When Cixi received an ultimatum<sup>[when?]</sup> demanding that China surrender total control over all its military and financial affairs to foreigners,<sup>[57]</sup> she defiantly stated before the entire [Grand Council](#), "Now they [the Powers] have started the aggression, and the extinction of our nation is imminent. If we just fold our arms and yield to them, I would have no face to see our ancestors after death. If we must perish, why don't we fight to the death?"<sup>[58]</sup> It was at this point that Cixi began to blockade the legations with the armies of the [Peking Field Force](#), which began the siege. Cixi stated that "I have always been of the opinion, that the allied armies had been permitted to escape too easily [in 1860](#). Only a united effort was then necessary to have given China the victory. Today, at last, the opportunity for revenge has come", and said that millions of Chinese would join the cause of fighting the foreigners since the Manchus had provided "great benefits" on China.<sup>[59]</sup> On receipt of the news of the attack on the [Dagu Forts](#) on 19 June, Empress Dowager Cixi immediately sent an order to the legations that the diplomats and other foreigners depart Beijing under escort of the Chinese army within 24 hours.<sup>[60]</sup>

The next morning, diplomats from the besieged legations met to discuss the Empress's offer. The majority quickly agreed that they could not trust the Chinese army. Fearing that they would be killed, they agreed to refuse the Empress's demand. The German Imperial Envoy, Baron Klemens Freiherr von Ketteler, was infuriated with the actions of the Chinese army troops and

determined to take his complaints to the royal court. Against the advice of the fellow foreigners, the baron left the legations with a single aide and a team of porters to carry his sedan chair. On his way to the palace, von Ketteler was killed on the streets of Beijing by a Manchu captain.<sup>[61]</sup> His aide managed to escape the attack and carried word of the baron's death back to the diplomatic compound. At this news, the other diplomats feared they also would be murdered if they left the legation quarter and they chose to continue to defy the Chinese order to depart Beijing. The legations were hurriedly fortified. Most of the foreign civilians, which included a large number of missionaries and businessmen, took refuge in the British legation, the largest of the diplomatic compounds.<sup>[62]</sup> Chinese Christians were primarily housed in the adjacent palace (Fu) of Prince Su who was forced to abandon his property by the foreign soldiers.<sup>[63]</sup>

On 21 June, Empress Dowager Cixi declared war against all foreign powers. Regional governors who commanded substantial modernised armies, such as [Li Hongzhang](#) at Canton, [Yuan Shikai](#) in Shandong, [Zhang Zhidong](#)<sup>[64]</sup> at Wuhan and [Liu Kunyi](#) at Nanjing, refused to join in the imperial court's declaration of war and withheld knowledge of it from the public in the south. Yuan Shikai used his own forces to suppress Boxers in Shandong, and Zhang entered into negotiations with the foreigners in Shanghai to keep his army out of the conflict. The neutrality of these provincial and regional governors left the majority of Chinese out of the conflict.<sup>[65]</sup> They were called the [Mutual Protection of Southeast China](#).<sup>[66]</sup>

The legations of the United Kingdom, France, Germany, Italy, Austria-Hungary, Spain, Belgium, the Netherlands, the United States, Russia and Japan were located in the [Beijing Legation Quarter](#) south of the [Forbidden City](#). The Chinese army and Boxer irregulars besieged the Legation Quarter from 20 June to 14 August 1900. A total of 473 foreign civilians, 409 soldiers, marines and sailors from eight countries, and about 3,000 Chinese Christians took refuge

there.<sup>[67]</sup> Under the command of the British minister to China, [Claude Maxwell MacDonald](#), the legation staff and military guards defended the compound with small arms, three machine guns, and one old muzzle-loaded cannon, which was nicknamed the *International Gun* because the barrel was British, the carriage Italian, the shells Russian and the crew American. Chinese Christians in the legations led the foreigners to the cannon and it proved important in the defence. Also under siege in Beijing was the [Northern Cathedral](#) (*Beitang*) of the Catholic Church. The Beitang was defended by 43 French and Italian soldiers, 33 Catholic foreign priests and nuns, and about 3,200 Chinese Catholics. The defenders suffered heavy casualties especially from lack of food and mines which the Chinese exploded in tunnels dug beneath the compound.<sup>[68]</sup> The number of Chinese soldiers and Boxers besieging the Legation Quarter and the Beitang is unknown.

On 22 and 23 June, Chinese soldiers and Boxers set fire to areas north and west of the British Legation, using it as a "frightening tactic" to attack the defenders. The nearby [Hanlin Academy](#), a complex of courtyards and buildings that housed "the quintessence of Chinese scholarship ... the oldest and richest library in the world", caught fire. Each side blamed the other for the destruction of the invaluable books it contained.<sup>[69]</sup>

After the failure to burn out the foreigners, the Chinese army adopted an anaconda-like strategy. The Chinese built barricades surrounding the Legation Quarter and advanced, brick by brick, on the foreign lines, forcing the foreign legation guards to retreat a few feet at a time. This tactic was especially used in the Fu, defended by Japanese and Italian sailors and soldiers, and inhabited by most of the Chinese Christians. Fusillades of bullets, artillery and firecrackers were directed against the Legations almost every night—but did little damage. Sniper fire took its toll

among the foreign defenders. Despite their numerical advantage, the Chinese did not attempt a direct assault on the Legation Quarter although in the words of one of the besieged, "it would have been easy by a strong, swift movement on the part of the numerous Chinese troops to have annihilated the whole body of foreigners ... in an hour."<sup>[70]</sup> American missionary [Frank Gamewell](#) and his crew of "fighting parsons" fortified the Legation Quarter,<sup>[71]</sup> but impressed Chinese Christians to do most of the physical labour of building defences.<sup>[72]</sup>

The Germans and the Americans occupied perhaps the most crucial of all defensive positions: the Tartar Wall. Holding the top of the 45 ft (14 m) tall and 40 ft (12 m) wide wall was vital. The German barricades faced east on top of the wall and 400 yd (370 m) west were the west-facing American positions. The Chinese advanced toward both positions by building barricades even closer. "The men all feel they are in a trap", said the American commander, Capt. [John T. Myers](#), "and simply await the hour of execution."<sup>[73]</sup> On 30 June, the Chinese forced the Germans off the Wall, leaving the American Marines alone in its defence. At the same time, a Chinese barricade was advanced to within a few feet of the American positions and it became clear that the Americans had to abandon the wall or force the Chinese to retreat. At 2 am on 3 July, 56 British, Russian and American marines and sailors, under the command of Myers, launched an assault against the Chinese barricade on the wall. The attack caught the Chinese sleeping, killed about 20 of them, and expelled the rest of them from the barricades.<sup>[74]</sup> The Chinese did not attempt to advance their positions on the Tartar Wall for the remainder of the siege.<sup>[75]</sup>

Sir Claude MacDonald said 13 July was the "most harassing day" of the siege.<sup>[76]</sup> The Japanese and Italians in the Fu were driven back to their last defence line. The Chinese detonated a mine beneath the French Legation pushing the French and Austrians out of most of the French Legation.<sup>[76]</sup> On 16 July, the most capable British officer was killed and the journalist [George](#)

[Ernest Morrison](#) was wounded.<sup>[77]</sup> But American Minister [Edwin Hurd Conger](#) established contact with the Chinese government and on 17 July, an armistice was declared by the Chinese.<sup>[78]</sup> More than 40% of the legation guards were dead or wounded. The motivation of the Chinese was probably the realization that an allied force of 20,000 men had landed in China and retribution for the siege was at hand.

### **Officials and commanders at cross purposes**<sup>[edit]</sup>

The Manchu General [Ronglu](#) concluded that it was futile to fight all of the powers simultaneously, and declined to press home the siege.<sup>[80]</sup> The Manchu [Zaiyi](#) (Prince Duan), an anti-foreign friend of [Dong Fuxiang](#), wanted artillery for Dong's troops to destroy the legations. Ronglu blocked the transfer of artillery to Zaiyi and Dong, preventing them from attacking.<sup>[81]</sup> Ronglu forced Dong Fuxiang and his troops to pull back from completing the siege and destroying the legations, thereby saving the foreigners and making diplomatic concessions.<sup>[82]</sup> Ronglu and Prince Qing sent food to the legations, and used their Manchu Bannermen to attack the Muslim Gansu Braves ("Kansu Braves" in the spelling of the time) of Dong Fuxiang and the Boxers who were besieging the foreigners. They issued edicts ordering the foreigners to be protected, but the Gansu warriors ignored it, and fought against Bannermen who tried to force them away from the legations. The Boxers also took commands from Dong Fuxiang.<sup>[83]</sup> Ronglu also deliberately hid an Imperial Decree from General [Nie Shicheng](#). The Decree ordered him to stop fighting the Boxers because of the foreign invasion, and also because the population was suffering. Due to Ronglu's actions, General Nie continued to fight the Boxers and killed many of them even as the foreign troops were making their way into China. Ronglu also ordered Nie to protect foreigners and save the railway from the Boxers.<sup>[84]</sup> Because parts of



the Railway were saved under Ronglu's orders, the foreign invasion army was able to transport itself into China quickly. General Nie committed thousands of troops against the Boxers instead of against the foreigners. Nie was already outnumbered by the Allies by 4,000 men. General Nie was blamed for attacking the Boxers, as Ronglu let Nie take all the blame. At the [Battle of Tianjin \(Tientsin\)](#), General Nie decided to sacrifice his life by walking into the range of Allied guns.<sup>[85]</sup>

[Xu Jingcheng](#), who had served as the Qing Envoy to many of the same states under siege in the Legation Quarter, argued that "the evasion of extraterritorial rights and the killing of foreign diplomats are unprecedented in China and abroad."<sup>[86]</sup> Xu and five other officials urged Empress Dowager Cixi to order the repression of Boxers, the execution of their leaders, and a diplomatic settlement with foreign armies. The Empress Dowager, outraged, sentenced Xu and the five others to death for "willfully and absurdly petitioning the Imperial Court" and "building subversive thought." They were executed on 28 July 1900 and their severed heads placed on display at [Caishikou Execution Grounds](#) in Beijing.<sup>[87]</sup>

Reflecting this vacillation, some Chinese soldiers were quite liberally firing at foreigners under siege from its very onset. Cixi did not personally order imperial troops to conduct a siege, and on the contrary had ordered them to protect the foreigners in the legations. Prince Duan led the Boxers to loot his enemies within the imperial court and the foreigners, although imperial authorities expelled Boxers after they were let into the city and went on a looting rampage against both the foreign and the Qing imperial forces. Older Boxers were sent outside Beijing to halt the approaching foreign armies, while younger men were absorbed into the Muslim Gansu army.<sup>[88]</sup>

With conflicting allegiances and priorities motivating the various forces inside Beijing, the situation in the city became increasingly confused. The foreign legations continued to be surrounded by both Qing imperial and Gansu forces. While Dong Fuxiang's Gansu army, now swollen by the addition of the Boxers, wished to press the siege, Ronglu's imperial forces seem to have largely attempted to follow Empress Dowager Cixi's decree and protect the legations. However, to satisfy the conservatives in the imperial court, Ronglu's men also fired on the legations and let off firecrackers to give the impression that they, too, were attacking the foreigners. Inside the legations and out of communication with the outside world, the foreigners simply fired on any targets that presented themselves, including messengers from the imperial court, civilians and besiegers of all persuasions.<sup>[89]</sup> Dong Fuxiang was denied artillery held by Ronglu which stopped him from leveling the legations, and when he complained to Empress Dowager Cixi on 23 June, she dismissively said that "Your tail is becoming too heavy to wag." The Alliance discovered large amounts of unused Chinese Krupp artillery and shells after the siege was lifted.<sup>[90]</sup>

The armistice, although occasionally broken, endured until 13 August when, with an allied army led by the British [Alfred Gaselee](#) approaching Beijing to relieve the siege, the Chinese launched their heaviest fusillade on the Legation Quarter. As the foreign army approached, Chinese forces melted away.

### **Gaselee Expedition**[\[edit\]](#)

Foreign navies started building up their presence along the northern China coast from the end of April 1900. Several international forces were sent to the capital, with varying success, and the Chinese forces were ultimately defeated by the [Eight-Nation Alliance](#) of [Austria-Hungary](#), [France](#), [Germany](#), [Italy](#), [Japan](#), [Russia](#), the [United Kingdom](#) and the [United States](#).

Independent of the alliance, the [Netherlands](#) dispatched three cruisers in July to protect its citizens in Shanghai.<sup>[91]</sup>

British Lieutenant-General [Alfred Gaselee](#) acted as the commanding officer of the Eight-Nation Alliance, which eventually numbered 55,000. The main contingent was composed of Japanese (20,840), Russian (13,150), British (12,020), French (3,520), U.S. (3,420), German (900), Italian (80), Austro-Hungarian (75) and anti-Boxer Chinese troops.<sup>[92]</sup> The "First Chinese Regiment" ([Weihaiwei Regiment](#)) which was praised for its performance, consisted of Chinese collaborators serving in the British military.<sup>[93]</sup> Notable events included the seizure of the [Dagu Forts](#) commanding the approaches to Tianjin and the boarding and capture of four Chinese destroyers by British Commander [Roger Keyes](#). Among the foreigners besieged in Tianjin was a young American mining engineer named [Herbert Hoover](#), who would go on to become the 31st President of the United States.<sup>[94][95]</sup>

The international force finally captured [Tianjin](#) on 14 July. The international force suffered its heaviest casualties of the Boxer Rebellion in the [Battle of Tianjin](#).<sup>[96]</sup> With Tianjin as a base, the international force marched from Tianjin to Beijing, about 120 km, with 20,000 allied troops. On 4 August, there were approximately 70,000 Qing imperial troops and anywhere from 50,000 to 100,000 Boxers along the way. The allies only encountered minor resistance, fighting battles at [Beicang](#) and [Yangcun](#). At Yangcun, the [14th Infantry Regiment](#) of the U.S. and British troops led the assault. The weather was a major obstacle. Conditions were extremely humid with temperatures sometimes reaching 42 °C (108 °F). These high temperatures and insects plagued the Allies. Soldiers became dehydrated and horses died. Chinese villagers killed Allied troops who searched for wells.<sup>[97]</sup>

The heat killed Allied soldiers, who foamed at the mouth. The tactics along the way were gruesome on either side. Allied soldiers beheaded already dead Chinese corpses, bayoneted or beheaded live Chinese civilians, and raped Chinese girls and women.<sup>[98]</sup> Cossacks were reported to have killed Chinese civilians almost automatically and Japanese kicked a Chinese soldier to death.<sup>[99]</sup> The Chinese responded to the Alliance's atrocities with similar acts of violence and cruelty, especially towards captured Russians.<sup>[98]</sup> Lieutenant [Smedley Butler](#) saw the remains of two Japanese soldiers nailed to a wall, who had their tongues cut off and their eyes gouged.<sup>[100]</sup> Lieutenant Butler was wounded during the expedition in the leg and chest, later receiving the Brevet Medal in recognition for his actions.

The international force reached Beijing on 14 August. Following the defeat of Beiyang army in the [First Sino-Japanese War](#), the Chinese government had invested heavily in modernizing the imperial army, which was equipped with modern [Mauser](#) repeater rifles and [Krupp](#) artillery. Three modernized divisions consisting of Manchu [Bannermen](#) protected the Beijing Metropolitan region. Two of them were under the command of the anti-Boxer [Prince Qing](#) and Ronglu, while the anti-foreign Prince Duan commanded the ten-thousand-strong [Hushenyang](#), or "Tiger Spirit Division", which had joined the Gansu Braves and Boxers in attacking the foreigners. It was a Hushenyang captain who had assassinated the German diplomat Ketteler. The Tenacious Army under Nie Shicheng received Western style training under German and Russian officers in addition to their modernised weapons and uniforms. They effectively resisted the Alliance at the [Battle of Tientsin](#) before retreating and astounded the Alliance forces with the accuracy of their artillery during the siege of the Tianjin concessions (the artillery shells failed to explode upon impact due to corrupt manufacturing). The Gansu Braves under Dong Fuxiang, which some sources described as "ill disciplined", were armed with modern weapons but were

not trained according to Western drill and wore traditional Chinese uniforms. They led the defeat of the Alliance at Langfang in the Seymour Expedition and were the most ferocious in besieging the Legations in Beijing. Some [Banner](#) forces were given modernised weapons and Western training, becoming the Metropolitan Banner forces, which were decimated in the fighting. Among the Manchu dead was the father of the writer [Lao She](#).<sup>*[citation needed]*</sup>

The British won the race among the international forces to be the first to reach the besieged Legation Quarter. The U.S. was able to play a role due to the presence of U.S. ships and troops stationed in [Manila](#) since the U.S. conquest of the Philippines during the [Spanish–American War](#) and the subsequent [Philippine–American War](#). In the U.S. military, the action in the Boxer Rebellion was known as the [China Relief Expedition](#). [United States Marines](#) scaling the walls of Beijing is an iconic image of the Boxer Rebellion.<sup>[101]</sup>

The British Army reached the legation quarter on the afternoon of 14 August and relieved the Legation Quarter. The Beitang was relieved on 16 August, first by Japanese soldiers and then, officially, by the French.<sup>[103]</sup>

### **Evacuation of the Qing imperial court from Beijing to Xi'an**<sup>[edit]</sup>

In the early hours of 15 August, just as the Foreign Legations were being relieved, Empress Dowager Cixi, dressed in the padded blue cotton of a farm woman, the Guangxu Emperor, and a small retinue climbed into three wooden ox carts and escaped from the city covered with rough blankets. Legend has it that the Empress Dowager then either ordered that the Guangxu Emperor's favourite concubine, [Consort Zhen](#), be thrown down a well in the Forbidden City or tricked her into drowning herself. The journey was made all the more arduous by the lack of preparation, but the Empress Dowager insisted this was not a retreat, rather a "tour of

inspection." After weeks of travel, the party arrived in [Xi'an](#) in [Shaanxi](#) province, beyond protective mountain passes where the foreigners could not reach, deep in Chinese Muslim territory and protected by the Gansu Braves. The foreigners had no orders to pursue the Empress Dowager, so they decided to stay put.<sup>[104]</sup>

Russian invasion of Manchuria[[edit](#)]

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The Russian Empire and the Qing Empire had maintained a long peace, starting with the [Treaty of Nerchinsk](#) in 1689, but Russian forces took advantage of Chinese defeats to impose the [Aigun Treaty](#) of 1858 and the [Treaty of Peking](#) of 1860 which ceded formerly Chinese territory in Manchuria to Russia, much of which is held by Russia to the present day ([Primorye](#)). The Russians aimed for control over the [Amur River](#) for navigation, and the all-weather ports of [Dairen](#) and [Port Arthur](#) in the [Liaodong](#) peninsula. The rise of Japan as an Asian power provoked Russia's anxiety, especially in light of expanding Japanese influence in [Korea](#). Following Japan's victory in the [First Sino-Japanese War](#) of 1895, the [Triple Intervention](#) of Russia, Germany and France forced Japan to return the territory won in Liaodong, leading to a de facto Sino-Russian alliance.

Local Chinese in Manchuria were incensed at these Russian advances and began to harass Russians and Russian institutions, such as the [Chinese Eastern Railway](#). In June 1900, the Chinese bombarded the town of [Blagoveshchensk](#) on the Russian side of the Amur. The Czar's government used the pretext of Boxer activity to move some 200,000 troops into the area to [crush the Boxers](#). The Chinese used arson to destroy a bridge carrying a railway and a

barracks on 27 July. The [Boxers destroyed railways and cut lines for telegraphs](#) and burned the Yantai mines.<sup>[105]</sup>

By 21 September, Russian troops took [Jilin](#) and Liaodong, and by the end of the month completely occupied Manchuria, where their presence was a major factor leading to the [Russo-Japanese War](#).

The Chinese [Honghuzi](#) bandits of Manchuria, who had fought alongside the Boxers in the war, did not stop when the Boxer rebellion was over, and continued guerrilla warfare against the Russian occupation up to the [Russo-Japanese war](#) when the Russians were defeated by Japan.

Massacre of missionaries and Chinese Christians<sup>[edit]</sup>

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Orthodox, Protestant, and Catholic missionaries and their Chinese parishioners were massacred throughout northern China, some by Boxers and others by government troops and authorities. After the declaration of war on Western powers in June 1900, Yuxian, who had been named governor of [Shanxi](#) in March of that year, implemented a brutal anti-foreign and anti-Christian policy. On 9 July, reports circulated that he had executed forty-four foreigners (including women and children) from missionary families whom he had invited to the provincial capital [Taiyuan](#) under the promise to protect them.<sup>[106][107]</sup> Although the purported [eyewitness](#) accounts have recently been questioned as improbable, this event became a notorious symbol of Chinese anger, known as the [Taiyuan Massacre](#).<sup>[108]</sup> By the summer's end, more foreigners and as many as 2,000 Chinese Christians had been put to death in the province. Journalist and historical writer Nat Brandt has called the massacre of Christians in Shanxi "the greatest single tragedy in the history of Christian evangelicalism."<sup>[109]</sup>

During the Boxer Rebellion as a whole, a total of 136 Protestant missionaries and 53 children were killed, and 47 Catholic priests and nuns, 30,000 Chinese Catholics, 2,000 Chinese Protestants, and 200 to 400 of the 700 Russian Orthodox Christians in Beijing were estimated to have been killed. Collectively, the Protestant dead were called the [China Martyrs of 1900](#).<sup>[110]</sup> 222 of Russian Christian [Chinese Martyrs](#) including [St. Metrophanes](#) were [locally canonised](#) as [New Martyrs](#) on 22 April 1902, after [archimandrite](#) Innocent (Fugurovsky), head of the Russian Orthodox Mission in China, solicited the [Most Holy Synod](#) to perpetuate their memory. This was the first local canonisation for more than two centuries.<sup>[111]</sup> The Boxers went on to murder Christians across 26 prefectures.<sup>[112]</sup>

Aftermath[[edit](#)]

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### Occupation, looting, and atrocities

Beijing, Tianjin, and other cities in northern China were occupied for more than one year by the international expeditionary force under the command of German General [Alfred Graf von Waldersee](#). Atrocities by foreign troops were common. French troops ravaged the countryside around Beijing on behalf of Chinese Catholics. The Americans and British paid General [Yuan Shikai](#) and his army (the [Right Division](#)) to help the Eight Nation Alliance suppress the Boxers. Yuan Shikai's forces killed tens of thousands of people in their anti Boxer campaign in [Zhili Province](#) and [Shandong](#) after the Alliance captured Beijing.<sup>[113]</sup> Yuan operated out of [Baoding](#) during the campaign, which ended in 1902.<sup>[114]</sup> [Li Hongzhang](#) commanded Chinese soldiers to kill "Boxers" to assist the Alliance.<sup>[115]</sup>



From contemporary Western observers, German, Russian, and Japanese troops received the greatest criticism for their ruthlessness and willingness to wantonly execute Chinese of all ages and backgrounds, sometimes burning and killing entire village populations.<sup>[116]</sup> The German force arrived too late to take part in the fighting, but undertook punitive expeditions to villages in the countryside. Kaiser Wilhelm II on 27 July during departure ceremonies for the German relief force included an impromptu, but intemperate reference to the [Hun](#) invaders of continental Europe which would later be resurrected by British propaganda to mock Germany during the First World War and Second World War:

Should you encounter the enemy, he will be defeated! No quarter will be given! Prisoners will not be taken! Whoever falls into your hands is forfeited. Just as a thousand years ago the Huns under their King Attila made a name for themselves, one that even today makes them seem mighty in history and legend, may the name German be affirmed by you in such a way in China that no Chinese will ever again dare to look cross-eyed at a German.<sup>[117]</sup>

One newspaper called the aftermath of the siege a "carnival of ancient loot", and others called it "an orgy of looting" by soldiers, civilians and missionaries. These characterisations called to mind the [sacking of the Summer Palace in 1860](#).<sup>[118]</sup> Each nationality accused the others of being the worst looters. An American diplomat, [Herbert G. Squiers](#), filled several railroad cars with loot and artifacts. The British Legation held loot auctions every afternoon and proclaimed, "Looting on the part of British troops was carried out in the most orderly manner." However, one British officer noted, "It is one of the unwritten [laws of war](#) that a city which does not surrender at the last and is taken by storm is looted." For the rest of 1900–1901, the British held loot auctions everyday except Sunday in front of the main-gate to the British Legation. Many foreigners, including [Sir Claude Maxwell MacDonald](#) and Lady Ethel MacDonald and [George](#)

[Ernest Morrison](#) of [The Times](#), were active bidders among the crowd. Many of these looted items ended up in Europe.<sup>[119]</sup> The Catholic [Beitang](#) or North Cathedral was a "salesroom for stolen property."<sup>[120]</sup> The American commander General [Adna Chaffee](#) banned looting by American soldiers, but the ban was ineffectual.<sup>[121]</sup>

Some but by no means all Western missionaries took an active part in calling for retribution. To provide restitution to missionaries and Chinese Christian families whose property had been destroyed, [William Ament](#), a missionary of [American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions](#), guided American troops through villages to punish those he suspected of being Boxers and confiscate their property. When [Mark Twain](#) read of this expedition, he wrote a scathing essay, "[To the Person Sitting in Darkness](#)", that attacked the "Reverend bandits of the American Board," especially targeting Ament, one of the most respected missionaries in China.<sup>[122]</sup> The controversy was front-page news during much of 1901. Ament's counterpart on the distaff side was doughty British missionary Georgina Smith who presided over a neighborhood in Beijing as judge and jury.<sup>[123]</sup>

While one historical account reported that Japanese troops were astonished by other Alliance troops raping civilians,<sup>[124]</sup> others noted that Japanese troops were 'looting and burning without mercy', and that Chinese 'women and girls by hundreds have committed suicide to escape a worse fate at the hands of Russian and Japanese brutes.'<sup>[125]</sup> Roger Keyes, who commanded the British destroyer [Fame](#) and accompanied the Gaselee Expedition, noted that the Japanese had brought their own "regimental wives" (prostitutes) to the front to keep their soldiers from raping Chinese civilians.<sup>[126]</sup>

[The Daily Telegraph](#) journalist E. J. Dillon stated that he witnessed the mutilated corpses of Chinese women who were raped and killed by the Alliance troops. The French commander

dismissed the rapes, attributing them to "gallantry of the French soldier." A foreign journalist, George Lynch, said "there are things that I must not write, and that may not be printed in England, which would seem to show that this Western civilization of ours is merely a veneer over savagery."<sup>[119]</sup>

Many [Bannermen](#) supported the Boxers and shared their anti-foreign sentiment.<sup>[127]</sup> The German Minister [Clemens von Ketteler](#) was assassinated by a Manchu.<sup>[128]</sup> Bannermen had been devastated in the [First Sino-Japanese War](#) in 1895 and Banner armies were destroyed while resisting the invasion. In the words of historian [Pamela Crossley](#), their living conditions went "from desperate poverty to true misery."<sup>[129]</sup> When thousands of Manchus fled south from [Aigun](#) during the fighting in 1900, their cattle and horses were stolen by Russian Cossacks who then burned their villages and homes to ashes.<sup>[130]</sup> The clan system of the Manchus in Aigun was obliterated by the despoliation of the area at the hands of the Russians.<sup>[131]</sup>

Under the lead of some highly ranked officials including [Li Hongzhang](#), [Yuan Shikai](#) and [Zhang Zhidong](#), several provinces in the southeast formed the [Southeastern Mutual Protection](#) during this period to avoid the further expansion of the chaos. These provinces claimed to be neutral and refused to fight either the Boxers or the [Eight Nation Alliance](#).

### **Reparations**[\[edit\]](#)

After the capture of Peking by the foreign armies, some of Empress Dowager Cixi's advisers advocated that the war be carried on, arguing that China could have defeated the foreigners as it was disloyal and traitorous people within China who allowed Beijing and Tianjin to be captured by the Allies, and that the interior of China was impenetrable. They also recommended that Dong Fuxiang continue fighting. The Empress Dowager Cixi was practical, however, and

decided that the terms were generous enough for her to acquiesce when she was assured of her continued reign after the war and that China would not be forced to cede any territory.<sup>[132]</sup>

On 7 September 1901, the Qing imperial court agreed to sign the "[Boxer Protocol](#)" also known as Peace Agreement between the Eight-Nation Alliance and China. The protocol ordered the execution of 10 high-ranking officials linked to the outbreak and other officials who were found guilty for the slaughter of foreigners in China. [Alfons Mumm](#) (Freiherr von Schwarzenstein), [Ernest Satow](#) and [Komura Jutarō](#) signed on behalf of Germany, Britain and Japan, respectively.

China was fined [war reparations](#) of 450,000,000 [taels](#) of fine silver ( $\approx 540,000,000$  troy ounces (17,000 t) @ 1.2 ozt/tael) for the loss that it caused. The reparation was to be paid by 1940, within 39 years, and would be 982,238,150 taels with interest (4 percent per year) included. To help meet the payment it was agreed to increase the existing tariff from an actual 3.18 to 5 percent, and to tax hitherto duty-free merchandise. The sum of reparation was estimated by the Chinese population (roughly 450 million in 1900), to let each Chinese pay one tael. Chinese custom income and salt tax were enlisted as guarantee of the reparation. China paid 668,661,220 taels of silver from 1901 to 1939, equivalent in 2010 to  $\approx$ US\$61 billion on a purchasing power parity basis.<sup>[133][134]</sup>

A large portion of the reparations paid to the United States was diverted to pay for the education of Chinese students in U.S. universities under the [Boxer Indemnity Scholarship Program](#). To prepare the students chosen for this program an institute was established to teach the English language and to serve as a preparatory school. When the first of these students returned to China

they undertook the teaching of subsequent students; from this institute was born [Tsinghua University](#). Some of the reparation due to Britain was later earmarked for a similar program.

The [China Inland Mission](#) lost more members than any other missionary agency:<sup>[135]</sup> 58 adults and 21 children were killed. However, in 1901, when the allied nations were demanding compensation from the Chinese government, [Hudson Taylor](#) refused to accept payment for loss of property or life in order to demonstrate the meekness and gentleness of Christ to the Chinese.<sup>[136]</sup>

The Belgian Catholic vicar apostolic of Ordos, Msgr. Alfons Bermyn wanted foreign troops garrisoned in [Inner Mongolia](#), but the Governor refused. Bermyn petitioned the Manchu [Enming](#) to send troops to [Hetao](#) where Prince Duan's Mongol troops and General [Dong Fuxiang](#)'s Muslim troops allegedly threatened Catholics. It turned out that Bermyn had created the incident as a hoax.<sup>[137][138]</sup>

The Qing government did not capitulate to all the foreign demands. The Manchu governor Yuxian, was executed, but the imperial court refused to execute the Han Chinese General Dong Fuxiang, although he had also encouraged the killing of foreigners during the rebellion.<sup>[139]</sup> Empress Dowager Cixi intervened when the Alliance demanded him executed and Dong was only cashiered and sent back home.<sup>[140]</sup> Instead, Dong lived a life of luxury and power in "exile" in his home province of Gansu.<sup>[141]</sup> Upon Dong's death in 1908, all honors which had been stripped from him were restored and he was given a full military burial.<sup>[141]</sup>

Long-term consequences[[edit](#)]

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The European great powers finally ceased their ambitions of colonizing China since they had learned from the Boxer rebellions that the best way to deal with China was through the ruling dynasty, rather than directly with the Chinese people (a sentiment embodied in the adage: "The people are afraid of officials, the officials are afraid of foreigners, and the foreigners are afraid of the people") (老百姓怕官, 官怕洋鬼子, 洋鬼子怕老百姓), and they even briefly assisted the Qing in their war against the Japanese to prevent Japanese domination in the region.

Concurrently, the period marks the ceding of European great power interference in Chinese affairs, with the Japanese replacing the Europeans as the dominant power for their lopsided involvement in the war against the Boxers as well as their victory in the [First Sino-Japanese War](#). With the toppling of the Qing that followed and the rise of the Nationalist [Kuomintang](#), European sway in China was reduced to symbolic status. After taking Manchuria in 1905, Japan came to dominate Asian affairs militarily and culturally with many of the Chinese scholars also educated in Japan, the most prominent example being [Sun Yat-Sen](#), who would later found the Nationalist [Kuomintang](#) in China.

In October 1900, Russia occupied the provinces of Manchuria,<sup>[142]</sup> a move that threatened [Anglo-American hopes of maintaining the country's openness](#) to commerce under the [Open Door Policy](#).

Japan's clash with Russia over Liaodong and other provinces in eastern Manchuria, because of the Russian refusal to honour the terms of the Boxer protocol that called for their withdrawal, led to the [Russo-Japanese War](#) when two years of negotiations broke down in February 1904. The

Russian Lease of the Liaodong (1898) was confirmed. Russia was ultimately defeated by an increasingly-confident Japan.

Besides the compensation, [Empress Dowager Cixi](#) reluctantly started some reforms, despite her previous views. Known as the [New Policies](#), which started in 1901, the [imperial examination](#) system for government service was eliminated, and the system of [education through Chinese classics](#) was replaced with a [European liberal system](#) that led to a university degree. Along with the formation of new military and police organisations, the reforms also simplified central bureaucracy and made a start at revamping taxation policies.<sup>[143]</sup> After the deaths of Cixi and the [Guangxu Emperor](#) in 1908, the [prince regent Zhaifeng \(Prince Chun\)](#), the Guangxu Emperor's brother, launched further reforms.

The effect on China was a weakening of the dynasty and its national defense capabilities. The government structure was temporarily sustained by the Europeans. Behind the international conflict, internal ideological differences between northern Chinese anti-foreign royalists and southern Chinese anti-Qing revolutionists were further deepened. The scenario in the last years of the Qing dynasty gradually escalated into a chaotic [warlord era](#) in which the most powerful northern warlords were hostile towards the southern revolutionaries, who overthrew the Qing monarchy in 1911. The rivalry was not fully resolved until the northern warlords were defeated by the Kuomintang's 1926–28 [Northern Expedition](#). Prior to the final defeat of the Boxer Rebellion, all anti-Qing movements in the previous century, such as the [Taiping Rebellion](#), had been successfully suppressed by the Qing.

The historian [Walter LaFeber](#) has argued that President [William McKinley](#)'s decision to send 5,000 American troops to quell the rebellion marks "the origins of modern presidential war powers":<sup>[144]</sup>

McKinley took a historic step in creating a new, 20th century presidential power. He dispatched the five thousand troops without consulting Congress, let alone obtaining a declaration of war, to fight the Boxers who were supported by the Chinese government.... Presidents had previously used such force against non-governmental groups that threatened U.S. interests and citizens. It was now used, however, against recognised governments, and without obeying the [Constitution's provisions about who was to declare war](#).

[Arthur M. Schlesinger, Jr.](#), concurred and wrote,<sup>[145]</sup>

The intervention in China marked the start of a crucial shift in the presidential employment of armed force overseas. In the 19th century, military force committed without congressional authorization had been typically used against nongovernmental organizations. Now it was beginning to be used against sovereign states, and, in the case of [Theodore Roosevelt](#), with less consultation than ever.

In the [Second Sino-Japanese War](#), when the Japanese asked the Muslim general [Ma Hongkui](#) to defect and become head of a Muslim puppet state, he responded that his relatives had been killed during the Battle of Peking, including his uncle [Ma Fulu](#). Since Japanese troops made up most of the Alliance forces, there would be no co-operation with the Japanese.<sup>[146]</sup>

Controversies and changing views of the Boxers[[edit](#)]

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From the beginning, views differed as to whether the Boxers were better seen as anti-imperialist, patriotic and proto-nationalist, or as "uncivilized" irrational and futile opponents of inevitable change. The historian Joseph Esherick comments that "confusion about the Boxer Uprising is not simply a matter of popular misconceptions" since "there is no major incident in China's modern history on which the range of professional interpretation is as great".<sup>[147]</sup>



Chinese liberals such as [Hu Shih](#) often condemned the Boxers for their irrationality and barbarity.<sup>[148]</sup> Dr. [Sun Yat-sen](#), the founding father of the [Republic of China](#) and of the [Nationalists](#), at first believed that the Boxer Movement had been stirred up by the Qing government's rumors, which "caused confusion among the populace" and delivered "scathing criticism" of the Boxers' "anti-foreignism and obscurantism". Sun praised the Boxers for their "spirit of resistance" but called them "bandits". Students shared an ambivalent attitude to the Boxers and stated that while the uprising originated from the "ignorant and stubborn people of the interior areas", their beliefs were "brave and righteous" and could "be transformed into a moving force for independence."<sup>[149]</sup> After the fall of the Qing dynasty in 1911, nationalist Chinese became more sympathetic to the Boxers. In 1918, Sun praised their fighting spirit and said that the Boxers were courageous and fearless in fighting to the death against the Alliance armies, specifically the [Battle of Yangcun](#).<sup>[150]</sup> The leader of the [New Culture Movement](#), [Chen Duxiu](#), forgave the "barbarism of the Boxer... given the crime foreigners committed in China" and contended that it was those "subservient to the foreigners" that truly "deserved our resentment."<sup>[151]</sup>

In other countries, views of the Boxers were complex and contentious. [Mark Twain](#) said that "the Boxer is a patriot. He loves his country better than he does the countries of other people. I wish him success."<sup>[152]</sup> The Russian writer [Leo Tolstoy](#) also praised the Boxers and accused Nicholas II of Russia and Wilhelm II of Germany of being chiefly responsible for the lootings, rapes, murders and the "Christian brutality" of the Russian and Western troops.<sup>[153]</sup> The Russian revolutionary [Vladimir Lenin](#) mocked the Russian government's claim that it was protecting [Christian civilization](#): "Poor Imperial Government! So Christianly unselfish, and yet

so unjustly maligned! Several years ago it unselfishly seized Port Arthur, and now it is unselfishly seizing Manchuria; it has unselfishly flooded the frontier provinces of China with hordes of contractors, engineers, and officers, who, by their conduct, have roused to indignation even the Chinese, known for their docility."<sup>[154]</sup> The Indian Bengali [Rabindranath Tagore](#) attacked the European colonialists.<sup>[155]</sup> A number of Indian soldiers in the British Indian Army agreed that the Boxers were right, and the British stole from the Temple of Heaven a bell, which was given back to China by the Indian military in 1994.<sup>[156]</sup>

Even some American churchmen spoke out in support of the Boxers. The evangelist Rev. Dr. [George F. Pentecost](#) said that the Boxer uprising was a patriotic movement to expel the 'foreign devils' – just that – the foreign devils". Suppose, he said, the great nations of Europe were to "put their fleets together, came over here, seize Portland, move on down to Boston, then New York, then Philadelphia, and so on down the Atlantic Coast and around the Gulf of Galveston? Suppose they took possession of these port cities, drove our people into the hinterland, built great warehouses and factories, brought in a body of dissolute agents, and calmly notified our people that henceforward they would manage the commerce of the country? Would we not have a Boxer movement to drive those foreign European Christian devils out of our country?"<sup>[157]</sup>

The Russian newspaper *Amurskii Krai* criticized the killing of innocent civilians and charged that "restraint" "civilization" and "culture," instead of "racial hatred" and "destruction," would have been more becoming of a "civilized Christian nation." The paper asked, "What shall we tell civilized people? We shall have to say to them: 'Do not consider us as brothers anymore. We are

mean and terrible people; we have killed those who hid at our place, who sought our protection."<sup>[158]</sup>

The events also left a longer impact. The historian Robert Bickers found that for the British in China, the Boxer rising served as the "equivalent of the Indian 'mutiny'" and came to represent the [Yellow Peril](#). Later events, he adds, such as the [Chinese Nationalist Revolution](#) in the 1920s and even the activities of the [Red Guards](#) of the 1960s were perceived as being in the shadow of the Boxers.<sup>[159]</sup>

In [Taiwan](#) and [Hong Kong](#), history textbooks often present the Boxer as irrational, but in the [People's Republic of China](#), government textbooks described the Boxer movement as an anti-imperialist, patriotic peasant movement that failed by the lack of leadership from the modern working class, and they described the international army as an invading force. In recent decades, however, large-scale projects of village interviews and explorations of archival sources have led historians in China to take a more nuanced view. Some non-Chinese scholars, such as Joseph Esherick, have seen the movement as anti-imperialist, but others hold that the concept "nationalistic" is anachronistic because the Chinese nation had not been formed, and the Boxers were more concerned with regional issues. Paul Cohen's recent study includes a survey of "the Boxers as myth," which shows how their memory was used in changing ways in 20th-century China from the [New Culture Movement](#) to the [Cultural Revolution](#).<sup>[160]</sup>

In recent years, the Boxer question has been debated in the People's Republic of China. In 1998, the critical scholar Wang Yi argued that the Boxers had features in common with the extremism of the [Cultural Revolution](#). Both events had the external goal of "liquidating all harmful pests" and the domestic goal of "eliminating bad elements of all descriptions" and that the relation was rooted in "cultural obscurantism." Wang explained to his readers the changes in attitudes towards

the Boxers from the condemnation of the May Fourth Movement to the approval expressed by [Mao Zedong](#) during the Cultural Revolution.<sup>[161]</sup> In 2006, [Yuan Weishi](#), a professor of philosophy at [Zhongshan University](#) in Guangzhou, wrote that the Boxers by their "criminal actions brought unspeakable suffering to the nation and its people! These are all facts that everybody knows, and it is a national shame that the Chinese people cannot forget."<sup>[162]</sup> Yuan charged that history textbooks had been lacking in neutrality by presenting the Boxer Uprising as a "magnificent feat of patriotism" and not the view that most Boxer rebels were violent.<sup>[163]</sup> In response, some labeled Yuan Weishi a "traitor" ([Hanjian](#)).<sup>[164]</sup>

Terminology[[edit](#)]

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The first reports coming from China in 1898 referred to the village activists as "Yihequan", (Wade–Giles: I Ho Ch'uan). The first known use of the term "Boxer" was September 1899 in a letter from missionary Grace Newton in Shandong. It appears from context that "Boxer" was a known term by that time, possibly coined by the Shandong missionaries [Arthur H. Smith](#) and Henry Porter.<sup>[165]</sup> Smith says in his book of 1902 that the name

I Ho Ch'uan... literally denotes the 'Fists' (Ch'uan) of Righteousness (or Public) (I) Harmony (Ho), in apparent allusion to the strength of united force which was to be put forth. As the Chinese phrase 'fists and feet' signifies boxing and wrestling, there appeared to be no more suitable term for the adherents of the sect than 'Boxers,' a designation first used by one or two missionary correspondents of foreign journals in China, and later universally accepted on account of the difficulty of coining a better one.<sup>[166]</sup>

On 6 June 1900 the *Times* of London used the term "rebellion" in quotation marks, presumably to indicate their view that the rising was in fact instigated by Empress Dowager Cixi.<sup>[167]</sup> The

historian Lanxin Xiang refers to the "so called 'Boxer Rebellion,'" and explains that "while peasant rebellion was nothing new in Chinese history, a war against the world's most powerful states was."<sup>[168]</sup> The name "Boxer Rebellion", concludes Joseph Esherick, another recent historian, is truly a "misnomer", for the Boxers "never rebelled against the Manchu rulers of China and their Qing dynasty" and the "most common Boxer slogan, throughout the history of the movement, was "support the Qing, destroy the Foreign." He adds that only after the movement was suppressed by the Allied Intervention did both the foreign powers and influential Chinese officials realize that the Qing would have to remain as government of China in order to maintain order and collect taxes to pay the indemnity. Therefore, in order to save face for the Empress Dowager and the imperial court, the argument was made that the Boxers were rebels and that support from the imperial court came only from a few Manchu princes. Esherick concludes that the origin of the term "rebellion" was "purely political and opportunistic", but it has shown a remarkable staying power, particularly in popular accounts.<sup>[169]</sup>

Other recent Western works refer to the "Boxer Movement", "Boxer War" or Yihetuan Movement, while Chinese studies use 义和团运动 (Yihetuan yundong), that is, "Yihetuan Movement." In his discussion of the general and legal implications of the terminology involved, the German scholar Thoralf Klein notes that all of the terms, including the Chinese ones, are "posthumous interpretations of the conflict." He argues that each term, whether it be "uprising", "rebellion" or "movement" implies a different definition of the conflict. Even the term "Boxer War", which has become widely used by recent scholars in the West, raises questions, as war was never declared, and Allied troops behaved as a punitive expedition in colonial style, not in a declared war with legal constraints. The Allies took advantage of the fact that China had not signed "The Laws and Customs of War on Land", a key document at the 1899 [Hague Peace](#)

[Conference](#). They argued that China had violated its provisions but themselves ignored them. <sup>[170]</sup>

## Russo-Japanese War

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The [Russian Empire](#) and the [Empire of Japan](#) fought the **Russo-Japanese War** ([Russian](#): Русско-япóнская война́, [romanized](#): *Rússko-yaпónskaya voyná*; [Japanese](#): 日露戦争, [romanized](#): *Nichiro sensō*, "Japanese-Russian War") during 1904 and 1905 over rival [imperial](#) ambitions in [Manchuria](#) and [Korea](#).<sup>[4]</sup> The major theatres of military operations were the [Liaodong Peninsula](#) and [Mukden](#) in Southern Manchuria, and the seas around Korea, Japan and the [Yellow Sea](#).

Russia sought a [warm-water port](#) on the [Pacific Ocean](#) for its navy and for maritime trade. [Vladivostok](#) remained ice-free and operational only during the summer, whereas [Port Arthur](#), a naval base in Liaodong Province leased to Russia by the [Qing dynasty](#) of China from 1897, was operational all year round. Since the end of the [First Sino-Japanese War](#) in 1895, Japan feared Russian encroachment on its plans to create a [sphere of influence](#) in Korea and Manchuria. Russia had demonstrated an expansionist policy east of the Urals in [Siberia](#) and the [Far East](#) from the reign of [Ivan the Terrible](#) in the 16th century.<sup>[5]</sup>

Seeing Russia as a rival, Japan offered to recognize Russian dominance in [Manchuria](#) in exchange for recognition of Korea as being within the Japanese sphere of influence. Russia refused and demanded the establishment of a neutral buffer zone between Russia and Japan in Korea north of the [39th parallel](#). The Japanese government perceived a Russian threat to their plans for expansion into [Asia](#) and chose to go to war. After negotiations broke down in 1904,

the [Japanese Navy](#) opened hostilities on 9 February [[O.S. 27 January](#)] 1904 by attacking the [Russian Eastern Fleet](#) at Port Arthur, China, in a surprise attack.

Russia suffered a number of defeats, but [Emperor Nicholas II](#), convinced that Russia would win, chose to remain engaged in the war; at first, to await the outcomes of certain naval battles, and later to preserve the dignity of Russia by averting a "humiliating peace". Russia ignored Japan's willingness early on to agree to an armistice and rejected the idea of bringing the dispute to the [Arbitration Court at The Hague](#). The war concluded with the [Treaty of Portsmouth](#) (5 September [[O.S. 23 August](#)] 1905), mediated by US President [Theodore Roosevelt](#). The complete victory of the Japanese military surprised international observers and transformed the balance of power in [East Asia](#), resulting in Japan's emergence as a [great power](#). In contrast, the losses in manpower and prestige for the Russian Empire contributed to growing unrest which culminated in the [1905 Russian Revolution](#) (January 1905 onwards).



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## **Modernization of Japan**[\[edit\]](#)

After the [Meiji Restoration](#) in 1868, the Meiji government endeavoured to assimilate [Western](#) ideas, technological advances and ways of warfare. By the late 19th century, Japan had transformed itself into a modernized industrial state. The Japanese wanted to be recognized as equal with the Western powers. The Meiji Restoration had been intended to make Japan a modernized state, not a Westernized one, and Japan was an imperialist power, looking towards overseas expansionism.<sup>[7]</sup>

In the years 1869–73, the [Seikanron](#) ("Conquer Korea Argument") had bitterly divided the Japanese elite between one faction that wanted to conquer Korea immediately vs. another that wanted to wait until Japan was more modernized before embarking on a war to conquer Korea; significantly no one in the Japanese elite ever accepted the idea that the Koreans had the right to be independent, with only the question of timing dividing the two factions.<sup>[8]</sup> In much the same way that Europeans used the "backwardness" of African and Asian nations as a reason for why they had to conquer them, for the Japanese elite the "backwardness" of China and Korea was proof of the inferiority of those nations, thus giving the Japanese the "right" to conquer them.<sup>[9]</sup>

[Inouye Kaoru](#), the Foreign Minister, gave a speech in 1887 saying "What we must do is to transform our empire and our people, make the empire like the countries of Europe and our people like the peoples of Europe," going on to say that the Chinese and Koreans had essentially forfeited their right to be independent by not modernizing.<sup>[9]</sup> Much of the pressure for an aggressive foreign policy in Japan came from below, with the advocates of "[people's rights movement](#)" calling for an elected parliament also favouring an ultra-nationalist line that took it for granted the Japanese had the "right" to annex Korea, as the "people's rights" movement was led by those who favoured invading Korea in the years 1869–73.<sup>[9]</sup>

As part of the modernization process in Japan, [Social Darwinist](#) ideas about the "[survival of the fittest](#)" were common in Japan from the 1880s onward and many ordinary Japanese resented the heavy taxes imposed by the government to modernize Japan, demanding something tangible like an overseas [colony](#) as a reward for their sacrifices.<sup>[10]</sup>

Furthermore, the educational system of Meiji Japan was meant to train the schoolboys to be soldiers when they grew up, and as such, Japanese schools indoctrinated their students into [Bushidō](#) ("way of the warrior"), the fierce code of the samurai.<sup>[9]</sup> Having indoctrinated the



younger generations into *Bushidō*, the Meiji elite found themselves faced with a people who clamored for war, and regarded diplomacy as a weakness.<sup>[9]</sup>

### **Pressure from the people**<sup>[edit]</sup>

The British Japanologist Richard Storry wrote that the biggest misconception about Japan in the West was that the Japanese people were the "docile" instruments of the elite, when in fact much of the pressure for Japan's wars from 1894 to 1941 came from the ordinary people, who demanded a "tough" foreign policy, and tended to engage in riots and assassination when foreign policy was perceived to be pusillanimous.<sup>[9]</sup>

Though the Meiji [oligarchy](#) refused to allow [democracy](#), they did seek to appropriate some of the demands of the "people's rights" movement by allowing an elected Diet in 1890 (with limited powers and an equally limited franchise) and by pursuing an aggressive foreign policy towards Korea.<sup>[9]</sup>

In 1884, Japan had encouraged a coup in Korea by a pro-Japanese reformist faction, which led to the conservative government calling upon China for help, leading to a clash between Chinese and Japanese soldiers in Seoul.<sup>[11]</sup> At the time, Tokyo did not feel ready to risk a war with China, and the crisis was ended by the [Convention of Tientsin](#), which left Korea more strongly in the Chinese sphere of influence, though it did give the Japanese the right to intervene in Korea.<sup>[11]</sup> All through the 1880s and early 1890s, the government in Tokyo was regularly criticized for not being aggressive enough in Korea, leading Japanese historian [Masao Maruyama](#) to write:

Just as Japan was subject to pressure from the Great Powers, so she would apply pressure to still weaker countries—a clear case of the transfer psychology. In this regard it is significant that ever

since the Meiji period demands for a tough foreign policy have come from the common people, that is, from those who are at the receiving end of oppression at home.<sup>[11]</sup>

### **Russian Eastern expansion**[\[edit\]](#)

Tsarist Russia, as a major imperial power, had ambitions in the East. By the 1890s it had extended its realm across [Central Asia](#) to [Afghanistan](#), absorbing local states in the process. The [Russian Empire](#) stretched from Poland in the west to the [Kamchatka Peninsula](#) in the east.<sup>[12]</sup> With its construction of the [Trans-Siberian Railway](#) to the port of [Vladivostok](#), Russia hoped to further consolidate its influence and presence in the region. In the [Tsushima incident](#) of 1861 Russia had directly assaulted Japanese territory.

### **Sino-Japanese War (1894–95)**[\[edit\]](#)

Between the Meiji Restoration and its participation in [World War I](#), the Empire of Japan fought in two significant wars. The first war Japan fought was the [First Sino-Japanese War](#), fought in 1894 and 1895. The war revolved around the issue of control and influence over Korea under the rule of the [Joseon](#) dynasty. From the 1880s onward, there had been vigorous competition for influence in Korea between China and Japan.<sup>[13]</sup> The Korean court was prone to factionalism, and was badly divided by a reformist faction that was pro-Japanese and a more conservative faction that was pro-Chinese.<sup>[13]</sup> In 1884, a pro-Japanese coup attempt was put down by Chinese troops, and a "residency" under General [Yuan Shikai](#) was established in Seoul.<sup>[13]</sup> A peasant rebellion led by the [Tonghak](#) religious movement led to a request by the Korean government for the [Qing dynasty](#) to send in troops to stabilize the country.<sup>[13]</sup> The Empire of Japan responded by sending their own force to Korea to crush the Tonghak and installed a puppet government in [Seoul](#). China objected and war ensued. Hostilities proved brief, with Japanese ground troops

routing Chinese forces on the [Liaodong Peninsula](#) and nearly destroying the Chinese [Beiyang Fleet](#) in the [Battle of the Yalu River](#). Japan and China signed the [Treaty of Shimonoseki](#), which ceded the Liaodong Peninsula and the island of Taiwan to Japan. After the peace treaty, Russia, Germany, and France [forced Japan to withdraw from the Liaodong Peninsula](#). The leaders of Japan did not feel that they possessed the strength to resist the combined might of Russia, Germany and France, and so gave in to the ultimatum. At the same time, the Japanese did not abandon their attempts to force Korea into the Japanese sphere of influence. On 8 October 1895, [Queen Min](#) of Korea, the leader of the anti-Japanese and pro-Chinese faction at the Korean court was murdered by Japanese agents within the halls of the [Gyeongbokgung](#) palace, an act that backfired badly as it turned Korean public opinion against Japan.<sup>[14]</sup> In early 1896, King [Gojong of Korea fled to the Russian legation](#) in Seoul, believing that his life was in danger from Japanese agents, and Russian influence in Korea started to predominate.<sup>[14]</sup> In the aftermath of the flight of the king, a popular uprising overthrew the pro-Japanese government and several cabinet ministers were lynched on the streets.<sup>[14]</sup>

In 1897, Russia occupied the Liaodong Peninsula, built the [Port Arthur](#) fortress, and based the [Russian Pacific Fleet](#) in the port. Russia's acquisition of Port Arthur was primarily an anti-British move to counter the British occupation of [Wei-hai-Wei](#), but in Japan, this was perceived as an anti-Japanese move.<sup>[15]</sup> Germany occupied [Jiaozhou Bay](#), built the [Tsingtao fortress](#), and based the [German East Asia Squadron](#) in this port. Between 1897 and 1903, the Russians built the [Chinese Eastern Railway](#) (CER) in Manchuria.<sup>[16]</sup> The Chinese Eastern Railroad was owned jointly by the Russian and Chinese governments, but the company's management was entirely Russian, the line was built to the Russian gauge and Russian troops were stationed in Manchuria to protect rail traffic on the CER from bandit attacks.<sup>[16]</sup> The headquarters of the CER company

was located in the new Russian-built city of [Harbin](#), the "Moscow of the Orient". From 1897 onwards, Manchuria—while still nominally part of the "Great Qing Empire"—started to resemble more and more a Russian province.<sup>[16]</sup>

### **Russian encroachment**[\[edit\]](#)

In December 1897, a [Russian](#) fleet appeared off Port Arthur. After three months, in 1898, China and Russia negotiated a convention by which China leased (to Russia) Port Arthur, [Talienwan](#) and the surrounding waters. The two parties further agreed that the convention could be extended by mutual agreement. The Russians clearly expected such an extension, for they lost no time in occupying the territory and in fortifying Port Arthur, their sole warm-water port on the Pacific coast and of great strategic value. A year later, to consolidate their position, the Russians began to build a new railway from [Harbin](#) through [Mukden](#) to Port Arthur, the South Manchurian Railroad.<sup>[16]</sup> The development of the railway became a contributory factor to the [Boxer Rebellion](#), when [Boxer forces burned the railway stations](#).<sup>[17]</sup>

The Russians also began to make inroads into Korea. By 1898 they had acquired mining and forestry concessions near the Yalu and Tumen rivers,<sup>[18]</sup> causing the Japanese much anxiety. Japan decided to attack before the Russians completed the Trans-Siberian Railway.

### **Boxer Rebellion**[\[edit\]](#)

*Main article: [Boxer Rebellion](#)*

The Russians and the Japanese both contributed troops to the [eight-member international force](#) sent in 1900 to quell the Boxer Rebellion and to relieve the international legations under siege in the Chinese capital, Beijing. Russia had already sent 177,000 soldiers to [Manchuria](#), nominally to protect its railways under construction. The troops of the Qing Empire and the

participants of the Boxer Rebellion could do nothing against such a massive army and [were ejected from Manchuria](#). After the Boxer Rebellion, 100,000 Russian soldiers were stationed in Manchuria.<sup>[19]</sup> The Russian troops settled in<sup>[20]</sup> and despite assurances they would vacate the area after the crisis, by 1903 the Russians had not established a timetable for withdrawal<sup>[21]</sup> and had actually strengthened their position in Manchuria.

### **Pre-war negotiations**[\[edit\]](#)

The Japanese statesman [Itō Hirobumi](#) started to negotiate with the Russians. He regarded Japan as too weak to evict the Russians militarily, so he proposed giving Russia control over Manchuria in exchange for Japanese control of northern Korea. Of the five *Genrō* (elder statesmen) who made up the Meiji oligarchy, Itō Hirobumi and Count [Inoue Kaoru](#) opposed the idea of war against Russia on financial grounds, while [Katsura Tarō](#), [Komura Jutarō](#) and Field Marshal [Yamagata Aritomo](#) favored war.<sup>[22]</sup> Meanwhile, Japan and [Britain](#) had signed the [Anglo-Japanese Alliance](#) in 1902 - the British seeking to restrict naval competition by keeping the Russian Pacific seaports of Vladivostok and Port Arthur from their full use. Japan's alliance with the British meant, in part, that if any nation allied itself with Russia during any war against Japan, then Britain would enter the war on Japan's side. Russia could no longer count on receiving help from either Germany or France without the danger of British involvement in the war. With such an alliance, Japan felt free to commence hostilities, if necessary.

The 1890s and 1900s marked the height of the "[Yellow Peril](#)" propaganda by the German government, and the German Emperor [Wilhelm II](#) (r. 1888–1918) often wrote letters to his cousin Emperor Nicholas II of Russia, praising him as the "saviour of the white race" and urging Russia forward in Asia.<sup>[23][24]</sup> From November 1894 onward, Wilhelm had been writing letters praising Nicholas as Europe's defender from the "Yellow Peril", assuring the Tsar that God

Himself had "chosen" Russia to defend Europe from the alleged Asian threat.<sup>[25]</sup> On 1 November 1902 Wilhelm wrote to Nicholas that "certain symptoms in the East seem to show that Japan is becoming a rather restless customer" and "it is evident to every unbiased mind that Korea must and will be Russian".<sup>[23]</sup> Wilhelm ended his letter with the warning that Japan and China would soon unite against Europe, writing:

"Twenty to thirty million Chinese, supported by a half dozen Japanese divisions, led by competent, intrepid Japanese officers, full of hatred for Christianity—that is a vision of the future that cannot be contemplated without concern, and it is not impossible. On the contrary, it is the realisation of the yellow peril, which I described a few years ago and I was ridiculed by the majority of people for my graphic depiction of it ... Your devoted friend and cousin, Willy, Admiral of the Atlantic".<sup>[26]</sup>

Wilhelm aggressively encouraged Russia's ambitions in Asia because [France, Russia's ally](#) since 1894, was less than supportive of Russian expansionism in Asia, and it was believed in Berlin that German support of Russia might break up the Franco-Russian alliance and lead to a new German–Russian alliance.<sup>[23]</sup> The French, who had been Russia's closest allies since 1894, made it clear that they disapproved of Nicholas's forward policy in Asia; the French Premier [Maurice Rouvier](#) (in office: May to December 1887) publicly declaring<sup>[when?]</sup> that the Franco-Russian alliance applied only to Europe, not to Asia,<sup>[27]</sup> and that France would remain neutral if Japan attacked Russia.<sup>[28]</sup><sup>[need quotation to verify]</sup> The American president [Theodore Roosevelt](#) (in office 1901–1909), who was attempting to mediate the Russian–Japanese dispute, complained that Wilhelm's "Yellow Peril" propaganda, which strongly implied that Germany might go to war against Japan in support of Russia, encouraged Russian intransigence.<sup>[29]</sup> On 24 July 1905, in a letter to the British diplomat [Cecil Spring Rice](#), Roosevelt wrote that Wilhelm bore partial

responsibility for the war as "he has done all he could to bring it about", charging that Wilhelm's constant warnings about the "Yellow Peril" had made the Russians uninterested in compromise as Nicholas believed that Germany would intervene if Japan attacked.<sup>[30]</sup>

The implicit promise of German support suggested by Wilhelm's "Yellow Peril" speeches and letters to Nicholas led many decision-makers in [Saint Petersburg](#) to believe that Russia's military weaknesses in the Far East (like the uncompleted Trans-Siberian railroad line) did not matter—they assumed that the *Reich* would come to Russia's assistance if war should come. In fact, neither Wilhelm nor his Chancellor Prince [Bernhard von Bülow](#) (in office: 1900–1909) had much interest in East Asia, and Wilhelm's letters to Nicholas praising him as Europe's saviour against the "Yellow Peril" were really meant to change the [balance of power in Europe](#), as Wilhelm believed that any Russian entanglement with Japan would break up the Franco-Russian alliance and lead to Nicholas signing an alliance with Germany.<sup>[24]</sup> This was especially the case as Germany had embarked upon the "[Tirpitz Plan](#)" and a policy of *Weltpolitik* (from 1897) meant to challenge Britain's position as the world's leading power. Since Britain was allied to Japan, then if Germany could manipulate Russia and Japan into going to war with each other, this in turn would allegedly lead to Russia turning towards Germany.<sup>[24]</sup> Furthermore, Wilhelm believed if a Russian–German alliance emerged, France would be compelled to join it. He also hoped that having Russia pursue an expansionist policy in Asia would keep Russia out of the Balkans, thus removing the main source of tension between Russia and Germany's ally [Austria-Hungary](#).<sup>[23]</sup> During the war, Nicholas who took at face value Wilhelm's "Yellow Peril" speeches, placed much hope in German intervention on his side. More than once Nicholas chose to continue the war out of the belief that the Kaiser would come to his aid.<sup>[31]</sup>

By 8 April 1903, Russia was supposed<sup>[[by whom?](#)]</sup> to have completely withdrawn from Manchuria the forces that it had dispatched to crush the Boxer Rebellion, but that day passed with no reduction in Russian forces in Manchuria.<sup>[[32\]](#)</sup> In Japan, university students demonstrated both against Russia and against their own government for not taking any action.<sup>[[32\]](#)</sup> On 28 July 1903 [Kurino Shin'ichirō](#), the Japanese minister in Saint Petersburg, was instructed to present his country's view opposing Russia's consolidation plans in Manchuria. On 3 August 1903 the Japanese minister handed in the following document to serve as the basis for further negotiations.<sup>[[33\]](#)</sup>

1. Mutual engagement to respect the independence and territorial integrity of the Chinese and Korean empires and to maintain the principle of equal opportunity for the commerce and industry of all nations in those countries.
2. Reciprocal recognition of Japan's preponderating interests in Korea and Russia's special interests in railway enterprises in Manchuria, and of the right of Japan to take in Korea and of Russia to take in Manchuria such measures as may be necessary for the protection of their respective interests as above defined, subject, however, to the provisions of article I of this agreement.
3. Reciprocal undertaking on the part of Russia and Japan not to impede development of those industrial and commercial activities respectively of Japan in Korea and of Russia in Manchuria, which are not inconsistent with the stipulations of article I of this agreement. Additional engagement on the part of Russia not to impede the eventual extension of the Korean railway into southern Manchuria so as to connect with the East China and Shan-hai-kwan–Newchwang lines.



4. Reciprocal engagement that in case it is found necessary to send troops by Japan to Korea, or by Russia to Manchuria, for the purpose either of protecting the interests mentioned in article II of this agreement, or of suppressing insurrection or disorder calculated to create international complications, the troops so sent are in no case to exceed the actual number required and are to be forthwith recalled as soon as their missions are accomplished.
5. Recognition on the part of Russia of the exclusive right of Japan to give advice and assistance in the interest of reform and good government in Korea, including necessary military assistance.
6. This agreement to supplant all previous arrangements between Japan and Russia respecting Korea.

On 3 October 1903 the Russian minister to Japan, [Roman Rosen](#), presented to the Japanese government the Russian counterproposal as the basis of negotiations, as follows:<sup>[34]</sup>

1. Mutual engagement to respect the independence and territorial integrity of the Korean Empire.
2. Recognition by Russia of Japan's preponderating interests in Korea and of the right of Japan to give advice and assistance to Korea tending to improve the civil administration of the empire without infringing the stipulations of article I.
3. Engagement on the part of Russia not to impede the commercial and industrial undertakings of Japan in Korea, nor to oppose any measures taken for the purpose of protecting them so long as such measures do not infringe the stipulations of article I.
4. Recognition of the right of Japan to send for the same purpose troops to Korea, with the knowledge of Russia, but their number not to exceed that actually required, and with the

engagement on the part of Japan to recall such troops as soon as their mission is accomplished.

5. Mutual engagement not to use any part of the territory of Korea for strategical purposes nor to undertake on the coasts of Korea any military works capable of menacing the freedom of navigation in the Straits of Korea.
6. Mutual engagement to consider that part of the territory of Korea lying to the north of the 39th parallel as a neutral zone into which neither of the contracting parties shall introduce troops.
7. Recognition by Japan of Manchuria and its littoral as in all respects outside her sphere of interest.
8. This agreement to supplant all previous agreements between Russia and Japan respecting Korea.

During the Russian–Japanese talks, the Japanese historian Hirono Yoshihiko noted, "once negotiations commenced between Japan and Russia, Russia scaled back its demands and claims regarding Korea bit by bit, making a series of concessions that Japan regarded as serious compromises on Russia's part".<sup>[35]</sup> The war might not have broken out had not the issues of Korea and Manchuria become linked.<sup>[36]</sup> The Korean and Manchurian issues had become linked as the Prime Minister of Japan, [Katsura Tarō](#) (in office 1901–1906), decided if war did come, that Japan was more likely to have the support of the United States and Great Britain if the war could be presented as a struggle for [free trade](#) against the highly protectionist Russian empire, in which case, Manchuria, which was the larger market than Korea, was more likely to engage Anglo-American sympathies.<sup>[36]</sup> Throughout the war, Japanese propaganda presented the recurring theme of Japan as a "civilized" power (that supported free trade and would implicitly

allow foreign businesses into the resource-rich region of Manchuria) vs. Russia the "uncivilized" power (that was protectionist and wanted to keep the riches of Manchuria all to itself).<sup>[36]</sup>

Emperor Gojong of Korea (King from 1864 to 1897, Emperor from 1897 to 1907) came to believe that the issue dividing Japan and Russia was Manchuria, and chose to pursue a policy of neutrality as the best way of preserving Korean independence as the crisis mounted.<sup>[35]</sup> In a series of reports to Beijing, Hu Weide, the Chinese ambassador in Saint Petersburg from July 1902 to September 1907, looked closely at whether a Russian or a Japanese victory would be favourable to China, and argued that the latter was preferable, as he maintained a Japanese victory presented the better chance for China to regain sovereignty over Manchuria.<sup>[35]</sup> In December 1903 China decided to remain neutral if war came, because though Japan was the only power capable of evicting Russia from Manchuria, the extent of Japanese ambitions in Manchuria was not clear to Beijing.<sup>[35]</sup>

Russian–Japanese negotiations then followed, although by early January 1904 the Japanese government had realised that Russia was not interested in settling the Manchurian or Korean issues. Instead, Russia's goal was buying time—via diplomacy—to further build up militarily.<sup>[37]</sup> In December 1903, Wilhelm wrote in a marginal note on a diplomatic dispatch about his role in inflaming Russo-Japanese relations:

Since 97—Kiaochow—we have never left Russia in any doubt that we would cover her back in Europe, in case she decided to pursue a bigger policy in the Far East that might lead to military complications (with the aim of relieving our eastern border from the fearful pressure and threat of the massive Russian army!). Whereupon, Russia took Port Arthur and *trusting us*, took her fleet *out of the Baltic*, thereby making herself *vulnerable to us* by sea. In Danzig 01 and Reval 02, the same assurance was given again, with result that entire Russian divisions from Poland

and European Russia were and are being sent to the Far East. This would not had happened if our governments had not been in agreement!<sup>[38]</sup>

A recurring theme of Wilhelm's letters to Nicholas was that "Holy Russia" had been "chosen" by God to save the "entire white race" from the "Yellow Peril", and that Russia was "entitled" to annex all of Korea, Manchuria, and northern China up to Beijing.<sup>[39]</sup> Wilhelm went on to assure Nicholas that once Russia had defeated Japan, this would be a deadly blow to British diplomacy, and that the two emperors, the self-proclaimed "Admiral of the Atlantic" and the "Admiral of the Pacific", would rule Eurasia together, making them able to challenge British [sea power](#) as the resources of Eurasia would make their empires immune to a British blockade, and thus allowing Germany and Russia to "divide up the best" of the British colonies in Asia between them.<sup>[39]</sup>

Nicholas had been prepared to compromise with Japan, but after receiving a letter from Wilhelm attacking him as a coward for his willingness to compromise with the Japanese (who, Wilhelm never ceasing reminding Nicholas, represented the "Yellow Peril") for the sake of peace, became more obstinate.<sup>[40]</sup> Wilhelm had written to Nicholas stating that the question of Russian interests in Manchuria and Korea was beside the point, saying instead it was a matter of Russia

undertaking the protection and defence of the White Race, and with it, Christian civilization, against the Yellow Race. And whatever the Japs are determined to ensure the domination of the Yellow Race in East Asia, to put themselves at its head and organise and lead it into battle against the White Race. That is the kernel of the situation, and therefore there can be very little doubt about where the sympathies of all half-way intelligent Europeans should lie. England betrayed Europe's interests to America in a cowardly and shameful way over the Panama Canal question, so as to be left in 'peace' by the Yankees. Will the 'Tsar' likewise betray the interests of

the White Race to the Yellow as to be 'left in peace' and not embarrass the Hague tribunal too much?.<sup>[40]</sup>

When Nicholas replied that he still wanted peace, Wilhelm wrote back in a telegram "You innocent angel!", telling his advisors "This is the language of an innocent angel. But not that of a White Tsar!".<sup>[40]</sup> Nevertheless, Tokyo believed that Russia was not serious about seeking a peaceful solution to the dispute. On 13 January 1904, Japan proposed a formula by which Manchuria would remain outside Japan's sphere of influence and, reciprocally, Korea outside Russia's. On 21 December 1903, the Tarō cabinet voted to go to war against Russia.<sup>[36]</sup>

By 4 February 1904, no formal reply had been received from Saint Petersburg. On 6 February the Japanese minister to Russia, [Kurino Shin'ichirō](#), was recalled, and Japan severed diplomatic relations with Russia.<sup>[37]</sup>

Potential diplomatic resolution of territorial concerns between Japan and Russia failed; historians have argued that this directly resulted from the actions of Emperor [Nicholas II](#). Crucially, Nicholas mismanaged his government. Although certain scholars contend that the situation arose from the determination of Nicholas II to use the war against Japan to spark a revival in Russian patriotism, no historical evidence supports this claim.<sup>[41]</sup> The Tsar's advisors did not support the war, foreseeing problems in transporting troops and supplies from European Russia to the East.<sup>[42]</sup> Convinced that his rule was divinely ordained and that he held responsibility to God, Nicholas II held the ideals of preserving the autocracy and defending the dignity, honour, and worth of Russia.<sup>[43]</sup> This attitude by the Tsar led to repeated delays in negotiations with the Japanese government. The Japanese understanding of this can be seen in a telegram from Japanese minister of foreign affairs, Komura, to the minister to Russia, in which he stated:

... the Japanese government have at all times during the progress of the negotiations made it a special point to give prompt answers to all propositions of the Russian government. The negotiations have now been pending for no less than four months, and they have not yet reached a stage where the final issue can with certainty be predicted. In these circumstances the Japanese government cannot but regard with grave concern the situation for which the delays in negotiations are largely responsible.<sup>[44]</sup>

Errors by Nicholas II in managing the Russian government also led to his misinterpreting the type of situation in which Russia was to become involved with Japan. Some scholars have suggested that Nicholas II dragged Japan into war intentionally, in hopes of reviving Russian nationalism. This notion conflicts with a comment made by Nicholas to Kaiser Wilhelm of Germany, saying there would be no war because he "did not wish it".<sup>[45]</sup> This does not reject the claim that Russia played an aggressive role in the East, which it did; rather, it means that Russia unwisely calculated that Japan would not go to war against Russia's far larger and seemingly superior navy and army. Nicholas held the Japanese in contempt as "yellow monkeys", and he took for granted that the Japanese would simply yield in the face of Russia's superior power, which thus explains his unwillingness to compromise.<sup>[46]</sup> Evidence of Russia's false sense of security and superiority to Japan is seen by Russian reference to Japan's choosing war as a big mistake.<sup>[47]</sup><sup>[*need quotation to verify*]</sup>

Declaration of war<sup>[[edit](#)]</sup>

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Japan issued a [declaration of war](#) on 8 February 1904.<sup>[48]</sup> However, three hours before Japan's declaration of war was received by the Russian government, and without warning, the [Japanese Imperial Navy](#) attacked the [Russian Far East Fleet](#) at Port Arthur.<sup>[49]</sup>

Tsar Nicholas II was stunned by news of the attack. He could not believe that Japan would commit an act of war without a formal declaration, and had been assured by his ministers that the Japanese would not fight. When the attack came, according to Cecil Spring Rice, first secretary at the British Embassy, it left the Tsar "almost incredulous".<sup>[50]</sup>

Russia declared war on Japan eight days later.<sup>[51]</sup> Japan, in response, made reference to the [Russian attack on Sweden in 1808](#) without declaration of war, although the requirement to mediate disputes between states [before commencing hostilities](#) was made international law in 1899, and again in 1907, with the [Hague Conventions of 1899 and 1907](#).<sup>[52][53][54]</sup>

The Qing Empire favoured the Japanese position and even offered military aid, but Japan declined it. However, [Yuan Shikai](#) sent envoys to Japanese generals several times to deliver foodstuffs and alcoholic drinks. Native Manchurians joined the war on both sides as hired troops.<sup>[55]</sup>

Campaign of 1904[[edit](#)]

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Port Arthur, on the Liaodong Peninsula in the south of Manchuria, had been fortified into a major naval base by the Russian Imperial Army. Since it needed to control the sea in order to fight a war on the Asian mainland, Japan's first military objective was to neutralize the Russian fleet at Port Arthur. Japanese infantry during the occupation of [Seoul](#), Korea, in 1904

On the night of 8 February 1904, the Japanese fleet under Admiral [Tōgō Heihachirō](#) opened the war with a surprise [torpedo boat destroyer](#)<sup>[56]</sup> attack on the Russian ships at Port Arthur. The attack heavily damaged the *[Tsesarevich](#)* and *[Retvizan](#)*, the heaviest battleships in Russia's Far Eastern theatre, and the 6,600 ton cruiser *[Pallada](#)*.<sup>[57]</sup> These attacks developed into the [Battle of Port Arthur](#) the next morning. A series of indecisive naval engagements followed, in which

Admiral Tōgō was unable to attack the Russian fleet successfully as it was protected by the shore batteries of the harbour, and the Russians were reluctant to leave the harbour for the open seas, especially after the death of Admiral [Stepan Osipovich Makarov](#) on 13 April 1904. Although the actual Battle of Port Arthur was indecisive, the initial attacks had a devastating psychological effect on Russia, which had been confident about the prospect of war. The Japanese had seized the initiative while the Russians waited in port.<sup>[58]</sup><sup>*[page needed]*</sup>

These engagements provided cover for a Japanese landing near [Incheon](#) in Korea. From Incheon the Japanese occupied Hanseong and then the rest of Korea. After the Japanese occupation of Hanseong, [Emperor Gojong](#) sent a detachment of 17,000 soldiers to support Russia. By the end of April, the Japanese Imperial Army under [Kuroki Tamemoto](#) was ready to cross the [Yalu River](#) into Russian-occupied Manchuria.

### **Blockade of Port Arthur**<sup>[\[edit\]](#)</sup>

The Japanese attempted to deny the Russians use of Port Arthur. During the night of 13–14 February, the Japanese attempted to block the entrance to Port Arthur by sinking several concrete-filled steamers in the deep water channel to the port,<sup>[59]</sup> but they sank too deep to be effective. A similar attempt to block the harbour entrance during the night of 3–4 May also failed. In March, the charismatic Vice Admiral [Makarov](#) had taken command of the First Russian Pacific Squadron with the intention of breaking out of the Port Arthur blockade.

On 12 April 1904, two Russian [pre-dreadnought](#) battleships, the flagship [Petropavlovsk](#) and the [Pobeda](#), slipped out of port but struck Japanese mines off Port Arthur. The *Petropavlovsk* sank almost immediately, while the *Pobeda* had to be towed back to port for



extensive repairs. Admiral Makarov, the single most effective Russian naval strategist of the war, died on the battleship *Petropavlovsk*.

On 15 April 1904, the Russian government made overtures threatening to seize the British [war correspondents](#) who were taking the ship [SS Haimun](#) into war zones to report for the London-based [Times](#) newspaper, citing concerns about the possibility of the British giving away Russian positions to the Japanese fleet.

The Russians quickly learned, and soon employed, the Japanese tactic of offensive minelaying. On 15 May 1904, two Japanese battleships, the [Yashima](#) and the [Hatsuse](#), were lured into a recently laid Russian minefield off Port Arthur, each striking at least two mines. The *Hatsuse* sank within minutes, taking 450 sailors with her, while the *Yashima* sank while under tow towards Korea for repairs. On 23 June 1904, a [breakout attempt](#) by the Russian squadron, now under the command of Admiral [Wilhelm Vitgeft](#), failed. By the end of the month, Japanese artillery were firing shells into the harbour.

### **Siege of Port Arthur**[\[edit\]](#)

The Siege of Port Arthur commenced in April 1904. Japanese troops tried numerous frontal assaults on the fortified hilltops overlooking the harbour, which were defeated with Japanese casualties in the thousands. Eventually, though, with the aid of several batteries of 11-inch (280 mm) [28 cm Armstrong howitzer L/10] , the Japanese were able to capture the key hilltop bastion in December 1904. With a spotter at the end of phone line located at this vantage point, the long-range artillery was able to shell the Russian fleet, which was unable to retaliate against the land-based artillery invisible over the other side of hilltop, and was unable or unwilling to sail out against the blockading fleet. Four Russian battleships and two cruisers were sunk in

succession, with the fifth and last battleship being forced to scuttle a few weeks later. Thus, all [capital ships](#) of the Russian fleet in the Pacific were sunk. This is probably the only example in military history when such a scale of devastation was achieved by land-

Meanwhile, attempts to relieve the besieged city by land also failed, and, after the [Battle of Liaoyang](#) in late August, the northern Russian force that might have been able to relieve Port Arthur retreated to Mukden ([Shenyang](#)). Major General [Anatoly Stessel](#), commander of the Port Arthur garrison, believed that the purpose of defending the city was lost after the fleet had been destroyed. In general, the Russian defenders were suffering disproportionate casualties each time the Japanese attacked. In particular, several large underground [mines](#) were exploded in late December, resulting in the costly capture of a few more pieces of the defensive line. Stessel, therefore, decided to surrender to the surprised Japanese generals on 2 January 1905. He made his decision without consulting either the other military staff present, or the Tsar and military command, who all disagreed with the decision. Stessel was convicted by a [court-martial](#) in 1908 and sentenced to death on account of an incompetent defence and for disobeying orders. He was later pardoned.

### **Anglo–Japanese intelligence co-operation**[\[edit\]](#)

Even before the war, British and Japanese intelligence had co-operated against Russia due to the [Anglo-Japanese Alliance](#).<sup>[60]</sup> During the war, [Indian Army](#) stations in [Malaya](#) and China often intercepted and read wireless and telegraph cable traffic relating to the war, which was shared with the Japanese.<sup>[61]</sup> In their turn, the Japanese shared information about Russia with the British with one British official writing of the "perfect quality" of Japanese intelligence. In particular, British and Japanese intelligence gathered much evidence that Germany was

supporting Russia in the war as part of a bid to disturb the balance of power in Europe, which led to British officials increasingly perceiving that country as a threat to the international order.<sup>[62]</sup>

## **Battle of Yalu River**<sup>[edit]</sup>

*Main article: [Battle of Yalu River \(1904\)](#)*

In contrast to the Japanese strategy of rapidly gaining ground to control Manchuria, Russian strategy focused on fighting delaying actions to gain time for reinforcements to arrive via the long Trans-Siberian Railway, which was incomplete near [Irkutsk](#) at the time. On 1 May 1904, the [Battle of Yalu River](#) became the first major land battle of the war; Japanese troops stormed a Russian position after crossing the river. The defeat of the Russian Eastern Detachment removed the perception that the Japanese would be an easy enemy, that the war would be short, and that Russia would be the overwhelming victor.<sup>[63]</sup> This was also the first battle in decades to be an Asian victory over a European power and marked Russia's inability to match Japan's military prowess.<sup>[64]</sup> Japanese troops proceeded to land at several points on the Manchurian coast, and in a series of engagements, drove the Russians back towards Port Arthur. The subsequent battles, including the [Battle of Nanshan](#) on 25 May 1904, were marked by heavy Japanese losses largely from attacking entrenched Russian positions.

## **Battle of the Yellow Sea**<sup>[edit]</sup>

*Main article: [Battle of the Yellow Sea](#)*

With the death of Admiral [Stepan Makarov](#) during the siege of Port Arthur in April 1904, Admiral [Wilhelm Vitgeft](#) was appointed commander of the battle fleet and was ordered to make a [sortie](#) from Port Arthur and deploy his force to [Vladivostok](#). Flying his flag in the French-built pre-dreadnought *[Tsesarevich](#)*, Vitgeft proceeded to lead his six battleships, four [cruisers](#), and 14 [torpedo boat destroyers](#) into the Yellow Sea in the early morning of 10 August 1904. Waiting

for him was Admiral Tōgō and his fleet of four battleships, 10 cruisers, and 18 torpedo boat destroyers.

At approximately 12:15, the battleship fleets obtained visual contact with each other, and at 13:00 with Tōgō [crossing Vitgeft's T](#), they commenced main battery fire at a range of about eight miles, the longest ever conducted up to that time.<sup>[65]</sup> For about thirty minutes the battleships pounded one another until they had closed to less than four miles and began to bring their secondary batteries into play. At 18:30, a hit from one of Tōgō's battleships struck Vitgeft's flagship's bridge, killing him instantly.

With the *Tsesarevich*'s helm jammed and their admiral killed in action, she turned from her battle line, causing confusion among her fleet. However, Tōgō was determined to sink the Russian flagship and continued pounding her, and it was saved only by the gallant charge of the American-built [Russian battleship Retvizan](#), whose captain successfully drew away Tōgō's heavy fire from the Russian flagship.<sup>[66]</sup> Knowing of the impending battle with the battleship reinforcements arriving from Russia (the Baltic Fleet), Tōgō chose not to risk his battleships by pursuing his enemy as they turned about and headed back into Port Arthur, thus ending naval history's longest-range gunnery duel up to that time and the first modern clash of steel battleship fleets on the high seas.

### **Baltic Fleet redeploys**[\[edit\]](#)

Meanwhile, the Russians were preparing to reinforce their Far East Fleet by sending the [Baltic Fleet](#), under the command of Admiral [Zinovy Rozhdestvensky](#). After a false start caused by engine problems and other mishaps, the squadron finally departed on 15 October 1904, and sailed halfway around the world from the [Baltic Sea](#) to the Pacific via the [Cape Route](#) around

the [Cape of Good Hope](#) in the course of a seven-month odyssey that was to attract worldwide attention. The [Dogger Bank incident](#) on 21 October 1904, where the Russian fleet fired on British fishing boats that they mistook for enemy torpedo boats, nearly sparked a war with the United Kingdom (an ally of Japan, but neutral, unless provoked). During the voyage, the fleet separated into a portion that went through the Suez Canal while the larger battleships went around the [Cape of Good Hope](#).

### **The fate of the civilians**[\[edit\]](#)

It was reported in 1905 that many Russian women were raped and as result many Japanese troops were infected with venereal disease.<sup>[67]</sup> During the fighting in Manchuria, there were Russian troops that [looted](#) and burned some Chinese villages, raped women and often killed those who resisted or did not understand what they wanted.<sup>[68]</sup> The Russian justification for all this was that Chinese civilians, being Asian, must have been helping their fellow Asians (the Japanese) inflict defeat on the Russians, and therefore deserved to be punished. The Russian troops were gripped by the fear of the "[Yellow Peril](#)", and saw all Asians, not just the Japanese, as the enemy.<sup>[68]</sup> All of the Russian soldiers were much feared by the Chinese population of Manchuria, but it was the Cossacks whom they feared the most on the account of their brutality and insatiable desire to loot. Largely because of the more disciplined behavior of the Japanese, the Han and Manchu population of Manchuria tended to be pro-Japanese.<sup>[68]</sup> However Japanese were also prone to looting, albeit in a considerably less brutal manner than the Russians, and summarily executed any Chinese or Manchu whom they suspected of being spies. The city of Liaoyang had the misfortune to be sacked three times within three days: first by the Russians, then by the Chinese police, and finally by the Japanese.<sup>[68]</sup> The Japanese hired Chinese bandits known variously as the Chunguses, Chunchuse or *khunhuzy* to engage in guerrilla warfare by

attacking Russian supply columns.<sup>[55]</sup> Only once did the Chunguses attack Japanese forces, and that attack was apparently motivated by the Chunguses mistaking the Japanese forces for a Russian one.<sup>[69]</sup> [Zhang Zuolin](#), a prominent bandit leader and the future "Old Marshal" who would rule Manchuria as a warlord between 1916 and 1928, worked as a Chunguse for the Japanese. Manchuria was still officially part of the Chinese Empire, and the Chinese civil servants tried their best to be neutral as Russian and Japanese troops marched across Manchuria. In the parts of Manchuria occupied by the Japanese, Tokyo appointed "civil governors" who worked to improve health, sanitation and the state of the roads.<sup>[69]</sup> These activities were also self-interested, as improved roads lessened Japanese logistics problems while improved health amongst the Chinese lessened the dangers of diseases infecting the Japanese troops. By contrast, the Russians made no effort to improve sanitation or health amongst the Chinese, and destroyed everything when they retreated. Many Chinese tended to see the Japanese as the lesser evil.<sup>[69]</sup>

Campaign of 1905[[edit](#)]

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With the fall of [Port Arthur](#), the Japanese 3rd Army could continue northward to reinforce positions south of Russian-held [Mukden](#). With the onset of the severe Manchurian winter, there had been no major land engagements since the [Battle of Shaho](#) the previous year. The two sides camped opposite each other along 60 to 70 miles (110 km) of front lines south of Mukden.

**Battle of Sandepu**[[edit](#)]

*Main article:* [Battle of Sandepu](#)

The Russian Second Army under General [Oskar Gripenberg](#), between 25 and 29 January, attacked the Japanese left flank near the town of Sandepu, almost breaking through. This caught

the Japanese by surprise. However, without support from other Russian units the attack stalled, Gripenberg was ordered to halt by [Kuropatkin](#) and the battle was inconclusive. The Japanese knew that they needed to destroy the Russian army in Manchuria before Russian reinforcements arrived via the Trans-Siberian railroad.

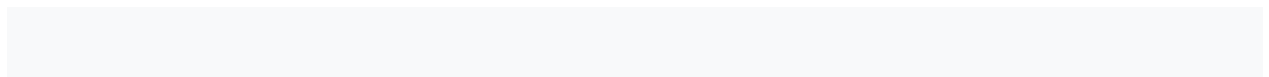
### **Battle of Mukden**[\[edit\]](#)

The Battle of Mukden commenced on 20 February 1905. In the following days Japanese forces proceeded to assault the right and left flanks of Russian forces surrounding Mukden, along a 50-mile (80 km) front. Approximately half a million men were involved in the fighting. Both sides were well entrenched and were backed by hundreds of artillery pieces. After days of harsh fighting, added pressure from the flanks forced both ends of the Russian defensive line to curve backwards. Seeing they were about to be encircled, the Russians began a general retreat, fighting a series of fierce rearguard actions, which soon deteriorated in the confusion and collapse of Russian forces. On 10 March 1905, after three weeks of fighting, [General Kuropatkin](#) decided to withdraw to the north of Mukden. The Russians suffered 90,000 casualties in the battle.

The retreating Russian Manchurian Army formations disbanded as fighting units, but the Japanese failed to destroy them completely. The Japanese themselves had suffered heavy casualties and were in no condition to pursue. Although the Battle of Mukden was a major defeat for the Russians and was the most decisive land battle ever fought by the Japanese, the final victory still depended on the navy.

### **Battle of Tsushima**[\[edit\]](#)

*Main article:* [Battle of Tsushima](#)



After a stopover of several weeks at the minor port of [Nossi-Bé, Madagascar](#), that had been reluctantly allowed by neutral France in order not to jeopardize its relations with its Russian ally, the Russian Baltic fleet proceeded to [Cam Ranh Bay](#) in [French Indochina](#) passing on its way through the [Singapore Strait](#) between 7 and 10 April 1905.<sup>[70]</sup> The fleet finally reached the Sea of Japan in May 1905. The logistics of such an undertaking in the age of coal power was astounding. The squadron required approximately 500,000 tons of coal to complete the journey, yet by international law, it was not allowed to coal at neutral ports, forcing the Russian authorities to acquire a large fleet of colliers to supply the fleet at sea. The weight of the ships' stores needed for such a long journey was to be another major problem.<sup>[71]</sup> The Russian Second Pacific Squadron (the renamed Baltic Fleet) sailed 18,000 nautical miles (33,000 km) to relieve Port Arthur only to hear the demoralizing news that Port Arthur had fallen while it was still at Madagascar. Admiral Rozhdestvensky's only hope now was to reach the port of Vladivostok. There were three routes to Vladivostok, with the shortest and most direct passing through [Tsushima Strait](#) between Korea and Japan. However, this was also the most dangerous route as it passed between the Japanese home islands and the Japanese naval bases in Korea.

Admiral Tōgō was aware of Russian progress and understood that, with the fall of Port Arthur, the Second and Third Pacific squadrons would try to reach the only other Russian port in the Far East, Vladivostok. Battle plans were laid down and ships were repaired and refitted to intercept the Russian fleet.

The Japanese [Combined Fleet](#), which had originally consisted of six battleships, was now down to four (two had been lost to mines), but still retained its cruisers, destroyers, and torpedo boats. The Russian Second Pacific Squadron contained eight battleships, including four new battleships of the [Borodino class](#), as well as cruisers, destroyers and other auxiliaries for total of 38 ships.



By the end of May, the Second Pacific Squadron was on the last leg of its journey to Vladivostok, taking the shorter, riskier route between Korea and Japan, and travelling at night to avoid discovery. Unfortunately for the Russians, while in compliance with the [rules of war](#), the two trailing hospital ships had continued to burn their lights,<sup>[72]</sup> which were spotted by the Japanese [armed merchant cruiser](#) *Shinano Maru*. Wireless communication was used to inform Togo's headquarters, where the Combined Fleet was immediately ordered to sortie. Still receiving reports from scouting forces, the Japanese were able to position their fleet to "[cross the T](#)" of the Russian fleet.<sup>[73]</sup> The Japanese engaged the Russians in the Tsushima Straits on 27–28 May 1905. The Russian fleet was virtually annihilated, losing eight battleships, numerous smaller vessels, and more than 5,000 men, while the Japanese lost three torpedo boats and 116 men. Only three Russian vessels escaped to Vladivostok, while six others were interned in neutral ports. After the Battle of Tsushima, a combined Japanese Army and Navy operation [occupied Sakhalin Island](#) to force the Russians into [suing for peace](#).

## Peace and aftermath

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Military leaders and senior tsarist officials agreed before the war that Russia was a much stronger nation and had little to fear from the Oriental newcomer. The fanatical zeal of the Japanese infantrymen astonished the Russians, who were dismayed by the apathy, backwardness, and defeatism of their own soldiers.<sup>[74]</sup> The defeats of the Army and Navy shook up Russian confidence. Throughout 1905, the Imperial Russian government was rocked by [revolution](#). The population was against escalation of the war. The empire was certainly capable of sending more troops but this would make little difference in the outcome due to the poor state of the economy, the embarrassing defeats of the Russian Army and Navy by the Japanese, and the relative

unimportance to Russia of the disputed land made the war extremely unpopular.<sup>[75]</sup> Tsar Nicholas II elected to negotiate peace so he could concentrate on internal matters after the disaster of [Bloody Sunday](#) on 9 January 1905.

Both sides accepted the offer of United States President [Theodore Roosevelt](#) to mediate. Meetings were held in [Portsmouth, New Hampshire](#), with [Sergei Witte](#) leading the Russian delegation and [Baron Komura](#) leading the Japanese delegation. The [Treaty of Portsmouth](#) was signed on 5 September 1905 at the [Portsmouth Naval Shipyard](#).<sup>[76][77]</sup> Witte became Russian Prime Minister the same year.

After courting the Japanese, Roosevelt decided to support the Tsar's refusal to pay indemnities, a move that policymakers in Tokyo interpreted as signifying that the United States had more than a passing interest in Asian affairs. Russia recognized Korea as part of the Japanese sphere of influence<sup>[78]</sup> and agreed to evacuate Manchuria. Japan would annex Korea in 1910 ([Japan–Korea Treaty of 1910](#)), with scant protest from other powers.<sup>[79]</sup> From 1910 forward, the Japanese adopted a strategy of using the Korean Peninsula as a gateway to the Asian continent and making Korea's economy subordinate to Japanese economic interests.<sup>[78]</sup>

Russia also signed over its 25-year leasehold rights to Port Arthur, including the naval base and the peninsula around it, and ceded the southern half of [Sakhalin](#) Island to Japan. Sakhalin would be taken back by the Soviet Union following the defeat of the Japanese in World War II.<sup>[80]</sup><sup>[*page needed*]</sup>

Roosevelt earned the [Nobel Peace Prize](#) for his effort. [George E. Mowry](#) concludes that Roosevelt handled the arbitration well, doing an "excellent job of balancing Russian and

Japanese power in the Orient, where the supremacy of either constituted a threat to growing America".<sup>[81]</sup> As Japan had won every battle on land and sea and as the Japanese people did not understand that the costs of the war had pushed their nation to the verge of bankruptcy, the Japanese public was enraged by the Treaty of Portsmouth as many Japanese had expected the war to end with Russia ceding the Russian Far East to Japan and for Russia to pay an indemnity.<sup>[82]</sup> The United States was widely blamed in Japan for the Treaty of Portsmouth with Roosevelt having allegedly "cheated" Japan out of its rightful claims at the peace conference. On 5 September 1905 the Hibiya incendiary incident as the anti-American riots were euphemistically described erupted in Tokyo, and lasted for three days, forcing the government to declare martial law.<sup>[82]</sup>

### **Casualties**<sup>[edit]</sup>

Sources do not agree on a precise number of deaths from the war because of a lack of body counts for confirmation. The number of Japanese Army dead in combat or died of wounds is put at around 59,000 with around 27,000 additional casualties from disease, and between 6,000 and 12,000 wounded. Estimates of Russian Army dead range from around 34,000 to around 53,000 men with a further 9,000–19,000 dying of disease and around 75,000 captured. The total number of dead for both sides is generally stated as around 130,000 to 170,000.<sup>[83]</sup> China suffered 20,000 civilian deaths, and financially the loss amounted to over 69 million taels' worth of silver.<sup>[citation needed]</sup>

During many of the battles at sea, several thousand soldiers being transported drowned after their ships went down. There was no consensus about what to do with transported soldiers at sea, and as a result, many of the ships failed or refused to rescue soldiers that were left shipwrecked. This

led to the creation of the [second Geneva Convention](#) in 1906, which gave protection and care for shipwrecked soldiers in armed conflict.

### **Political consequences**[\[edit\]](#)

This was the first major military victory in the [modern era](#) of an Asian power over a European nation. Russia's defeat was met with shock in the West and across the Far East. Japan's prestige rose greatly as it came to be seen as a modern nation. Concurrently, Russia lost virtually its entire Pacific and Baltic fleets, and also much international esteem. This was particularly true in the eyes of Germany and [Austria-Hungary](#) before World War I. Russia was France's and [Serbia's](#) ally, and that loss of prestige had a significant effect on Germany's future when planning for war with France, and in supporting Austria-Hungary's war with Serbia.

In the absence of Russian competition, and with the distraction of European nations during World War I, combined with the [Great Depression](#) that followed, the Japanese military began efforts to dominate China and the rest of Asia, which eventually led to the [Second Sino-Japanese War](#) and the [Pacific War](#) theatres of World War II.

### **Effects on Russia**[\[edit\]](#)

Though there had been popular support for the war among the Russian public following the Japanese attack at Port Arthur in 1904, that popular support soon turned to discontent after suffering multiple defeats at the hands of the Japanese forces. For many Russians, the immediate shock of unexpected humiliation at the hands of Japan caused the conflict to be viewed as a metaphor for the shortcomings of the Romanov autocracy.<sup>[84]</sup> Popular discontent in Russia after the war added more fuel to the already simmering [Russian Revolution of 1905](#), an event

Nicholas II had hoped to avoid entirely by taking intransigent negotiating stances prior to coming to the table. Twelve years later, that discontent boiled over into the [February Revolution](#) of 1917. In Poland, which Russia [partitioned in the late 18th century](#), and where Russian rule already caused [two major uprisings](#), the population was so restless that an army of 250,000–300,000—larger than the one facing the Japanese—had to be stationed to put down [the unrest](#).<sup>[85]</sup> Some political leaders of the Polish insurrection movement (in particular, [Józef Piłsudski](#)) sent emissaries to Japan to collaborate on sabotage and intelligence gathering within the Russian Empire and even plan a Japanese-aided uprising.<sup>[86][87]</sup>

In Russia, the defeat of 1905 led in the short term to a reform of the Russian military that allowed it to face Germany in World War I. However, the revolts at home following the war planted seeds that presaged the [Russian Revolution of 1917](#). This was because Tsar Nicholas II issued the [October Manifesto](#), which included only limited reforms such as the Duma and failed to address the societal problems of Russia at the time.<sup>[88]</sup>

### **Effects on Japan**[\[edit\]](#)

Japan had become the rising Asian power and had proven that its military could combat the major powers in Europe with success. Most Western powers were stunned that the Japanese not only prevailed but decisively defeated Russia. In the Russo-Japanese War, Japan had also portrayed a sense of readiness in taking a more active and leading role in Asian affairs, which in turn had led to widespread nationalism throughout the region.<sup>[84]</sup>

Although the war had ended in a victory for Japan, Japanese public opinion was shocked by the very restrained peace terms which were negotiated at the war's end.<sup>[89]</sup> Widespread discontent spread through the populace upon the announcement of the treaty terms. Riots erupted in major cities in Japan. Two specific requirements, expected after such a costly victory, were especially

lacking: territorial gains and monetary reparations to Japan. The peace accord led to feelings of distrust, as the Japanese had intended to retain all of [Sakhalin Island](#), but were forced to settle for half of it after being pressured by the United States, with President Roosevelt opting to support Nicholas II's stance on not ceding territory or paying reparations. The Japanese had wanted reparations to help families recover from lost fathers and sons as well as heavy taxation from the government.<sup>[90]</sup><sup>[clarification needed]</sup> Without them, they were at a loss.

The U.S held strength in the Asian region from aggravating European imperialist encroachment. To Japan, this represented a developing threat to the autonomy of the region. U.S.–Japanese relations would recover a bit in the early 20th century, but by the early 1920s, few in Japan believed that the United States meant anything positive for the future of Asia.<sup>[84]</sup> By the 1930s, the U.S. presence in Asian affairs, along with the instability in China and the collapse of the Western economic order, Japan would act aggressively with respect to China, setting the precedent that would ultimately culminate in the [Greater East Asia Co-Prosperty Sphere](#). Some scholars suggest that Japan's road to World War II had begun not upon winning the Russo-Japanese War, but when it lost the peace.<sup>[91]</sup><sup>[clarification needed]</sup>

### **Historical significance**<sup>[edit]</sup>

The effects and impact of the Russo-Japanese War introduced a number of characteristics that came to define 20th-century politics and warfare. Many of the technological innovations brought on by the Industrial Revolution first became present on the battlefield in the Russo-Japanese War. Weapons and armaments were more technological than ever before. Technological developments of modern armaments, such as rapid-firing artillery and machine guns, as well as more accurate rifles, were first used on a mass scale in the Russo-Japanese War. The improved capability of naval forces was also demonstrated. Military operations on both sea and land

demonstrated that warfare in a new age of technology had undergone a considerable change since the [Franco-Prussian War](#) of 1870–71.<sup>[91]</sup> Most army commanders had previously envisioned using these weapon systems to dominate the battlefield on an operational and tactical level but, as events played out, these technological advancements forever altered the capacity in which mankind would wage war.<sup>[92]</sup> For East Asia it was the first confrontation after thirty years involving two modern armed forces.

The advanced weaponry led to massive casualty counts. Neither Japan nor Russia had prepared for the number of deaths that would occur in this new kind of warfare, or had the resources to compensate for these losses. This also left its impression on society at large, with the emergence of transnational and [nongovernmental organizations](#), like the [Red Cross](#), becoming prominent after the war. The emergence of such organizations can be regarded as the beginning of a meshing together of civilizations through the identification of common problems and challenges, a slow process dominating much of the 20th century.<sup>[93]</sup>

Debate with respect to the Russo-Japanese War precluding World War II is a topic of interest to scholars today. Arguments that are favourable toward this perspective consider characteristics specific to the Russo-Japanese War to the qualities definitive of "[total war](#)".<sup>[94]</sup> Numerous aspects of total war characterize the Russo-Japanese War. Encompassed on both ends was the mass mobilization of troops into battle. For both Russia and Japan, the war required extensive economic support in the form of production of equipment, armaments, and supplies at such a scale that both domestic support and foreign aid were required.<sup>[91]</sup> The conclusion of the Russo-Japanese War also demonstrated the need for world leaders to regard domestic response to foreign policy, which is argued by some scholars as setting in motion the dissolution of the Romanov dynasty by demonstrating the inefficiencies of tsarist Russia's government.<sup>[91]</sup>

## Reception around the world<sup>[edit]</sup>

To the Western powers, Japan's victory demonstrated the emergence of a new Asian regional power. With the Russian defeat, some scholars have argued that the war had set in motion a change in the global world order with the emergence of Japan as not only a regional power, but rather, the main Asian power.<sup>[95]</sup> Rather more than the possibilities of diplomatic partnership were emerging, however. The US and Australian reaction to the changed balance of power brought by the war was mixed with fears of a Yellow Peril eventually shifting from China to Japan.<sup>[96]</sup> American figures such as W. E. B. Du Bois and Lothrop Stoddard saw the victory as a challenge to western supremacy.<sup>[97]</sup> This was reflected in Austria, where Baron Christian von Ehrenfels interpreted the challenge in racial as well as cultural terms, arguing that "the absolute necessity of a radical sexual reform for the continued existence of the western races of men has ... been raised from the level of discussion to the level of a scientifically proven fact". To stop the Japanese "Yellow Peril" would require drastic changes to society and sexuality in the West.<sup>[98]</sup>

Certainly the Japanese success increased self-confidence among anti-colonial nationalists in colonised Asian countries – Vietnamese, Indonesians, Indians and Filipinos – and to those in declining countries like the Ottoman Empire and Persia in immediate danger of being absorbed by the Western powers.<sup>[99][100]</sup> It also encouraged the Chinese who, despite having been at war with the Japanese only a decade before, still considered Westerners the greater threat. As Sun Yat-sen commented, "We regarded that Russian defeat by Japan as the defeat of the West by the East. We regarded the Japanese victory as our own victory".<sup>[101]</sup> Even in far-off Tibet the war was a subject of conversation when Sven Hedin visited the Panchen Lama in February 1907.<sup>[102]</sup> While for Jawaharlal Nehru, then only an aspiring politician in British India, "Japan's



victory lessened the feeling of inferiority from which most of us suffered. A great European power had been defeated, thus Asia could still defeat Europe as it had done in the past."<sup>[103]</sup> And in the Ottoman Empire too, the Committee of Union and Progress embraced Japan as a role model.<sup>[104]</sup>

In Europe, subject populations were similarly encouraged. James Joyce's novel Ulysses, set in Dublin in 1904, contains hopeful Irish allusions as to the outcome of the war.<sup>[105]</sup> And in partitioned Poland the artist Józef Mehoffer chose 1905 to paint his "Europa Jubilans" (Europe rejoicing), which portrays an aproned maid taking her ease on a sofa against a background of Eastern artefacts. Painted following demonstrations against the war and Russian cultural suppression, and in the year of Russia's defeat, its subtly coded message looks forward to a time when the Tsarist masters will be defeated in Europe as they had been in Asia.<sup>[106]</sup>

The significance of the war for oppressed classes as well as subject populations was clear too to Socialist thinkers.

The Russo-Japanese War now gives to all an awareness that even war and peace in Europe – its destiny – is not decided between the four walls of the European concert, but outside it, in the gigantic maelstrom of world and colonial politics. And it's in this that the real meaning of the current war resides for social-democracy, even if we set aside its immediate effect: the collapse of Russian absolutism. This war brings the gaze of the international proletariat back to the great political and economic connectedness of the world, and violently dissipates in our ranks the particularism, the pettiness of ideas that form in any period of political calm.

— Rosa Luxemburg, *In the Storm, Le Socialiste*, May 1–8, 1904 (translator: Mitch Abidor)

It was this realisation of the universal significance of the war that underlines the historical importance of the conflict and its outcome.

### **Military results**[\[edit\]](#)

Russia had lost two of its three fleets. Only its Black Sea Fleet remained, and this was the result of an earlier treaty that had prevented the fleet from leaving the Black Sea. Japan became the sixth-most powerful naval force by combined tonnage, while the Russian Navy declined to one barely stronger than that of Austria–Hungary.<sup>[107]</sup> The actual costs of the war were large enough to affect the Russian economy and, despite grain exports, the nation developed an external balance of payments deficit. The cost of military re-equipment and re-expansion after 1905 pushed the economy further into deficit, although the size of the deficit was obscured.<sup>[108]</sup>

The Japanese were on the offensive for most of the war and used massed infantry assaults against defensive positions, which would later become the standard of all European armies during World War I. The battles of the Russo-Japanese War, in which machine guns and artillery took a heavy toll on Russian and Japanese troops, were a precursor to the [trench warfare](#) of World War I.<sup>[109]</sup> A German military advisor sent to Japan, [Jakob Meckel](#), had a tremendous impact on the development of the Japanese military training, tactics, strategy, and organization. His reforms were credited with Japan's overwhelming victory over China in the [First Sino-Japanese War](#) of 1894–1895. However, his over-reliance on infantry in [offensive](#) campaigns also led to a large number of Japanese casualties.

[Japanese Empire](#)'s territorial expansion

Military and economic exhaustion affected both countries. Japanese historians regard this war as a turning point for Japan, and a key to understanding the reasons why Japan may have failed militarily and politically later. After the war, acrimony was felt at every level of Japanese society and it became the consensus within Japan that their nation had been treated as the defeated power during the peace conference.<sup>[89]</sup> As time went on, this feeling, coupled with the sense of "arrogance" at becoming a [Great Power](#), grew and added to growing Japanese hostility towards the West, and fuelled Japan's military and imperial ambitions. Furthermore, Japan's substantiated interests in Korea and Liaodong led to the creation of a [Kwantung Army](#), which became an autonomous and increasingly powerful regional force. Only five years after the war, Japan *de jure* annexed Korea as part of its colonial empire. Two decades after that, the Kwantung Army staged an incident that led to the invasion of Manchuria in the [Mukden Incident](#); the Kwantung Army eventually came to be heavily involved in the state's politics and administration, leading to a series of localized conflicts with Chinese regional warlords that finally extended into the [Second Sino-Japanese War](#) in 1937. As a result, most Chinese historians consider the Russo-Japanese War as a key development in Japan's spiral into [militarism](#) in the 1920s–30s.

Following the victory of the [Battle of Tsushima](#), Japan's erstwhile British ally presented a lock of [Admiral Nelson's](#) hair to the Imperial Japanese Navy, judging its performance then as on a par with Britain's victory at [Trafalgar](#) in 1805. It is still on display at Kyouiku Sankoukan, a public museum maintained by the Japan Self-Defence Force. Nevertheless, there was a consequent change in British strategic thinking, resulting in enlargement of its naval docks at [Auckland](#), New Zealand; [Bombay](#), [British India](#); [Fremantle](#) and Sydney, Australia; [Simon's Town](#), [Cape Colony](#); Singapore and [British Hong Kong](#). The naval war confirmed the direction of the [British Admiralty's](#) thinking in tactical terms even as it undermined its strategic grasp of a changing

world. Tactical orthodoxy, for example, assumed that a naval battle would imitate the conditions of stationary combat and that ships would engage in one long line sailing on parallel courses; but more flexible tactical thinking would now be required as a firing ship and its target manoeuvred independently.<sup>[110]</sup>

## 1911 Revolution

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The **1911 Revolution** ([Chinese](#): 辛亥革命; [pinyin](#): *Xīnhài Géming*), also known as the **Chinese Revolution** or the **Xinhai Revolution**, was a revolution that overthrew China's last [imperial dynasty](#) (the [Manchu](#)-led [Qing dynasty](#)) and established the [Republic of China](#) (ROC). The revolution was named Xinhai (Hsin-hai) because it occurred in 1911, the year of the Xinhai (辛亥) stem-branch in the [sexagenary cycle](#) of the traditional [Chinese calendar](#).<sup>[2]</sup>

The revolution consisted of many revolts and uprisings. The turning point was the [Wuchang Uprising](#) on 10 October 1911, which was the result of the mishandling of the [Railway Protection Movement](#). The revolution ended with the [abdication](#) of the last [Chinese emperor](#), the six-year-old [Puyi](#), on 12 February 1912, that marked the end of 2,000 years of [imperial rule](#) and the beginning of China's [early republican era](#).<sup>[3]</sup>

The revolution arose mainly in response to the [decline of the Qing state](#), and its ineffective efforts to modernize China and confront foreign aggression. Many underground [anti-Qing groups](#), with the support of Chinese revolutionaries in exile, tried to overthrow the Qing. The brief civil war that ensued was ended through a political compromise between [Yuan Shikai](#), the late Qing military strongman, and [Sun Yat-sen](#), the leader of the [Tongmenghui \(United League\)](#). After the Qing court transferred power to the newly founded republic, a [provisional coalition](#)

[government](#) was created along with the [National Assembly](#). However, political power of the [new national government](#) in Beijing was soon thereafter monopolized by Yuan and led to decades of political division and [warlordism](#), including several attempts at imperial restoration.

The [Republic of China](#) on the [island of Taiwan](#) and the [People's Republic of China](#) on the [mainland](#) both consider themselves the legitimate successors to the 1911 Revolution and honor the ideals of the revolution including [nationalism](#), [republicanism](#), [modernization](#) of China and [national unity](#). 10 October is commemorated in Taiwan as [Double Ten Day](#), the [National Day](#) of the [ROC](#). In the mainland China, [Hong Kong](#), and [Macau \(the PRC\)](#); the day is celebrated as the Anniversary of the 1911 Revolution.



After the failure of the [Hundred Days' Reform](#) in 1898, Guangxu's advisors [Kang Youwei](#) (left, 1858–1927) and [Liang Qichao](#) (1873–1929) fled into exile, while [Tan Sitong](#) (right, 1865–1898) was executed. In Canada, Kang and Liang formed the [Emperor Protection Society](#) to promote a [constitutional monarchy](#) for China. In 1900, they supported an unsuccessful uprising in central China to rescue Guangxu. After the 1911 Revolution, Liang became a [Minister of Justice of the Republic of China](#). Kang remained a royalist and supported [restoring](#) the last Qing emperor [Puyi](#) in 1917.

After suffering its first defeat to the West in the [First Opium War](#) in 1842, the Qing imperial court struggled to contain foreign intrusions into China. Efforts to adjust and reform the traditional methods of governance were constrained by a deeply conservative court culture that did not want to give away too much authority to reform. Following defeat in the [Second Opium War](#) in 1860, the Qing tried to modernize by adopting certain Western technologies through the [Self-Strengthening Movement](#) from 1861.<sup>[4]</sup> In the wars against the [Taiping \(1851–64\)](#), [Nian](#)

(1851–68), [Yunnan \(1856–68\)](#) and [the Northwest \(1862–77\)](#), the traditional imperial troops proved themselves incompetent and the court came to rely on local armies.<sup>[5]</sup> In 1895, China suffered another defeat during the [First Sino-Japanese War](#).<sup>[6]</sup> This demonstrated that traditional Chinese feudal society also needed to be modernized if the technological and commercial advancements were to succeed.

In 1898, the [Guangxu Emperor](#) was guided by reformers like [Kang Youwei](#) and [Liang Qichao](#) for a drastic reform in education, military and economy under the [Hundred Days' Reform](#).<sup>[6]</sup> The reform was abruptly cancelled by a [conservative coup](#) led by [Empress Dowager Cixi](#).<sup>[7]</sup> The [Guangxu Emperor](#), who had always been a puppet dependent on Cixi, was put under house arrest in June 1898.<sup>[5]</sup> Reformers Kang and Liang would be exiled. While in Canada, in June 1899, they tried to form the [Emperor Protection Society](#) in an attempt to restore the emperor.<sup>[5]</sup> Empress Dowager Cixi mainly controlled the [Qing dynasty](#) from this point on. The [Boxer Rebellion](#) prompted another foreign invasion of Beijing in 1900 and the imposition of [unequal treaty](#) terms, which carved away territories, created extraterritorial concessions and gave away trade privileges. Under internal and external pressure, the Qing court began to adopt some of the reforms. The Qing managed to maintain its monopoly on political power by suppressing, often with great brutality, all domestic rebellions. Dissidents could operate only in secret societies and underground organizations, in foreign concessions or in exile overseas.

## Organization for revolution

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### **Earliest groups**

There were many revolutionaries and groups that wanted to overthrow the Qing government to re-establish Han-led government. The earliest revolutionary organizations were founded outside

of China, such as [Yeung Ku-wan's Furen Literary Society](#), created in Hong Kong in 1890. There were 15 members, including [Tse Tsan-tai](#), who did political satire such as "The Situation in the Far East", one of the first ever Chinese [manhua](#), and who later became one of the core founders of the [South China Morning Post](#).<sup>[8]</sup>

[Sun Yat-sen's Xingzhonghui \(Revive China Society\)](#) was established in [Honolulu](#) in 1894 with the main purpose of raising funds for revolutions.<sup>[9]</sup> The two organizations were merged in 1894.<sup>[10]</sup>

### **Smaller groups**

The [Huaxinghui \(China Revival Society\)](#) was founded in 1904 with notables like [Huang Xing](#), [Zhang Shizhao](#), [Chen Tianhua](#) and [Song Jiaoren](#), along with 100 others. Their motto was "Take one province by force, and inspire the other provinces to rise up".<sup>[11]</sup>

The [Guangfuhui \(Restoration Society\)](#) was also founded in 1904, in Shanghai, by [Cai Yuanpei](#). Other notable members include [Zhang Binglin](#) and Tao Chengzhang.<sup>[12]</sup> Despite professing the anti-Qing cause, the Guangfuhui was highly critical of Sun Yat-sen.<sup>[13]</sup> One of the most famous female revolutionaries was [Qiu Jin](#), who fought for [women's rights](#) and was also from Guangfuhui.<sup>[13]</sup>

There were also many other minor revolutionary organizations, such as Lizhi Xuehui (勵志學會) in [Jiangsu](#), Gongqianghui (公強會) in [Sichuan](#), Yiwenhui (益聞會) and Hanzudulihui (漢族獨立會) in [Fujian](#), Yizhishe (易知社) in [Jiangxi](#), Yuewanghui (岳王會) in [Anhui](#) and Qunzhihui (群智會/群智社) in Guangzhou.<sup>[14]</sup>

There were also criminal organizations that were anti-Manchu, including the [Green Gang](#) and [Hongmen Zhigongtang \(致公堂\)](#).<sup>[15]</sup> Sun Yat-sen himself came in contact with the Hongmen, also known as [Tiandihui \(Heaven and Earth society\)](#).<sup>[16][17]</sup>

[Gelaohui \(Elder Brother society\)](#) was another group, with [Zhu De](#), [Wu Yuzhang](#), Liu Zhidan (劉志丹) and [He Long](#). This is the revolutionary group that would eventually develop a strong link with the later [Communist Party](#).

## **Tongmenghui**

Sun Yat-sen successfully united the Revive China Society, Huaxinghui and Guangfuhui in the summer of 1905, thereby establishing the unified [Tongmenghui \(United League\)](#) in August 1905 in Tokyo.<sup>[18]</sup> While it started in Tokyo, it had loose organizations distributed across and outside the country. Sun Yat-sen was the leader of this unified group. Other revolutionaries who worked with the Tongmenghui include [Wang Jingwei](#) and [Hu Hanmin](#). When the Tongmenhui was established, more than 90% of the Tongmenhui members were between 17 and 26 years of age.<sup>[19]</sup> Some of the work in the era includes manhua publications, such as the [Journal of Current Pictorial](#).<sup>[20]</sup>

## **Later groups**

In February 1906 Rizihui (日知會) also had many revolutionaries, including Sun Wu (孫武), Zhang Nanxian (張難先), He Jiwei and Feng Mumin.<sup>[21][22]</sup> A nucleus of attendees of this conference evolved into the Tongmenhui's establishment in Hubei.



In July 1907, several members of Tongmenhui in Tokyo advocated a revolution in the area of the [Yangtze River](#). Liu Quiyi (劉揆一), Jiao Dafeng (焦達峰), Zhang Boxiang (張伯祥) and Sun Wu (孫武) established Gongjinhui (Progressive Association) (共進會).<sup>[23][24]</sup> In January 1911, the revolutionary group Zhengwu Xueshe (振武學社) was renamed as Wenxueshe (Literary society) (文學社).<sup>[25]</sup> Jiang Yiwu (蔣翊武) was chosen as the leader.<sup>[26]</sup> These two organizations would play a big role in the Wuchang Uprising.

Many young revolutionaries adopted the [radical programs of the anarchists](#). In Tokyo [Liu Shipei](#) proposed the overthrow of the Manchus and a return to Chinese classical values. In Paris Li Shizhen, [Wu Zhihui](#) and [Zhang Renjie](#) agreed with Sun on the necessity of revolution and joined the Tongmenghui, but argued that a political replacement of one government with another government would not be progress; revolution in family, gender and social values would remove the need for government and coercion. [Zhang Ji](#) was among the anarchists who defended assassination and terrorism as means toward revolution, but others insisted that only education was justifiable. Important anarchists included Cai Yuanpei, Wang Jingwei and Zhang Renjie, who gave Sun major financial help. Many of these anarchists would later assume high positions in the [Kuomintang](#) (KMT).<sup>[27]</sup>

## **Views**

Many revolutionaries promoted anti-Qing/anti-Manchu sentiments and revived memories of conflict between the ethnic minority [Manchu](#) and the ethnic majority [Han Chinese](#) from the late [Ming dynasty](#) (1368–1644). Leading intellectuals were influenced by books that had survived from the last years of the Ming dynasty, the last dynasty of Han Chinese. In 1904, Sun Yat-sen announced that his organization's goal was "to expel the [Tatar barbarians](#), to

revive [Zhonghua](#), to establish a Republic, and to distribute land equally among the people." (驅除韃虜, 恢復中華, 創立民國, 平均地權).<sup>[18]</sup> Many of the underground groups promoted the ideas of "Resist Qing and restore Ming" (反清復明) that had been around since the days of the [Taiping Rebellion](#).<sup>[28]</sup> Others, such as [Zhang Binglin](#), supported straight-up lines like "slay the manchus" and concepts like "Anti-Manchuism" (興漢滅胡 / 排滿主義).<sup>[29]</sup>

## Strata and groups

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The 1911 Revolution was supported by many groups, including students and intellectuals who returned from abroad, as well as participants of the revolutionary organizations, overseas Chinese, soldiers of the new army, local gentry, farmers and others.

## Overseas Chinese

*Main article: [Chinese revolutionary activities in Malaya](#)*

Assistance from [overseas Chinese](#) was important in the 1911 Revolution. In 1894, the first year of the Revive China Society, the first meeting ever held by the group was held in the home of Ho Fon, an overseas Chinese who was the leader of the first Chinese Church of Christ.<sup>[30]</sup> Overseas Chinese supported and actively participated in the funding of revolutionary activities, especially the Southeast Asian Chinese of [Malaya](#) (Singapore and [Malaysia](#)).<sup>[31]</sup> Many of these groups were reorganized by Sun, who was referred to as the "father of the Chinese revolution".<sup>[31]</sup>

## Newly emerged intellectuals

In 1906, after the abolition of the [imperial examinations](#), the Qing government established many new schools and encouraged students to study abroad. Many young people attended the new schools or went abroad to study in places like Japan.<sup>[32]</sup> A new class of intellectuals emerged from those students, who contributed immensely to the 1911 Revolution. Besides Sun Yat-sen,

key figures in the revolution, such as Huang Xing, [Song Jiaoren](#), [Hu Hanmin](#), [Liao Zhongkai](#), [Zhu Zhixin](#) and Wang Jingwei, were all Chinese students in Japan. Some were young students like [Zou Rong](#), known for writing the book *Revolutionary Army*, in which he talked about the extermination of the Manchus for the 260 years of oppression, sorrow, cruelty and tyranny and turning the [sons and grandsons of Yellow Emperor](#) into [George Washingtons](#).<sup>[33]</sup>

Before 1908, revolutionaries focused on coordinating these organizations in preparation for uprisings that these organizations would launch; hence, these groups would provide most of the manpower needed for the overthrow of the Qing Dynasty. After the 1911 Revolution, Sun Yat-sen recalled the days of recruiting support for the revolution and said, "The literati were deeply into the search for honors and profits, so they were regarded as having only secondary importance. By contrast, organizations like [Sanhehui](#) were able to sow widely the ideas of resisting the Qing and restoring the Ming."<sup>[34]</sup>

### **Gentry and businessmen**

The strength of the gentry in local politics had become apparent. From December 1908, the Qing government created some apparatus to allow the gentry and businessmen to participate in politics. These middle-class people were originally supporters of constitutionalism. However, they became disenchanted when the Qing government created a [cabinet](#) with [Prince Qing](#) as [prime minister](#).<sup>[35]</sup> By early 1911, an experimental cabinet had thirteen members, nine of whom were Manchus selected from the imperial family.<sup>[36]</sup>

### **Foreigners**

Besides Chinese and overseas Chinese, some of the supporters and participants of the 1911 Revolution were foreigners; among them, the Japanese were the most active group. Some Japanese even became members of Tongmenghui. [Miyazaki Touten](#) was the closest Japanese supporter; others included Heiyama Shu and [Ryōhei Uchida](#). [Homer Lea](#), an American, who became Sun Yat-sen's closest foreign advisor in 1910, supported Sun Yat-sen's military ambitions.<sup>[37]</sup> British soldier Rowland J. Mulkern also took part in the revolution.<sup>[38]</sup> Some foreigners, such as English explorer [Arthur de Carle Sowerby](#), led expeditions to rescue foreign missionaries in 1911 and 1912

The far right wing Japanese ultra-nationalist [Black Dragon Society](#) supported Sun Yat-sen's activities against the Manchus, believing that overthrowing the Qing would help the Japanese take over the Manchu homeland and that Han Chinese would not oppose the take over. Toyama believed that the Japanese could easily take over Manchuria and Sun Yat-sen and other anti-Qing revolutionaries would not resist and help the Japanese take over and enlarge the opium trade in China while the Qing was trying to destroy the opium trade. The Japanese Black Dragons supported Sun Yat-sen and anti-Manchu revolutionaries until the Qing collapsed.<sup>[40]</sup> The far right wing Japanese ultranationalist [Gen'yōsha](#) leader [Tōyama Mitsuru](#) supported anti-Manchu, anti-Qing revolutionary activities including the ones organised by Sun Yat-sen and supported Japanese taking over Manchuria. The anti-Qing [Tongmenghui](#) was founded and based in exile in Japan where many anti-Qing revolutionaries gathered.

The Japanese had been trying to unite anti-Manchu groups made out of Han people to take down the Qing. Japanese were the ones who helped Sun Yat-sen unite all anti-Qing, anti-Manchu revolutionary groups together and there were Japanese like [Tōten Miyazaki](#) inside of the anti-Manchu Tongmenghui revolutionary alliance. The Black Dragon Society hosted the

Tongmenghui in its first meeting.<sup>[41]</sup> The Black Dragon Society had very intimate relations with Sun Yat-sen and promoted pan-Asianism and Sun sometimes passed himself off as Japanese<sup>[42]</sup> and they had connections with Sun for a long time.<sup>[43]</sup> Japanese groups like the Black Dragon Society had a large impact on Sun Yat-sen.<sup>[44]</sup> According to an American military historian, Japanese military officers were part of the Black Dragon Society. The Yakuza and Black Dragon Society helped arrange in Tokyo for Sun Yat-sen to hold the first Kuomintang meetings, and were hoping to flood China with opium and overthrow the Qing and deceive Chinese into overthrowing the Qing to Japan's benefit. After the revolution was successful, the Japanese Black Dragons started infiltrating China and spreading opium. The Black Dragons pushed for the takeover of Manchuria by Japan in 1932.<sup>[45]</sup> Sun Yat-sen was married to a Japanese, [Kaoru Otsuki](#).

### **Soldiers of the new armies**

The [New Army](#) was formed in 1901 after the defeat of the Qings in the [First Sino-Japanese War](#).<sup>[32]</sup> They were launched by a decree from eight provinces.<sup>[32]</sup> New Army troops were by far the best trained and equipped.<sup>[32]</sup> The recruits were of a higher quality than the old army and received regular promotions.<sup>[32]</sup> Beginning in 1908, the revolutionaries began to shift their call to the new armies. Sun Yat-sen and the revolutionaries infiltrated the New Army.<sup>[46]</sup>

### Uprisings and incidents

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The central focus of the uprisings were mostly connected with the [Tongmenghui](#) and Sun Yat-sen, including subgroups. Some uprisings involved groups that never merged with the Tongmenghui. Sun Yat-sen may have participated in 8–10 uprisings; all uprisings failed prior to the Wuchang Uprising.

## **First Guangzhou Uprising**

In the spring of 1895, the [Revive China Society](#), which was based in Hong Kong, planned the First Guangzhou Uprising (廣州起義). [Lu Haodong](#) was tasked with designing the revolutionaries' [Blue Sky with a White Sun](#) flag.<sup>[31]</sup> On 26 October 1895, [Yeung Ku-wan](#) and Sun Yat-sen led [Zheng Shiliang](#) and Lu Haodong to Guangzhou, preparing to capture Guangzhou in one strike. However, the details of their plans were leaked to the Qing government.<sup>[47]</sup> The government began to arrest revolutionaries, including Lu Haodong, who was later executed.<sup>[47]</sup> The First Guangzhou Uprising was a failure. Under pressure from the Qing government, the government of Hong Kong forbade these two men to enter the territory for five years. Sun Yat-sen went into exile, promoting the Chinese revolution and raising funds in Japan, the United States, Canada and Britain. In 1901, following the Huizhou Uprising, Yeung Ku-wan was assassinated by Qing agents in Hong Kong.<sup>[48]</sup> After his death, his family protected his identity by not putting his name on his tomb, just a number: 6348.<sup>[48]</sup>

## **Independence Army Uprising**

In 1901, after the [Boxer Rebellion](#) started, Tang Caichang (唐才常) and [Tan Sitong](#) of the previous [Foot Emancipation Society](#) organised the Independence Army. The Independence Army Uprising (自立軍起義) was planned to occur on 23 August 1900.<sup>[49]</sup> Their goal was to overthrow [Empress Dowager Cixi](#) to establish a constitutional monarchy under the Guangxu Emperor. Their plot was discovered by the governors-general of Hunan and Hubei. About twenty conspirators were arrested and executed.<sup>[49]</sup>

## **Huizhou Uprising**

On 8 October 1900, Sun Yat-sen ordered the launch of the [Huizhou Uprising](#) (惠州起義).<sup>[50]</sup> The revolutionary army was led by Zheng Shiliang and initially included 20,000 men, who fought for half a month. However, after the [Japanese Prime Minister](#) prohibited Sun Yat-sen from carrying out revolutionary activities on Taiwan, Zheng Shiliang had no choice but to order the army to disperse. This uprising therefore also failed. British soldier Rowland J. Mulkern participated in this uprising.<sup>[38]</sup>

### **Great Ming Uprising**

A very short uprising occurred from 25 to 28 January 1903, to establish a "Great Ming Heavenly Kingdom" (大明順天國).<sup>[51]</sup> This involved [Tse Tsan-tai](#), Li Jitang (李紀堂), Liang Muguang (梁慕光) and Hong Quanfu (洪全福), who formerly took part in the [Jintian uprising](#) during the [Taiping Heavenly Kingdom](#) era.<sup>[52]</sup>

### **Ping-liu-li Uprising**

Ma Fuyi (馬福益) and [Huaxinghui](#) was involved in an uprising in the three areas of [Pingxiang](#), [Liuyang](#) and [Liling](#), called "Ping-liu-li Uprising", (萍瀏醴起義) in 1905.<sup>[53]</sup> The uprising recruited miners as early as 1903 to rise against the Qing ruling class. After the uprising failed, Ma Fuyi was executed.<sup>[53]</sup>

### **Beijing Zhengyangmen East Railway assassination attempt**

Wu Yue (吳樾) of [Guangfuhui](#) carried out an assassination attempt at the Beijing Zhengyangmen East Railway station (正陽門車站) in an attack on five Qing officials on 24 September 1905.<sup>[13][54]</sup>

### **Huanggang Uprising**

The Huanggang Uprising (黃岡起義) was launched on 22 May 1907, in [Chaozhou](#).<sup>[55]</sup> The revolutionary party, along with Xu Xueqiu (許雪秋), Chen Yongpo (陳湧波) and Yu Tongshi (余通實), launched the uprising and captured Huanggang city.<sup>[55]</sup> Other Japanese that followed include 萱野長知 and 池亨吉.<sup>[55]</sup> After the uprising began, the Qing government quickly and forcefully suppressed it. Around 200 revolutionaries were killed.<sup>[56]</sup>

### **Huizhou Qinühu Uprising**

In the same year, Sun Yat-sen sent more revolutionaries to [Huizhou](#) to launch the "Huizhou Qinühu Uprising" (惠州七女湖起義).

<sup>[57]</sup> On 2 June, Deng Zhiyu (鄧子瑜) and Chen Chuan (陳純) gathered some followers, and together, they seized Qing arms in the lake, 20 km (12 mi) from Huizhou.<sup>[58]</sup> They killed several Qing soldiers and attacked Taiwei (泰尾) on 5 June.<sup>[58]</sup> The Qing army fled in disorder, and the revolutionaries exploited the opportunity, capturing several towns. They defeated the Qing army once again in Bazhiyie. Many organizations voiced their support after the uprising, and the number of revolutionary forces increased to two hundred men at its height. The uprising, however, ultimately failed.

### **Anqing Uprising**

On 6 July 1907, [Xu Xilin](#) of [Guangfuhui](#) led an uprising in [Anqing](#), Anhui, which became known as the Anqing Uprising (安慶起義).<sup>[25]</sup> Xu Xilin at the time was the police commissioner as well as the supervisor of the police academy. He led an uprising that was to assassinate the provincial governor of Anhui, En Ming (恩銘).<sup>[59]</sup> They were defeated after four hours of fighting. Xu was



captured, and En Ming's bodyguards cut out his heart and liver and ate them.<sup>[59]</sup> His cousin [Qiu Jin](#) was executed a few days later.<sup>[59]</sup>

### **Qinzhou Uprising**

From August to September 1907, the [Qinzhou](#) Uprising (欽州防城起義),<sup>[60]</sup> to protest against heavy taxation from the government. Sun Yat-sen sent Wang Heshun (王和順) there to assist the revolutionary army and captured the county in September.<sup>[61]</sup> After that, they attempted to besiege and capture Qinzhou, but they were unsuccessful. They eventually retreated to the area of Shiwandashan, while Wang Heshun returned to [Vietnam](#).

### **Zhennanguan Uprising**

On 1 December 1907, the Zhennanguan Uprising (鎮南關起事) took place at [Zhennanguan](#), a pass on the Chinese-Vietnamese border. Sun Yat-sen sent Huang Mintang (黃明堂) to monitor the pass, which was guarded by a fort.<sup>[61]</sup> With the assistance of supporters among the fort's defenders, the revolutionaries captured the cannon tower in Zhennanguan. Sun Yat-sen, [Huang Xing](#) and [Hu Hanmin](#) personally went to the tower to command the battle.<sup>[62]</sup> The Qing government sent troops led by [Long Jiguang](#) and [Lu Rongting](#) to counterattack, and the revolutionaries were forced to retreat into the mountainous areas. After the failure of this uprising, Sun was forced to move to Singapore due to [anti-Sun sentiments](#) within the revolutionary groups.<sup>[63]</sup> He would not return to the mainland until after the Wuchang Uprising.

### **Qin-lian Uprising**

On 27 March 1908, Huang Xing launched a raid, later known as the Qin-lian Uprising (欽廉上思起義), from a base in Vietnam and attacked the cities of [Qinzhou](#) and [Lianzhou](#) in

Guangdong. The struggle continued for fourteen days but was forced to terminate after the revolutionaries ran out of supplies.<sup>[64]</sup>

### **Hekou Uprising**

In April 1908, another uprising was launched in [Yunnan](#), Hekou, called the Hekou Uprising (雲南河口起義). Huang Mingtang (黃明堂) led two hundred men from Vietnam and attacked Hekou on 30 April. Other revolutionaries who participated include Wang Heshun (王和順) and Guan Renfu (關仁甫). They were outnumbered and defeated by government troops, however, and the uprising failed.<sup>[65]</sup>

### **Mapaoying Uprising**

On 19 November 1908, the Mapaoying Uprising (馬炮營起義) was launched by revolutionary group Yuewanghui (岳王會) member Xiong Chenggei (熊成基) at [Anhui](#).<sup>[66]</sup> Yuewanghui, at this time, was a subset of [Tongmenghui](#). This uprising also failed.

### **Gengxu New Army Uprising**

In February 1910, the Gengxu New Army Uprising (庚戌新軍起義), also known as the Guangzhou New Army Uprising (廣州新軍起義), took place.<sup>[67]</sup> This involved a conflict between the citizens and local police against the New Army. After revolutionary leader Ni Yingdian was killed by Qing forces, the remaining revolutionaries were quickly defeated, causing the uprising to fail.

### **Second Guangzhou Uprising**

On 27 April 1911, an uprising occurred in [Guangzhou](#), known as the Second Guangzhou Uprising (辛亥廣州起義) or Yellow Flower Mound Revolt (黃花岡之役). It ended in disaster,

as 86 bodies were found (only 72 could be identified).<sup>[68]</sup> The 72 revolutionaries were remembered as martyrs.<sup>[68]</sup> Revolutionary Lin Juemin (林覺民) was one of the 72. On the eve of battle, he wrote the legendary "A Letter to My Wife" (與妻訣別書), later to be considered as a masterpiece in Chinese literature.<sup>[69][70]</sup>

## **Wuchang Uprising**

The Literary Society (文學社) and the Progressive Association (共進會) were revolutionary organizations involved in the uprising that mainly began with a Railway Protection Movement protest.<sup>[24]</sup> In the late summer, some Hubei New Army units were ordered to neighboring Sichuan to quell the Railway Protection Movement, a mass protest against the Qing government's seizure and handover of local railway development ventures to foreign powers.<sup>[71]</sup> Banner officers like Duanfang, the railroad superintendent,<sup>[72]</sup> and Zhao Erfeng led the New Army against the Railway Protection Movement.

The New Army units of Hubei had originally been the Hubei Army, which had been trained by Qing official Zhang Zhidong.<sup>[3]</sup> On 24 September, the Literary Society and Progressive Association convened a conference in Wuchang, along with sixty representatives from local New Army units. During the conference, they established a headquarters for the uprising. The leaders of the two organizations, Jiang Yiwu (蔣翊武) and Sun Wu (孫武), were elected as commander and chief of staff. Initially, the date of the uprising was to be 6 October 1911.<sup>[73]</sup> It was postponed to a later date due to insufficient preparations.

Revolutionaries intent on overthrowing the Qing dynasty had built bombs, and on 9 October, one accidentally exploded.<sup>[73]</sup> Sun Yat-sen himself had no direct part in the uprising and was

traveling in the United States at the time in an effort to recruit more support from among overseas Chinese. The Qing [Viceroy of Huguang](#), Rui Cheng (瑞澂), tried to track down and arrest the revolutionaries.<sup>[74]</sup> Squad leader Xiong Bingkun (熊秉坤) and others decided not to delay the uprising any longer and launched the revolt on 10 October 1911, at 7 pm.<sup>[74]</sup> The revolt was a success; the entire city of Wuchang was captured by the revolutionaries on the morning of 11 October. That evening, they established a tactical headquarters and announced the establishment of the "Military Government of Hubei of Republic of China".<sup>[74]</sup> The conference chose [Li Yuanhong](#) as the governor of the temporary government.<sup>[74]</sup> Qing officers like the bannermen Duanfang and Zhao Erfeng were killed by the revolutionary forces.

## Provincial uprisings

### Map of uprisings during the 1911 Revolution

After the success of the Wuchang Uprising, many other protests occurred throughout the country for various reasons. Some of the uprisings declared restoration (光復) of the [Han Chinese](#) rule. Other uprisings were a step toward independence, and some were protests or rebellions against the local authorities.<sup>[citation needed]</sup> Regardless the reason for the uprising the outcome was that all provinces in the country renounced the Qing dynasty and joined the ROC.

## Changsha restoration

*Main article: [Battle of Changsha \(1911\)](#)*

On 22 October 1911, the [Hunan](#) Tongmenghui were led by Jiao Dafeng (焦達嶧) and Chen Zuoxin (陳作新).<sup>[75]</sup> They headed an armed group, consisting partly of revolutionaries

from [Hongjiang](#) and partly of defecting New Army units, in a campaign to extend the uprising into [Changsha](#).<sup>[75]</sup> They captured the city and killed the local Imperial general. Then they announced the establishment of the Hunan Military Government of the Republic of China and announced their opposition to the Qing Empire.<sup>[75]</sup>

## **Shaanxi Uprising**

On the same day, [Shaanxi](#)'s Tongmenghui, led by Jing Dingcheng (景定成) and Qian Ding (錢鼎) as well as Jing Wumu (井勿幕) and others including [Gelaohui](#), launched an uprising and captured [Xi'an](#) after two days of struggle.<sup>[76]</sup> The Hui Muslim community was divided in its support for the revolution. The Hui Muslims of Shaanxi supported the revolutionaries and the Hui Muslims of Gansu supported the Qing. The native Hui Muslims (Mohammedans) of Xi'an (Shaanxi province) joined the Han Chinese revolutionaries in slaughtering the Manchus.<sup>[77][78][79]</sup> The native Hui Muslims of Gansu province led by general [Ma Anliang](#) led more than twenty battalions of [Hui](#) Muslim troops to defend the Qing imperials and attacked Shaanxi, held by revolutionary Zhang Fenghui (張鳳翽).<sup>[80]</sup> The attack was successful, and after news arrived that Puyi was about to abdicate, Ma agreed to join the new Republic.<sup>[80]</sup> The revolutionaries established the "Qinlong Fuhan Military Government" and elected Zhang Fenghui, a member of the Yuanrizhi Society (原日知會), as new governor.<sup>[76]</sup> After the Xi'an Manchu quarter fell on 24 October, Xinhai forces killed all of the Manchus in the city, about 20,000 Manchus were killed in the massacre.<sup>[81][82]</sup> Many of its Manchu defenders committed suicide, including Qing general Wenrui (文瑞), who threw himself down a well.<sup>[81]</sup> Only some wealthy Manchus who were ransomed and Manchu females survived. Wealthy Han Chinese seized Manchu girls to become their slaves<sup>[83]</sup> and poor Han Chinese troops seized young

Manchu women to be their wives.<sup>[84]</sup> Young Manchu girls were also seized by Hui Muslims of Xi'an during the massacre and brought up as Muslims.<sup>[85]</sup>

### **Jiujiang Uprising**

On 23 October, [Lin Sen](#), Jiang Qun (蔣群), Cai Hui (蔡蕙) and other members of the Tongmenghui in the province of [Jiangxi](#) plotted a revolt of New Army units.<sup>[75][86]</sup> After they achieved victory, they announced their independence. The Jiujiang Military Government was then established.<sup>[86]</sup>

### **Shanxi Taiyuan Uprising**

On 29 October, [Yan Xishan](#) of the New Army led an uprising in [Taiyuan](#), the capital city of the province of [Shanxi](#), along with Yao Yijie (姚以價), Huang Guoliang (黃國梁), Wen Shouquan (溫壽泉), Li Chenglin (李成林), Zhang Shuzhi (張樹幟) and Qiao Xi (喬煦).<sup>[86][87]</sup>

The rebels in Taiyuan bombarded the streets where Banner people resided and killed all the Manchu.<sup>[88]</sup> They managed to kill the Qing Governor of Shanxi, Lu Zhongqi (陸鍾琦).<sup>[89]</sup> They then announced the establishment of Shanxi Military Government with Yan Xishan as the military governor.<sup>[76]</sup> Yan Xishan would later become one of the warlords that plagued China during what was known as "the warlord era".

### **Kunming Double Ninth Uprising**

On 30 October, Li Genyuan (李根源) of the Tongmenghui in [Yunnan](#) joined with [Cai E](#), Luo Peijin (羅佩金), [Tang Jiyao](#), and other officers of the New Army to launch the [Double Ninth Uprising](#) (重九起義).<sup>[90]</sup> They captured [Kunming](#) the next day and established the Yunnan Military Government, electing [Cai E](#) as the military governor.<sup>[86]</sup>

## **Nanchang restoration**

On 31 October, the [Nanchang](#) branch of the Tongmenghui led New Army units in a successful uprising. They established the Jiangxi Military Government.<sup>[75]</sup> [Li Liejun](#) was elected as the military governor.<sup>[86]</sup> Li declared [Jiangxi](#) as independent and launched an expedition against Qing official Yuan Shikai.<sup>[69]</sup>

## **Shanghai Armed Uprising**

On 3 November, Shanghai's Tongmenghui, Guangfuhui and merchants led by [Chen Qimei](#) (陳其美), Li Pingsu (李平書), Zhang Chengyou (張承燾), Li Yingshi (李英石), Li Xiehe (李燮和) and [Song Jiaoren](#) organized an armed rebellion in Shanghai.<sup>[86]</sup> They received the support of local police officers.<sup>[86]</sup> The rebels captured the Jiangnan Workshop on the 4th and captured Shanghai soon after. On 8 November, they established the Shanghai Military Government and elected Chen Qimei as the military governor.<sup>[86]</sup> He would eventually become one of the founders of the [ROC four big families](#), along with some of the most well-known families of the era.<sup>[91]</sup>

## **Guizhou Uprising**

On 4 November, Zhang Bailin (張百麟) of the revolutionary party in [Guizhou](#) led an uprising along with New Army units and students from the military academy. They immediately captured [Guiyang](#) and established the Great Han Guizhou Military Government, electing Yang Jincheng (楊蓋誠) and Zhao Dequan (趙德全) as the chief and vice governor respectively.<sup>[92]</sup>

## **Zhejiang Uprising**

Also on 4 November, revolutionaries in [Zhejiang](#) urged the New Army units in [Hangzhou](#) to launch an uprising.<sup>[86]</sup> Zhu Rui (朱瑞), Wu Siyu (吳思豫), Lu Gongwang (呂公望) and others of the New Army captured the military supplies workshop.<sup>[86]</sup> Other units, led by [Chiang Kai-shek](#) and Yin Zhirei (尹銳志), captured most of the government offices.<sup>[86]</sup> Eventually, Hangzhou was under the control of the revolutionaries, and the constitutionalist Tang Shouqian (湯壽潛) was elected as the military governor.<sup>[86]</sup>

### **Jiangsu restoration**

On 5 November, [Jiangsu](#) constitutionalists and gentry urged Qing governor Cheng Dequan (程德全) to announce independence and established the Jiangsu Revolutionary Military Government with Cheng himself as the governor.<sup>[86][93]</sup> Unlike some of the other cities, anti-Manchu violence began after the restoration on 7 November in [Zhenjiang](#).<sup>[94]</sup> Qing general Zaimu (載穆) agreed to surrender, but because of a misunderstanding, the revolutionaries were unaware that their safety was guaranteed.<sup>[94]</sup> The Manchu quarters were ransacked, and an unknown number of Manchus were killed.<sup>[94]</sup> Zaimu, feeling betrayed, committed suicide.<sup>[94]</sup> This is regarded as the Zhenjiang Uprising (鎮江起義).<sup>[95][96]</sup>

### **Anhui Uprising**

Members of [Anhui](#)'s Tongmenghui also launched an uprising on that day and laid siege to the provincial capital. The constitutionalists persuaded [Zhu Jiabao](#) (朱家寶), the Qing Governor of Anhui, to announce independence.<sup>[97]</sup>

### **Guangxi Uprising**



On 7 November, the [Guangxi](#) politics department decided to secede from the Qing government, announcing Guangxi's independence. Qing Governor Shen Bingkun (沈秉堃) was allowed to remain governor, but [Lu Rongting](#) would soon become the new governor.<sup>[61]</sup> Lu Rongting would later rise to prominence during the "warlord era" as one of the warlords, and his bandits controlled Guangxi for more than a decade.<sup>[98]</sup> Under the leadership of [Huang Shaohong](#), the Muslim law student [Bai Chongxi](#) was enlisted into a Dare to Die unit to fight as a revolutionary.<sup>[99]</sup>

### **Fujian independence**

One of the old buildings occupied by the [Guangfuhui](#) in [Lianjiang County](#), Fujian

In November, members of [Fujian](#)'s branch of the Tongmenghui, along with Sun Daoren (孫道仁) of the New Army, launched an uprising against the Qing army.<sup>[100][101]</sup> The Qing viceroy, Song Shou (松壽), committed suicide.<sup>[102]</sup> On 11 November, the entire Fujian province declared independence.<sup>[100]</sup> The Fujian Military Government was established, and Sun Daoren was elected as the military governor.<sup>[100]</sup>

### **Guangdong independence**

Near the end of October, [Chen Jiongming](#), Deng Keng (鄧鏗), Peng Reihai (彭瑞海) and other members of Guangdong's Tongmenghui organized local militias to launch the uprising in [Huazhou](#), [Nanhai](#), [Sunde](#) and [Sanshui](#) in Guangdong Province.<sup>[76][103]</sup> On 8 November, after being persuaded by [Hu Hanmin](#), General Li Zhun (李準) and Long Jiguang (龍濟光) of the Guangdong Navy agreed to support the revolution.<sup>[76]</sup> The Qing [viceroy of Liangguang](#), Zhang Mingqi (張鳴岐), was forced to discuss with the local representatives a proposal for

Guangdong's independence.<sup>[76]</sup> They decided to announce it the next day. Chen Jiongming then captured [Huizhou](#). On 9 November, Guangdong announced its independence and established a military government.<sup>[104]</sup> They elected Hu Hanmin and Chen Jiongming as the chief and vice-governor.<sup>[105]</sup> [Qiu Fengjia](#) is known to have helped make the independence declaration more peaceful.<sup>[104]</sup> It was unknown at the time if representatives from the European colonies of [Hong Kong](#) and [Macau](#) would be ceded to the new government.<sup>[clarification needed]</sup>

### **Shandong independence**

On 13 November, after being persuaded by revolutionary [Ding Weifen](#) and several other officers of the New Army, the Qing governor of [Shandong](#), [Sun Baoqi](#), agreed to secede from the Qing government and announced Shandong's independence.<sup>[76]</sup>

### **Ningxia Uprising**

On 17 November, [Ningxia](#) Tongmenghui launched the Ningxia Uprising (寧夏會黨起義). The revolutionaries sent [Yu Youren](#) to [Zhangjiachuan](#) to meet [Dungan Sufi](#) master [Ma Yuanzhang](#) to persuade him not to support the Qing. However, Ma did not want to endanger his relationship with the Qings. He sent the eastern [Gansu](#) Muslim militia under the command of one of his sons to help [Ma Qi](#) crush the Ningxia Gelaohui.<sup>[106][107]</sup> However, the Ningxia Revolutionary Military Government was established on 23 November.<sup>[76]</sup> Some of the revolutionaries involved included Huang Yue (黃鉞) and Xiang Shen (向燊), who gathered New Army forces at Qinzhou (秦州).<sup>[108][109]</sup>

### **Sichuan independence**

On 21 November, [Guang'an](#) organized the Great Han [Shu](#) Northern Military Government.<sup>[76][110]</sup>

On 22 November, [Chengdu](#) and [Sichuan](#) began to declare independence. By the 27th, the Great Han Sichuan Military Government was established, headed by revolutionary Pu Dianzun (蒲殿俊).<sup>[76]</sup> Qing official [Duan Fang](#) (端方) would also be killed.<sup>[76]</sup>

## Nanking Uprising

1911 battle at Ta-ping gate, Nanking. Painting by T. Miyano.

On 8 November, supported by the Tongmenghui, Xu Shaozhen (徐紹楨) of the New Army announced an uprising in Molin Pass (秣陵關), 30 km (19 mi) away from [Nanking City](#).<sup>[76]</sup> Xu Shaozhen, Chen Qimei and other generals decided to form a united army under Xu to strike Nanking together. On 11 November, the united army headquarters was established in Zhenjiang. Between 24 November and 1 December, under the command of Xu Shaozhen, the united army captured Wulongshan (烏龍山), Mufushan (幕府山), Yuhuatai (雨花臺), Tianbao City (天保城) and many other strongholds of the Qing army.<sup>[76]</sup> On 2 December, Nanking City was captured by the revolutionaries after the Battle of Nanking, 1911.<sup>[76]</sup> On 3 December, revolutionary Su Liangbi led troops in a massacre of a large number of Manchus (the exact number is not known).<sup>[111]</sup> He was shortly afterward arrested, and his troops disbanded.<sup>[111]</sup>

## Tibetan independence

*Main articles: [Xinhai Lhasa turmoil](#) and [Tibet \(1912–1951\)](#)*

In 1905, the Qing sent [Zhao Erfeng](#) to Tibet to retaliate against [rebellions](#).<sup>[112]</sup> By 1908, Zhao was appointed [imperial resident](#) in [Lhasa](#).<sup>[112]</sup> Zhao was beheaded in December 1911 by pro-[Republican](#) forces.<sup>[113]</sup> The bulk of the area that was historically known as [Kham](#) was now claimed to be the [Xikang Administrative District](#), created by the Republican revolutionaries.<sup>[114]</sup> By the end of 1912, the last Manchu troops were forced out of Tibet through

India. [Thubten Gyatso](#), the 13th [Dalai Lama](#), returned to Tibet in January 1913 from [Sikkim](#), where he had been residing.<sup>[115]</sup> When the new ROC government apologised for the actions of the Qing and offered to restore the Dalai Lama to his former position, he replied that he was not interested in Chinese ranks, that Tibet had never been subordinated to China, that Tibet was an independent country, and that he was assuming the spiritual and political leadership of Tibet.<sup>[115]</sup> Because of this, many have read this reply as a formal declaration of independence. The Chinese side ignored the response, and Tibet had thirty years free of interference from China.<sup>[115]</sup>

### **Mongolian independence**

*Main articles: [Mongolian Revolution of 1911](#) and [Bogd Khanate of Mongolia](#)*

At the end of 1911, the Mongols took action with an armed revolt against the Manchu authorities but were unsuccessful in the attempt.<sup>[116]</sup> The independence movement that took place was not limited to just North (outer) Mongolia but was also a pan-Mongolian phenomenon.<sup>[116]</sup> On 29 December 1911, [Bogd Khan](#) became the leader of the Mongol empire. [Inner Mongolia](#) became a contested terrain between Khan and the Republic.<sup>[117]</sup> In general, Russia supported the [Independence of Outer Mongolia](#) (including [Tannu Uriankhai](#)) during the time of the 1911 Revolution.<sup>[118]</sup> Tibet and Mongolia then recognized each other in a treaty.

### **Dihua and Yili Uprising**

*Main article: [Xinhai Revolution in Xinjiang](#)*

In [Xinjiang](#) on 28 December, Liu Xianzun (劉先俊) and the revolutionaries started the [Dihua](#) Uprising (迪化起義).<sup>[119]</sup> This was led by more than 100 members of Geilaohui.<sup>[120]</sup> This uprising failed. On 7 January 1912, the [Yili](#) Uprising (伊犁起義) with [Feng](#)

[Temin \[zh\]](#) (馮特民) began.<sup>[119][120]</sup> Qing governor [Yuan Dahua \[zh\]](#) (袁大化) fled and handed over his resignation to [Yang Zengxin](#), because he could not handle fighting the revolutionaries.<sup>[121]</sup>

In the morning of 8 January, a new Yili government was established for the revolutionaries,<sup>[120]</sup> but the revolutionaries would be defeated at [Jinghe](#) in January and February.<sup>[121][122]</sup> Eventually because of the abdication to come, Yuan Shikai recognized Yang Zengxin's rule, appointed him Governor of Xinjiang and had the province join the Republic.<sup>[121]</sup> Eleven more former Qing officials would be assassinated in [Zhenxi](#), [Karashahr](#), [Aksu](#), [Kucha](#), [Luntai](#) and [Kashgar](#) in April and May 1912.<sup>[121]</sup>

The revolutionaries printed a new multi-lingual media.<sup>[123]</sup>

## **Taiwan Uprising**

In 1911, the Tongmenghui sent [Luo Fu-xing \[zh; ja\]](#) (羅福星) to the [island of Taiwan](#) to wrest it from [Japanese control](#).<sup>[124]</sup> The goal was to bring Taiwan island into the Chinese Republic by inciting the Taiwan Uprising (台灣起義).<sup>[125]</sup> Luo was caught and killed on 3 March 1914.<sup>[126]</sup> What was left was known as the "[Miaoli Incident \[zh; ja\]](#)" (苗栗事件), with the name referring to [Miaoli County](#), where more than 1,000 Taiwanese were executed by the Japanese police.<sup>[127]</sup> Luo's sacrifice is commemorated in Miaoli.<sup>[126]</sup>

## **North: Qing court last transformation attempt**

On 1 November 1911, the Qing government appointed Yuan Shikai as the prime minister of the imperial cabinet, replacing [Prince Qing](#).<sup>[128]</sup> On 3 November, after a proposition by [Cen Chunxuan](#) from the [Constitutional Monarchy Movement \[zh\]](#) (立憲運動), in 1903, the Qing

court passed the [Nineteen Articles](#) [zh] (憲法重大信條十九條), which turned the Qing from an [autocratic](#) system with the emperor having unlimited power to a [constitutional monarchy](#).<sup>[129][130]</sup> On 9 November, [Huang Xing](#) even cabled Yuan Shikai and invited him to join the Republic.<sup>[131]</sup> The court changes were too late, and the emperor was about to have to step down.

## **South: Government in Nanking**

*Main article: [Provisional Government of the Republic of China \(1912\)](#)*

On 28 November 1911, Wuchang and [Hanyang](#) had fallen back to the Qing army. So for safety, the revolutionaries convened their first conference at the British concession in [Hankou](#) on 30 November.<sup>[132]</sup> By 2 December, the revolutionary forces were able to [capture Nanking in the uprising](#); and the revolutionaries decided to make it the site of the new provisional government.<sup>[133]</sup> At the time, Beijing was still the Qing capital.

## **North–South Conference**

[Tang Shaoyi](#), left. Edward Selby Little, middle. [Wu Tingfang](#), right.

On 18 December, the [North–South Conference](#) [zh] (南北議和) was held in Shanghai to discuss the north and south issues.<sup>[134]</sup> The reluctance of foreign financiers to give financial support to Qing government or the revolutionaries contributed to both sides agreeing to start negotiations.<sup>[135]</sup> Yuan Shikai selected [Tang Shaoyi](#) as his representative.<sup>[134]</sup> Tang left Beijing for Wuhan to negotiate with the revolutionaries.<sup>[134]</sup> The revolutionaries chose [Wu Tingfang](#).<sup>[134]</sup> With the intervention of six foreign powers, the United Kingdom, the United States, Germany, [Russia](#), Japan, and France, Tang Shaoyi and Wu Tingfang began to negotiate a

settlement at the British [concession](#).<sup>[136]</sup> Foreign businessman Edward Selby Little (李德立) acted as the negotiator and facilitated the peace agreement.<sup>[137]</sup> They agreed that Yuan Shikai would force the Qing emperor to abdicate in exchange for the southern provinces' support of Yuan as the president of the Republic. After considering the possibility that the new republic might be defeated in a civil war or by foreign invasion, Sun Yat-sen agreed to Yuan's proposal to unify China under Yuan Shikai's Beijing government. Further decisions were made to let the emperor rule over his little court in the [New Summer Palace](#). He would be treated as a ruler of a separate country and have expenses of several million [taels](#) in silver.<sup>[138]</sup>

## Sun Yat-sen

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**Sun Yat-sen** (/ˈsʌn ˌjætˈsɛn/; born **Sun Deming**; 12 November 1866 – 12 March 1925)<sup>[1][2]</sup> was a Chinese statesman, physician, and [political philosopher](#), who served as the provisional first president of the [Republic of China](#) and the first leader of the [Kuomintang](#) (Nationalist Party of China). He is referred as the "[Father of the Nation](#)" in the Republic of China, and as the "Forerunner of the Revolution" in the People's Republic of China for his instrumental role in the overthrow of the Qing dynasty during the [Xinhai Revolution](#). Sun is unique among 20th-century Chinese leaders for being widely revered in both mainland China and Taiwan.<sup>[3]</sup>

Sun is considered to be one of the greatest leaders of modern China, but his political life was one of constant struggle and frequent exile. After the success of the revolution in 1911, he quickly resigned as President of the newly founded Republic of China and relinquished it to [Yuan Shikai](#). He soon went to exile in Japan for safety but returned to found a revolutionary government in the South as a challenge to the [warlords](#) who controlled much of the nation. In 1923, he invited

representatives of the [Communist International](#) to Canton to re-organize his party and formed a brittle alliance with the [Chinese Communist Party](#). He did not live to see his party unify the country under his successor, [Chiang Kai-shek](#) in the [Northern Expedition](#). He died in Beijing of [gallbladder cancer](#) on 12 March 1925.<sup>[4]</sup>

Sun's chief legacy is his political philosophy known as the [Three Principles of the People](#): *Mínzú* (民族主義, *Mínzú Zhūyì*) or nationalism (independence from foreign domination), *Mínquán* (民權主義, *Mínquán Zhūyì*) or "rights of the people" (sometimes translated as "democracy"), and *Mínshēng* (民生主義, *Mínshēng Zhūyì*) or people's livelihood (sometimes translated as "communitarianism" or "welfare").<sup>[5][6][7]</sup>



Sun's [genealogical name](#) was **Sun Deming** (*Syūn Dāk-mìhng*; 孫德明).<sup>[1][8]</sup> As a child, his [pet name](#) was Tai Tseung (*Dai-jeuhng*; 帝象).<sup>[1]</sup> When in school, the teacher named him **Sun Wen** ([Cantonese](#): *Syūn Mǎhn*; 孫文), which was the name Sun called himself in the most time of his life. Sun's [courtesy name](#) was Zaizhi (*Jai-jī*; 載之), and his baptized name was Rixin (*Yaht-sān*; 日新).<sup>[9]</sup> While at school in Hong Kong he got the [art name](#) Yat-sen (Chinese: 逸仙; pinyin: *Yìxiān*).<sup>[10]</sup> **Sūn Zhōngshān** (孫中山), the most popular of his Chinese names, is derived from his [Japanese name](#) *Nakayama Shō* (中山樵), the pseudonym given to him by [Tōten Miyazaki](#) while in hiding in Japan.<sup>[1]</sup>

Early years[[edit](#)]

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**Birthplace and early life**[[edit](#)]



Sun Deming was born on 12 November 1866 to Sun Dacheng and [Madame Yang](#).<sup>[2]</sup> His birthplace was the village of [Cuiheng](#), [Xiangshan County](#) (now [Zhongshan City](#)), [Guangdong](#).<sup>[2]</sup> He had a cultural background of [Hakka](#)<sup>[11][12]</sup> and [Cantonese](#). His father owned very little land and worked as a tailor in [Macau](#), and as a journeyman and a porter.<sup>[13]</sup> After finishing primary education, he moved to [Honolulu](#) in the [Kingdom of Hawaii](#), where he lived a comfortable life of modest wealth supported by his elder brother Sun Mei.<sup>[14][15][16][17]</sup>

### **Education years**[\[edit\]](#)

At the age of 10, Sun began seeking schooling,<sup>[1]</sup> and he met childhood friend [Lu Haodong](#).<sup>[1]</sup> By age 13 in 1878, after receiving a few years of local schooling, Sun went to live with his elder brother, [Sun Mei](#) (孫眉) in [Honolulu](#).<sup>[1]</sup> Sun Mei financed Sun Yat-sen's education and would later be a major contributor for the overthrow of the Manchus.<sup>[14][15][16][17]</sup>

During his stay in Honolulu, Sun Yat-sen went to [ʻIolani School](#) where he studied English, [British history](#), [mathematics](#), science, and Christianity.<sup>[1]</sup> While he was originally unable to speak English, Sun Yat-sen quickly picked up the language and received a prize for academic achievement from [King David Kalākaua](#) before graduating in 1882.<sup>[18]</sup> He then attended [Oahu College](#) (now known as [Punahou School](#)) for one semester.<sup>[1][19]</sup> In 1883 he was sent home to China as his brother was becoming worried that Sun Yat-sen was beginning to embrace Christianity.<sup>[1]</sup>

When he returned to China in 1883 at age 17, Sun met up with his childhood friend Lu Haodong again at Beijidian (北極殿), a temple in Cuiheng Village.<sup>[1]</sup> They saw many villagers

worshipping the Beiji (literally *North Pole*) Emperor-God in the temple, and were dissatisfied with their ancient healing methods.<sup>[1]</sup> They broke the statue, incurring the wrath of fellow villagers, and escaped to Hong Kong.<sup>[1][20][21]</sup> While in Hong Kong in 1883 he studied at the [Diocesan Boys' School](#), and from 1884 to 1886 he was at [The Government Central School](#).<sup>[22]</sup> In 1886 Sun studied medicine at the [Guangzhou Boji Hospital](#) under the Christian missionary [John G. Kerr](#).<sup>[1]</sup> According to his book "Kidnapped in London," Sun in 1887 heard of the opening of the [Hong Kong College of Medicine for Chinese](#) (the forerunner of [The University of Hong Kong](#)) and immediately decided to benefit from the "advantages it offered."<sup>[23]</sup> Ultimately, he earned the license of Christian practice as a [medical doctor](#) from there in 1892.<sup>[1][10]</sup> Notably, of his class of 12 students, Sun was one of the only two who graduated.<sup>[24][25][26]</sup>

Religious views and Christian baptism[[edit](#)]

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In the early 1880s, Sun Mei sent his brother to ['Iolani School](#), which was under the supervision of [British Anglicans](#) and directed by an Anglican prelate named [Alfred Willis](#), with the language of instruction being [English](#). At the school, a young Sun Wen first came in contact with Christianity. In his work, Schriffin speculated that Christianity was to have a great influence on Sun's future political career.<sup>[27]</sup>

Sun was later [baptized](#) in [Hong Kong](#) (on 4 May 1884) by [Rev. C. R. Hager](#)<sup>[28][29][30]</sup> an American missionary of the Congregational Church of the United States ([ABC FM](#)) to his brother's disdain. The minister would also develop a friendship with Sun.<sup>[31][32]</sup> Sun attended To Tsai Church ([道濟會堂](#)), founded by the [London Missionary Society](#) in 1888,<sup>[33]</sup> while he studied Western Medicine in [Hong Kong College of Medicine for Chinese](#). Sun pictured a

revolution as similar to the salvation mission of the [Christian church](#). His conversion to Christianity was related to his revolutionary ideals and push for advancement.<sup>[32]</sup>

Transformation into a revolutionary

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During the [Qing-dynasty](#) rebellion around 1888, Sun was in Hong Kong with a group of revolutionary thinkers who were nicknamed the [Four Bandits](#) at the [Hong Kong College of Medicine for Chinese](#).<sup>[34]</sup> Sun, who had grown [increasingly frustrated](#) by the conservative Qing government and its refusal to adopt knowledge from the more technologically advanced Western nations, quit his medical practice in order to devote his time to transforming China.<sup>[citation needed]</sup>

**Furen and Revive China Society**[\[edit\]](#)

In 1891, Sun met revolutionary friends in Hong Kong including [Yeung Ku-wan](#) who was the leader and founder of the [Furen Literary Society](#).<sup>[35]</sup> The group was spreading the idea of overthrowing the Qing. In 1894, Sun wrote an 8,000 character petition to Qing [Viceroy Li Hongzhang](#) presenting his ideas for modernizing China.<sup>[36][37][38]</sup> He traveled to [Tianjin](#) to personally present the petition to Li but was not granted an audience.<sup>[39]</sup> After this experience, Sun turned irrevocably toward revolution. He left China for Hawaii and founded the [Revive China Society](#), which was committed to revolutionizing China's prosperity. Members were drawn mainly from Chinese expatriates, especially the lower social classes. The same month in 1894 the Furen Literary Society was merged with the Hong Kong chapter of the Revive China Society.<sup>[35]</sup> Thereafter, Sun became the secretary of the newly merged Revive China society, which Yeung Ku-wan headed as president.<sup>[40]</sup> They disguised their activities in Hong Kong under the running of a business under the name "Kuen Hang Club"<sup>[41]:90</sup> (乾亨行).<sup>[42]</sup>

**First Sino-Japanese War**[\[edit\]](#)

In 1895, China suffered a serious defeat during the [First Sino-Japanese War](#). There were two types of responses. One group of intellectuals contended that the [Manchu](#) Qing government could restore its legitimacy by successfully modernizing.<sup>[43]</sup> Stressing that overthrowing the Manchu would result in chaos and would lead to China being carved up by imperialists, intellectuals like [Kang Youwei](#) and [Liang Qichao](#) supported responding with initiatives like the [Hundred Days' Reform](#).<sup>[43]</sup> In another faction, Sun Yat-sen and others like [Zou Rong](#) wanted a revolution to replace the dynastic system with a modern nation-state in the form of a republic.<sup>[43]</sup> The Hundred Days' reform turned out to be a failure by 1898.<sup>[44]</sup>

From uprising to exile[\[edit\]](#)

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**First Guangzhou uprising**[\[edit\]](#)

In the second year of the establishment of the Revive China society on 26 October 1895, the group planned and launched the [First Guangzhou uprising](#) against the Qing in [Guangzhou](#).<sup>[37]</sup> [Yeung Ku-wan](#) directed the uprising starting from Hong Kong.<sup>[40]</sup> However, plans were leaked out and more than 70 members, including [Lu Haodong](#), were captured by the Qing government. The uprising was a failure. Sun received financial support mostly from his brother who sold most of his 12,000 acres of ranch and cattle in Hawaii.<sup>[14]</sup> Additionally, members of his family and relatives of Sun would take refuge at the home of his brother Sun Mei at Kamaole in [Kula, Maui](#).<sup>[14][15][16][17][45]</sup>

**Exile in Japan**[\[edit\]](#)

Sun Yat-sen spent time living in Japan while in exile. He was supported by the Japanese politician [Tōten Miyazaki](#). Most Japanese who actively worked with Sun were motivated by a [pan-Asian](#) opposition to [Western imperialism](#).<sup>[46]</sup> While in Japan, Sun also met and befriended [Mariano Ponce](#), then a diplomat of the [First Philippine Republic](#).<sup>[47]</sup> During the [Philippine Revolution](#) and the [Filipino-American War](#), Sun helped Ponce procure weapons salvaged from the [Japanese military](#) and ship the weapons to the [Philippines](#). By helping the Philippine Republic, Sun hoped that the Filipinos would win their independence so that he could use the archipelago as a staging point of another revolution. However, as the war ended in July 1902, the [United States](#) emerged victorious from a bitter 3-year war against the Republic. Therefore, the Filipino dream of independence vanished with Sun's hopes of collaborating with the Philippines in his revolution in China.<sup>[48]</sup>

### **Huizhou uprising in China**[\[edit\]](#)

On 22 October 1900, Sun launched the [Huizhou uprising](#) to attack [Huizhou](#) and provincial authorities in Guangdong.<sup>[49]</sup> This came five years after the failed Guangzhou uprising. This time, Sun appealed to the [triads](#) for help.<sup>[50]</sup> This uprising was also a failure. Miyazaki, who participated in the revolt with Sun, wrote an account of this revolutionary effort under the title "33-year dream" (三十三年之夢) in 1902.<sup>[51][52]</sup>

### **Further exile**[\[edit\]](#)

Sun was in exile not only in Japan but also in Europe, the United States, and Canada. He raised money for his revolutionary party and to support uprisings in China. While the events leading up to it are unclear, in 1896 Sun Yat-sen was detained at the [Chinese Legation in London](#), where the Chinese Imperial secret service planned to smuggle him back to China to execute him for his

revolutionary actions.<sup>[53]</sup> He was released after 12 days through the efforts of [James Cantlie](#), *The Globe*, *The Times*, and the [Foreign Office](#); leaving Sun a hero in Britain.<sup>[note 1]</sup> James Cantlie, Sun's former teacher at the Hong Kong College of Medicine for Chinese, maintained a lifelong friendship with Sun and would later write an early biography of Sun.<sup>[55]</sup> Sun wrote a book in 1897 about his detention, titled "Kidnapped in London."<sup>[23]</sup>

### **Heaven and Earth Society, overseas travel**[\[edit\]](#)

A "Heaven and Earth Society" sect known as [Tiandihui](#) had been around for a long time.<sup>[56]</sup> The group has also been referred to as the "three cooperating organizations" as well as the [triads](#).<sup>[56]</sup> Sun Yat-sen mainly used this group to leverage his overseas travels to gain further financial and resource support for his revolution.<sup>[56]</sup> According to the New York Times "Sun Yat-sen left his village in Guangdong, southern China, in 1879 to join a brother in Hawaii. He eventually returned to China and from there moved to the [British colony of Hong Kong](#) in 1883. It was there that he received his Western education, his Christian faith and the money for revolution."<sup>[57]</sup> This is where Sun Yat-sen realized that China needed to change its ways. He knew that the only way that China would change and modernize would be to overthrow the Qing Dynasty.

According to Lee Yun-ping, chairman of the Chinese historical society, Sun needed a certificate to enter the United States at a time when the [Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882](#) would have otherwise blocked him.<sup>[58]</sup> However, on Sun's first attempt to enter the US, he was still arrested.<sup>[58]</sup> He was later bailed out after 17 days.<sup>[58]</sup> In March 1904, while residing in [Kula, Maui](#), Sun Yat-sen obtained a Certificate of Hawaiian Birth, issued by the [Territory of Hawaii](#), stating that "he was born in the [Hawaiian Islands](#) on the 24th day of November, A.D. 1870."<sup>[59][60]</sup> He renounced it after it served its purpose to circumvent the Chinese Exclusion Act

of 1882.<sup>[60]</sup> Official files of the United States show that Sun had United States nationality, moved to China with his family at age 4, and returned to Hawaii 10 years later.<sup>[61]</sup>

Revolution[[edit](#)]

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## **Tongmenghui**[[edit](#)]

In 1904, Sun Yat-sen came about with the goal "to expel the [Tatar](#) barbarians (i.e. [Manchu](#)), to revive [Zhonghua](#), to establish a Republic, and to [distribute land](#) equally among the people" (驅除韃虜, 恢復中華, 創立民國, 平均地權).<sup>[62]</sup> One of Sun's major legacies was the creation of his political philosophy of the [Three Principles of the People](#). These Principles included the principle of nationalism (minzu, 民族), of democracy (minquan, 民權), and of welfare (minsheng, 民生).<sup>[62]</sup>

On 20 August 1905, Sun joined forces with revolutionary Chinese students studying in Tokyo to form the unified group [Tongmenghui](#) (United League), which sponsored uprisings in China.<sup>[62][63]</sup> By 1906 the number of Tongmenghui members reached 963 people.<sup>[62]</sup>

## **Malaya support**[[edit](#)]

The [Sun Yat-sen Museum](#) in [George Town](#), Penang, Malaysia, where he planned the [Xinhai Revolution](#).<sup>[64]</sup>

Sun's notability and popularity extends beyond the [Greater China](#) region, particularly to [Nanyang](#) (Southeast Asia), where a large concentration of [overseas Chinese](#) resided in [Malaya](#) ([Malaysia](#) and Singapore). While in Singapore, he met local Chinese merchants Teo Eng Hock (張永福), Tan Chor Nam (陳楚楠) and Lim Nee Soon (林義順), which mark the

commencement of direct support from the Nanyang Chinese. The Singapore chapter of the Tongmenghui was established on 6 April 1906,<sup>[65]</sup> though some records claim the founding date to be end of 1905.<sup>[65]</sup> The villa used by Sun was known as Wan Qing Yuan.<sup>[65][66]</sup> At this point Singapore was the headquarters of the Tongmenghui.<sup>[65]</sup>

Thus, after founding the Tong Meng Hui, Dr Sun advocated the establishment of The Chong Shing Yit Pao as the alliance's mouthpiece to promote revolutionary ideas. Later, he initiated the establishment of reading clubs across Singapore and Malaysia, in order to disseminate revolutionary ideas among the lower class through public readings of newspaper stories. The United Chinese Library, founded on 8 August 1910, was one such reading club, first set up at leased property on the second floor of the Wan He Salt Traders in North Boat Quay.<sup>[67][citation needed]</sup>

The first actual United Chinese Library building was built between 1908 and 1911 below Fort Canning – 51 Armenian Street, commenced operations in 1912. The library was set up as a part of the 50 reading rooms by the Chinese Republicans to serve as an information station and liaison point for the revolutionaries. In 1987, the library was moved to its present site at Cantonment Road. But the Armenian Street building is still intact with the plaque at its entrance with Sun Yat Sen's words. With an initial membership of over 400, the library has about 180 members today. Although the United Chinese Library, with 102 years of history, was not the only reading club in Singapore during the time, today it is the only one of its kind remaining.<sup>[citation needed]</sup>

### **Siamese support**<sup>[edit]</sup>

In 1903, Sun made a secret trip to Bangkok in which he sought funds for his cause in Southeast Asia. His loyal followers published newspapers, providing invaluable support to the



dissemination of his revolutionary principles and ideals among [Chinese descent](#) in Thailand. In Bangkok, Sun visited [Yaowarat Road](#), in [Bangkok's Chinatown](#). It was on this street that Sun gave a speech claiming that overseas Chinese were "the Mother of the Revolution". He also met local Chinese merchants Seow Houtseng,<sup>[68]</sup> whose sent financial support to him.

Sun's speech on Yaowarat street was commemorated by the street later being named "Sun Yat Sen Street" or "Soi Sun Yat Sen" ([Thai](#): ซอยซุนยัตเซ็น) in his honour.<sup>[69]</sup>

### **Zhennanguan uprising**[\[edit\]](#)

On 1 December 1907, Sun led the [Zhennanguan uprising](#) against the Qing at [Friendship Pass](#), which is the border between [Guangxi](#) and [Vietnam](#).<sup>[70]</sup> The uprising failed after seven days of fighting.<sup>[70][71]</sup> In 1907 there were a total of four uprisings that failed including [Huanggang uprising](#), [Huizhou seven women lake uprising](#) and [Qinzhou uprising](#).<sup>[65]</sup> In 1908 two more uprisings failed one after another including [Qin-lian uprising](#) and [Hekou uprising](#).<sup>[65]</sup>

### **Anti-Sun movements**[\[edit\]](#)

Because of these failures, Sun's leadership was challenged by elements from within the Tongmenghui who wished to remove him as leader. In Tokyo 1907–1908 members from the recently merged [Restoration society](#) raised doubts about Sun's credentials.<sup>[65]</sup> Tao Chengzhang (陶成章) and [Zhang Binglin](#) publicly denounced Sun with an open leaflet called "A declaration of Sun Yat-sen's criminal acts by the revolutionaries in Southeast Asia".<sup>[65]</sup> This was printed and distributed in reformist newspapers like Nanyang Zonghui Bao.<sup>[65][72]</sup> Their goal was to target Sun as a leader leading a revolt for [profiteering](#) gains.<sup>[65]</sup>

The revolutionaries were polarized and split between pro-Sun and anti-Sun camps.<sup>[65]</sup> Sun publicly fought off comments about how he had something to gain financially from the

revolution.<sup>[65]</sup> However, by 19 July 1910, the Tongmenghui headquarters had to relocate from Singapore to [Penang](#) to reduce the anti-Sun activities.<sup>[65]</sup> It is also in Penang that Sun and his supporters would launch the first Chinese "daily" newspaper, the [Kwong Wah Yit Poh](#) in December 1910.<sup>[70]</sup>

## **1911 revolution**[\[edit\]](#)

To sponsor more uprisings, Sun made a personal plea for financial aid at the [Penang conference](#) held on 13 November 1910 in [Malaya](#).<sup>[73]</sup> The leaders launched a major drive for donations across the [Malay Peninsula](#).<sup>[73]</sup> They raised [HK\\$187,000](#).<sup>[73]</sup>

On 27 April 1911, revolutionary [Huang Xing](#) led a second Guangzhou uprising known as the [Yellow Flower Mound revolt](#) against the Qing. The revolt failed and ended in disaster; the bodies of only 72 revolutionaries were found.<sup>[74]</sup> The revolutionaries are remembered as [martyrs](#).<sup>[74]</sup>

On 10 October 1911, a military [uprising at Wuchang](#) took place led again by [Huang Xing](#). At the time, Sun had no direct involvement as he was still in exile. Huang was in charge of the revolution that ended over 2000 years of imperial rule in China. When Sun learned of the successful rebellion against the [Qing emperor](#) from press reports, he returned to China from the United States accompanied by his closest foreign advisor, the American, "General" [Homer Lea](#). He met Lea in London, where he and Lea unsuccessfully tried to arrange British financing for the new Chinese republic. Sun and Lea then sailed for China, arriving there on 21 December 1911.<sup>[75]</sup>

The uprising expanded to the [Xinhai Revolution](#) also known as the "Chinese Revolution" to overthrow the last Emperor [Puyi](#). After this event, 10 October became known as the commemoration of [Double Ten Day](#).<sup>[76]</sup>