I. Reversal of Fortune: China’s Century of Crisis

A. The Crisis Within

1. Dramatic population growth and pressures on the land:

   Thanks to its economic success and the increasing agricultural output from New World crops, China’s population shot up from 100 million in 1685 to 430 million in 1853. This success created a looming environmental problem as China began to run out of exploitable resources. Its expansion in the West did not give it the rich New World windfall that Europe enjoyed. Thus, poverty, unemployment, and other social ills began to grow.

2. Central state bureaucracy fails to grow and weakens:

   Imperial China’s once-efficient bureaucracy did not grow to meet the demands of a larger population. Indeed, it weakened as provincial leaders began to exercise more power and authority at the expense of the central state. Soon, it failed to properly collect taxes and keep up public works such as river controls and granaries. That the Qing Dynasty was Manchu and not ethnically Chinese did not help matters with many Chinese patriots.

3. Taiping Rebellion (1850–1864):

   A number of rebellions erupted in the nineteenth century, but the largest by far was the Taiping revolt. Its leader, Hong Xiuquan, rejected all traditional Chinese belief systems and claimed he was the younger son of Jesus Christ, sent to Earth to build a Kingdom of Heavenly Peace. This radical movement attacked traditional systems of property ownership and patriarchy. As the central state failed to crush the revolt, the provincial gentry had to step in and put it down, reaffirming the weakness of the Qing Dynasty.

4. Conservative reaction:

   The provincial gentry moved against the Taiping out of fear of the movements’ radical social agenda. In the post-Taiping era, the gentry and the imperial authorities sought to impose a very conservative reaction. This delayed a serious effort at social reforms until the rise of the communists in the 1920s.
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B. Western Pressures

1. Commissioner Lin Zexu and Western narco-trafficking: Due to the dramatic increase in Western, primarily British, opium sales in China (from 1,000 150-pound chests in 1773 to 23,000 chests in 1832), the Chinese government tried to take a firm hand against this illegal trade that was creating many addicts and draining China of its silver supply. The incorruptible Commissioner Lin was sent to south China to stop the trade. He seized the property of the foreign drug smugglers, most of whom were wealthy and established trading firms, and destroyed numerous chests of the drug.

2. First Opium War and Treaty of Nanking (1842): In response to the perceived outrage of having British property seized and citizens held, the government sent a fleet to punish the Chinese. Thanks to their newly industrialized navy, the British were able to achieve a number of victories and dictated the terms of the peace treaty. The first of the unequal treaties, the Treaty of Nanking, opened up specific Chinese ports to British merchants and restricted Chinese sovereignty. Other countries followed with their own unequal treaties.

3. Second Opium War and further humiliations: The second war of 1856–1858 saw the British vandalizing and looting the Summer Palace near Beijing and other indignities. The war was followed with more unequal treaties and subsequent loss of territory and spheres of influence such as Vietnam to France and Korea to Japan.

4. “Informal empire” status for the Middle Kingdom: By the end of the nineteenth century, the once powerful Middle Kingdom found itself in a state of “informal empire,” losing much sovereignty to Europeans, Americans, and Japanese.
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C. The Failure of Conservative Modernization

1. Self-strengthening: Beginning in the 1860s and 1870s, a widespread movement sought to reform and rebuild China. The government looked for “good men” to rebuild the country’s infrastructure, exam system, and new industries, especially armaments.

2. Landowners fear modernity: Unfortunately for the cause of reform, the landowners feared the changes posed by new industries and other forms of commercial modernity.

3. Industry in the hands of Europeans: To make matters worse, most modern industries were in the hands of foreigners experts such as engineers and managers.

4. Boxer Rebellion (1898–1901): The failure of the modernization movement was seen in the anti-foreign traditionalist movement known as the Society of the Righteous and Harmonious Fists. When the Boxers slaughtered European and Chinese Christians and laid siege to the foreign embassies, a multinational force invaded northern China, crushing the movement and exacting more humiliations as revenge.

5. Popular nationalist organizations: Faced with a foreign dynasty unable to reform the empire, intellectuals formed numerous popular groups that called for reform and argued against the Qing dynasty, foreign presence, and many traditional practices. A new role for Chinese women was the subject of much debate.

6. Hundred Days of Reform, 1898: While the Qing Dynasty did try to renovate the imperial system, the 1898 program was stopped by conservative government elements.

7. Imperial collapse, 1911: With dwindling support from most sectors of society and with a bureaucracy unable to face the growing challenges, the 2,000-year-old imperial system collapsed from within in 1911.
II. The Ottoman Empire and the West in the Nineteenth Century

A. “The Sick Man of Europe”
   1. “The Strong Sword of Islam” in 1750: Up until the nineteenth century, the Ottoman Empire was the great power of the Islamic world. After a series of military successes against Europe, many viewed it as the great defender of Islam. Europeans treated the empire with awe and respect. Yet this all changed in the nineteenth century as the Ottomans faced a world changed by Western industrialization.
   2. Loss of land to Russia, France, Britain, and Austria: After the French invasion of Egypt in 1798 and its subsequent de facto independence, various European powers chipped off more and more territory.
   3. Unable to defend Muslims elsewhere: In this weakened state, the empire that had once been a defender of the faith was unable to challenge Christian states seizing control over Muslim communities from Indonesia to West Africa.
   4. Changing global economic order: The Ottoman Empire also had an increasingly difficult economic situation. European shipping in the Atlantic, Indian, and Pacific oceans decreased the flow of trade through the Persian Gulf, Red Sea, and other Ottoman trade routes. With European industrialization, the Ottoman economy found it increasingly difficult to compete with cheaper manufactured
imports. These factors hurt their tax base and led to the state taking out loans it could not pay. Foreigners stepped in and took over sections of the economy, and the British seized Egypt and its wealth in 1882.
II. The Ottoman Empire and the West in the Nineteenth Century

B. Reform and its Opponents

1. Reaction to Western military advisors: When Sultan Selim III began to use Western military advisors in the late eighteenth century, religious leaders and the elite Janissaries argued against this European intrusion into an essential Ottoman center of power. In 1807 the sultan was overthrown and murdered.

2. Tanzimat era: Starting in 1839, the Ottoman state engaged in widespread reform that was really defensive modernization. Importantly, the Ottoman leadership established religious tolerance and legal equality for all, leading to the promotion of various Christians to high office. The reforms pursued a Western form of modernity using law codes and court systems from Europe, as well as building a technological infrastructure. The reforms opened the women for greater access to public life by women.

3. Young Ottomans: Islamic modernism: They favored a more democratic style of rule with a constitution with the goal of saving their Islamic community from European threats. They embraced Western technology and science but rejected Western materialism. In 1876 they had a brief victory as the new sultan, Abd al-Hamid, accepted an elected parliament and constitution, but soon faced pressure from Russia and returned to despotic rule for three decades.

4. Young Turks: Secular modernism: Frustrated with a renewed despotism, military and civilians elites formed a movement known as the Young Turks. They were secular modernizers and seized power in a military coup in 1908, pushing the empire towards a unapologetically European path to modernity. The Young Turks established a radical secularization policy for schools, courts, and law codes. They also opened up schools for women and made divorce easier. Women were also allowed to wear Western dress and polygamy was restricted. The Turkish nationalism of the movement did antagonize non-Turks such as Arabs and Armenians. The Young Turk movement set in motion the key principles for the post-WWI Turkish republic.
II. The Ottoman Empire and the West in the Nineteenth Century

C. Outcomes: Comparing China and the Ottoman Empire

1. “Semi-colonies” in the European “informal empire”: In the space of a century, these two great empires were brought low by the forces of the industrialized West.

2. Defensive modernization but no industrial take-off: While both pursued policies of defensive modernization, neither achieved a complete industrial transformation.

3. Growth of nationalism: Both societies saw the spread of nationalism as a motivating ideology with broad popular appeal.

4. Revolutionary chaos in China, but stability in Turkey: While both empires collapsed in the early twentieth century, China plunged into decades of revolutionary chaos until the communist victory in 1949 (which brought more chaos from 1958 to 1976), but the post-WWI Turkish republic enjoyed remarkable stability.

5. State rejections of tradition but popular survival: While both the Turkish republic and the Chinese communists rejected tradition (Islamic or Confucian) these traditions survived in the realm of popular culture.
III. The Japanese Difference: The Rise of a New East Asian Power

A. The Tokugawa Background
   1. *Shogun, daimyo, samurai, and emperor*
   2. 250 years of peace
   3. Urban, commercial, and literate
   4. *Samurai* status versus merchant wealth
   5. Increasing social instability

III. The Japanese Difference: The Rise of a New East Asian Power

A. The Tokugawa Background

1. *Shogun, daimyo, samurai, and emperor*: After the devastating civil wars of the sixteenth century, the Tokugawa system established two and a half centuries of peace. The real power lay in the hands of the hereditary military dictator, the *Shogun*, from the Tokugawa family who ruled from Edo, present day Tokyo. The *Shogun* held power over the regional feudal lords known as *daimyo*, making them spend alternate years in attendance at the Tokugawa court. The *daimyo* each had a force of hereditary warriors known as *samurai*. The emperor was relegated to a symbolic role in his palace in Kyoto. While the country was pacified, it was not unified as the *daimyo* lords had much independent power in their domains.

2. 250 years of peace: This system put an end to the previous civil war and bloodshed by breaking the *daimyo* and forbidding the *samurai* to fight. It also tried to freeze Japanese society by making all professions hereditary and establishing clear laws on dress and social status.

3. Urban, commercial, and literate: This prolonged peace allowed the Japanese economy to flourish, resulting in increased urbanization with Edo reaching 1 million, the spread of a dynamic commercial sector, and widespread literacy.

4. *Samurai* status versus merchant wealth: The era was not without its conflicts. Foremost were tensions between the *samurai* and the merchants. While the warriors were a hereditary elite, there were no wars to fight so they became bureaucrats and accountants for their *daimyo* lords. They held high social status, but had little wealth and no way to prove their valor. Meanwhile, merchants, vilified in the Japanese variant of Confucianism, were increasingly wealthy and often loaned money to their social superiors.

5. Increasing social instability: As wealth spread throughout the society, some lower-status peasants began to be able to afford the trapping of the elite. Widespread corruption and the failure of the government to respond to a major famine in the 1830s encouraged various revolts and uprisings, including the attack on merchants and burning of Osaka in 1837.
III. The Japanese Difference: The Rise of a New East Asian Power

B. American Intrusion and Meiji Restoration

1. Limited contact with West since early seventeenth century: After the earlier spread of Christianity and Western weapons such as guns in the 1500s, the Tokugawa leadership decided to close their ports to the West. Only the Dutch were allowed to visit a small port island in the south once a year. In the 1800s, as American merchants and whalers began to sail in the Pacific, the Japanese imprisoned or executed any sailors who came ashore either on purpose or via shipwreck.

2. Commodore Perry, 1853: The United States of America decided to “open” Japan by sending a Commodore with a fleet of coal-burning ships to Tokyo Bay. He gave an ultimatum and a white surrender flag to the Japanese leaders. Aware of what the British had done in China, the Japanese capitulated and let the Westerners into the islands.

3. Meiji Restoration, 1868: Caving into the Westerners angered many, leading to civil war. In the end, a faction of younger samurai from the south came to power, removed the shogun, and returned power to the 15-year-old Meiji emperor. They then embarked on a course of modernization, including legal reform, industrialization, and other profound changes. Japan’s quest to modernize had several distinct advantageous conditions: the Meiji Restoration wiped the slate clean without massive destruction or violence, the Europeans were not as interested in Japan as they were in China, Japan was not as strategically significant as the Ottoman Empire, and the United States of America was preoccupied with the Civil War and its aftermath.
III. The Japanese Difference: The Rise of a New East Asian Power

C. Modernization Japanese Style

1. Defensive but revolutionary reforms: While Japanese modernization was a defensive program designed to stave off Western penetration, the changes were truly revolutionary and dramatically remade Japan in the space of a generation. Importantly, the Meiji reforms created a coherent and centralized Japanese state out of the feudal regionalism of the Tokugawa Shogunate.

2. Systematic dismantling of the old social order: The first task was to dismantle the old Confucian Tokugawa Era social order. The daimyo lords were replaced with authorities from the centralized state and the samurai class was disbanded. The warriors lost their special privileges and social prestige, including the exclusive right to wear their swords. Indeed, all Japanese became commoners, equal citizens before the emperor. That said, most elite Japanese found prestigious jobs in the new national military or growing government sector.

3. Fukuzawa Yukichi: This was one of the leading popularities of Western learning, technology, and social mores. He represented the early enthusiasm for everything Western including dress, dancing, and education.

4. Selective borrowing and mixing from the West: After an initial period of wholesale adoption of things Western, the Japanese began to select certain aspects of the West and fuse them with various cultural traditions. The Meiji constitution, for example, was modeled on the German constitution but stated that it was a gift from the emperor who descended from the Sun Goddess. The universal education system blended Western science with Confucian ideology.
III. The Japanese Difference: The Rise of a New East Asian Power

C. Modernization Japanese Style

5. New possibilities for women: While the Meiji Restoration opened up some new possibilities for women and there were a few of figures who began to explore a feminist alternative for Japan, the state was unwilling to give women many political rights and banned them from joining parties until the 1920s.

6. State-guided industrialization and zaibatsu: At the center of Meiji modernization was a state-guided industrialization program. To speed up the process and to promote large-scale industry, the government favored the formation of large industrial combines called zaibatsu. In the space of a generation, the Japanese reform program radically transformed Japan into a modern industrial society.

7. Difficult lives for peasants and workers: While the Japanese industrialization process was quick and rather successful, it did create tremendous suffering at the lower end of the social strata. Peasants found life increasingly difficult and often sold their daughters to support themselves. Many of these girls went into the textile industry where they worked long hours for low wages and lived in unpleasant factory dormitories. In opposition to this new industrial social order, radical leftists began to flirt with socialism and anarchism. In 1911, Kanno Suga, a feminist-anarchist, was
hanged for allegedly conspiring to kill the emperor.
III. The Japanese Difference: The Rise of a New East Asian Power

D. Japan and the World

1. Anglo-Japanese Treaty, 1902: This was the first of a series of revisions of unequal treaties, indicating that Japan was now to be treated as a sovereign and modern nation. This signaled the diplomatic victory of the Meiji Era.

2. War with China (1894–1895) and Russia (1904–1905): These two wars showed that Japan was now a modern military power. Its defeat of Russia was noteworthy as the first defeat of a major European power in the recent era of Imperialism.

3. Empire building in Taiwan, Korea, and Manchuria: Thanks to its victories in these wars, Japan engaged in its own empire building.

4. Admiration from the colonial world: While those colonized by Japan might disagree, many people from Poland to Aceh in the Dutch East Indies looked to Japan with hope and inspiration. Japan became a symbol of standing up to the West.
IV. Reflections: Success and Failure in History

A. Should historians evaluate events as successful or a failure?
B. Criteria?
C. Success for whom?
D. Assessing wisdom in history

IV. Reflections: Success and Failure in History

A. Should historians evaluate events as successful or a failure?
   Historians don’t just recount history, they evaluate history; so is it appropriate for historians to call something a success or a failure?
B. Criteria? What would be the criteria for this judgment?
C. Success for whom? Who did the event in question benefit? Who lost out?
D. Assessing wisdom in history: How would a historian figure out if a decision was a wise choice?