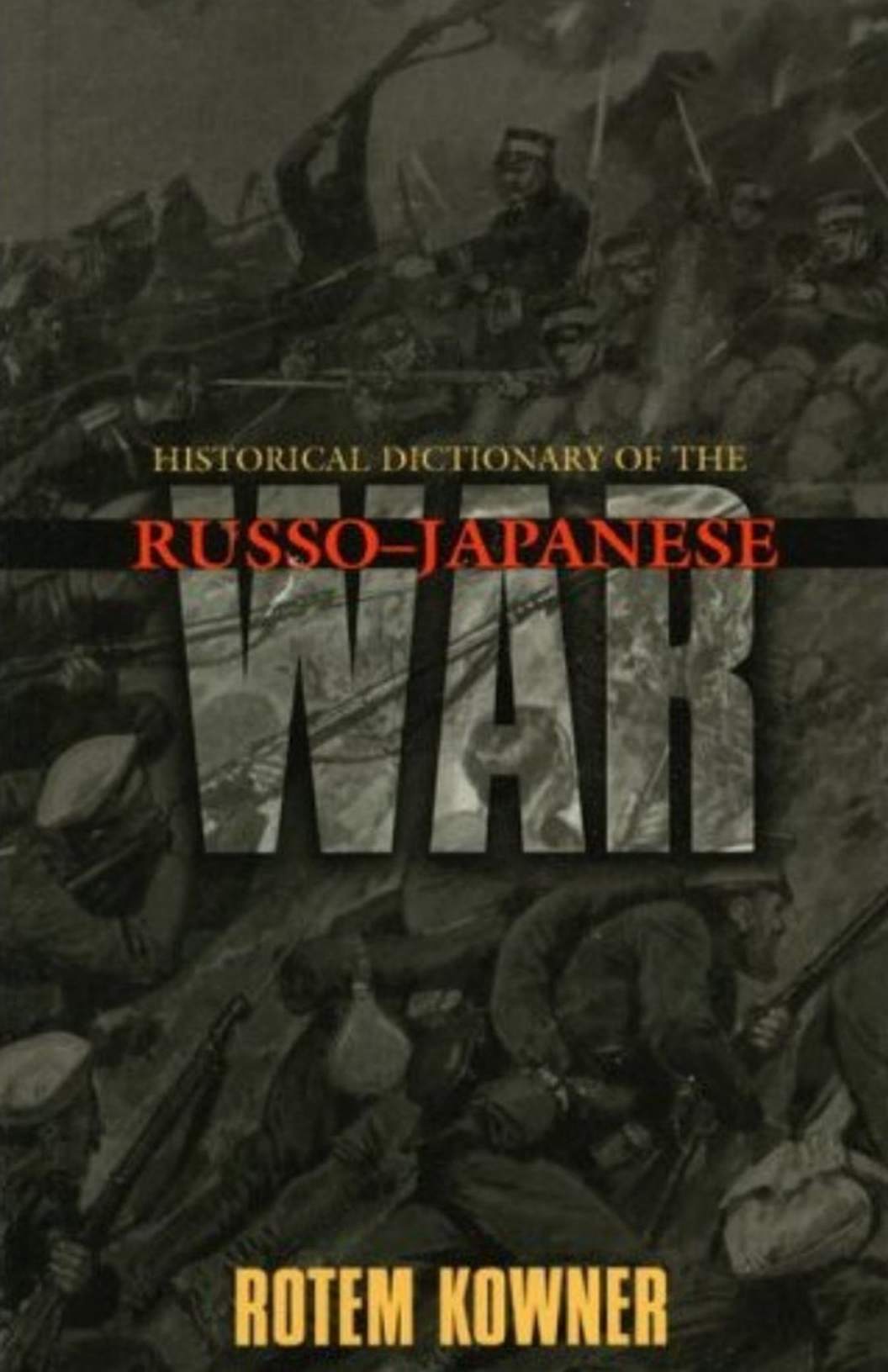
HISTORICAL DICTIONARY OF THE
RUSSO–JAPANESE
WAR
ROTEM KOWNER

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Historical Dictionary of the Russo–Japanese War

Rotem Kowner

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To my father, Leon Kowner

Contents

List of Illustrations ix

Editor's Foreword (*Jon Woronoff*) xi

Preface xiii

Acknowledgments xvii

Reader's Notes xix

Acronyms and Abbreviations xxiii

Maps xxvii

Chronology xliii

Introduction 1

THE DICTIONARY 25

Appendix 1: War Documents 441

Appendix 2: Glossary of Port Arthur Site Names 461

Appendix 3: Military Ranks 463

Appendix 4: Naval Balance in East Asia on the Eve of the War 465

Appendix 5: Naval Balance in East Asia on the Eve of the Battle of Tsushima 469

Bibliography 471

Index 537

About the Author 567

Illustrations

MAPS

1. The war arena. xxvii
2. The naval arena. xxviii
3. Manchuria and North Korea. xxix
4. The battle arena (Liaotung peninsula). xxx
5. Korea. xxxi
6. Landing and advance of the Japanese Army. xxxii
7. Battle of the Yalu. xxxiii
8. Battle of Nanshan. xxxiv
9. Battle of Telissu. xxxv
10. Naval battle of the Yellow Sea. xxxvi
11. Battle of Liaoyang xxxvii
12 Seige of Port Arthur. xxxviii
13. Battle of Sha-ho. xxxix
14. Battle Mukden. xl
15. The voyage of the Baltic Fleet. xli
16. Naval battle of Tsushima. xlii

PHOTOS

(Follows page 296)

1. Clockwise, from upper left: Emperor Meiji, Katsura Tarô, Itô Hirobumi, and Yamagata Aritomo.
2. Clockwise, from upper left: Terauchi Masatake, Ôyama Iwao, Nogi Maresuke, and Tôgô Heihachirô.

3. Clockwise, from upper left: Tsar Nicholas II, Sergei Witte, Aleksei Kuropatkin, and Aleksandr Bezobrazov.
4. Clockwise, from upper left: Evgenii Alekseev, Stepan Makarov, Zinovii Rozhestvenskii, and Anatolii Stoessel.
5. Clockwise, from upper left: Theodore Roosevelt, Emperor William II, King Kojong, and Arthur Balfour.
6. Japanese battleship *Fuji* (top) and Russian battleship *Retvizan* (bottom).
7. Russian cruiser *Bayan* (top) and Japanese destroyer *Akebono* (bottom).
8. Russian infantry.
9. Japanese military engineers.
10. Russian artillery during the battle of Liaoyang.
11. Japanese battery of 280-millimeter howitzers used during the siege of Port Arthur.
12. A view of the harbor of Port Arthur a few days before the surrender of the fort.
13. Japanese troops entering the city of Mukden following their victory at the battle of Mukden.
14. Tsar Nicholas II reviewing a warship of the Baltic Fleet before its departure to Asia.
15. Rear Admiral Nikolai Nebogatov taken by a Japanese boat upon his surrender at the battle of Tsushima.
16. Japanese and Russian representatives convening during the Portsmouth Peace Conference, among them Komura Jutarô (third from the left), Takahira Kogorô (fourth from the left), Roman Rosen (second from the right), and Sergei Witte (third from the right).

Editor's Foreword

The Russo–Japanese War, which occurred a century ago, pitted one of the major Western powers against an emerging but amazingly dynamic nation in Asia. It affected the balance of power in Europe, causing shifts that were played out over the next several decades. For the loser, it had far-reaching repercussions that could hardly have been expected and that changed Russia into an entirely different country. For the winner, the consequences seemed more positive—for Japan if not for its neighbors—until it went too far. The war introduced a number of firsts, including the use of machine-gun and trench warfare; the laying of mines and launching of torpedoes; and the deployment of cruisers, destroyers, and battleships. The Russo–Japanese War was regarded as decisive, yet today it is all but forgotten. This book is an element in recovering this influential conflict from oblivion, in connection with its centenary.

This *Historical Dictionary of the Russo–Japanese War* consists of two basic elements. The most obvious is a recounting of the actual war, which is accomplished mainly in the introduction and dictionary, with its hundreds of entries about people both military and political, specific weapons and tactics, military units, virtually all of the warships, major battles, and many smaller encounters. The other element is the general background of the war, in the sense of examining its causes, the various diplomatic and political shifts, and the consequences that followed in its wake. This extended period of before, during, and following the Russo–Japanese War is examined in the chronology. Essential references are detailed in the bibliography.

There exist a limited number of specialists on the Russo–Japanese War. Both Soviet and Japanese scholars were more concerned with postwar events. Rotem Kowner is presently the chair of the Department of East Asian Studies at the University of Haifa, Israel. He is also a co-organizer of a major international conference, "The Russo–Japanese

War and the 20th Century: An Assessment from a Centennial Perspective." Although Professor Kowner had already written extensively on the conflict, this book goes considerably further—probably further than he originally expected. While often technical, it is written in an accessible style, making it an invaluable resource not only for other specialists but also the general public.

Jon Woronoff
Series Editor

Preface

While the central place of the Russo–Japanese War in modern history is still not recognized sufficiently by contemporary historians, its observers at the time were overwhelmed by its dramatic battles and short-lived political impact. Indeed it was an epic and almost conclusive triumph of the underdog over the mighty; it featured successful military leaders, such as Admiral Tôgô Heihachirô and General Nogi Maresuke, who would be venerated for generations, and failed leaders, such as Tsar Nicholas II, who were to be despised; it was a war with real territorial gains but also political repercussions around the world; it had tangible monuments to victory, such as Port Arthur, where the legacy of the heroic battles might be revered. Yet for all that, the Russo–Japanese War has somehow sunk into oblivion in our collective memory.

The Russo–Japanese War was indisputably the biggest and most significant conflict in the first decade of the 20th century. The object of the war was control of northeast Asia in general and Korea in particular, areas not then deemed of great importance, but the war's implications resounded across the world. The war was fought between tsarist Russia and imperial Japan—two nations which at the time were at the end of a process of expansion and growth. Their interaction has affected their histories directly and indirectly even to the present day. Both underwent many changes after the war, and they reached their peak only several decades later. The rivals did not fight alone. Behind each stood allies with different perceptions of the world. Russia, a large and expansionist absolute monarchy, represented traditional European power and was supported by Germany and France. Japan was the first non-Western nation to have achieved modernization and was backed by Great Britain. Being an Asian nation, non-"white" Japan became a model for imitation and admiration by most peoples under or threatened by colonial rule.

Japan's unexpected victory changed the course of modern history in a moment. During the conflagration, significant shifts were already noticeable in the ranking of the European powers, which had stayed constant for almost a century until then. The sudden fall of Russian power and the rise of Germany as an alternative led to alliances that were hardly imaginable a decade earlier. Two years after the war, a new order of power in Europe was established, which led to the outbreak of World War I and remained almost intact until 1945. In the Russo–Japanese War, the United States became, for the first time, an involved and balancing political power, yet this status set the United States on a collision course with Japan over control of the Pacific Ocean. This war had considerable repercussions in East Asia, then inhabited by a third of the world's population. Japan became a regional superpower, and its victories on the battlefields of Manchuria were merely an appetizer for further expansion. In China, the war was a catalyst for the revolution of 1911 and for modernization, while Korea lost its independence, to regain it only at the end of World War II, and only as a divided nation. Finally, many nations viewed the Russo–Japanese War as the first evidence in the modern age that an Asian nation, which just a few decades earlier had begun a process of modernization, was able to overcome a European nation by force of arms alone. This victory infused a spirit of nationalistic ambition into nations subject to European rule throughout the world. However, the war did not aid them directly in fulfilling those ambitions; on the contrary, it only strengthened the imperialistic ambitions of Japan.

In this historical dictionary, I have sought to bring to light a broader view than usually provided regarding the place and importance of the Russo–Japanese War in modern history. Based on Western, Japanese, and Russian sources, this book covers not only the battles, weaponry, and major personalities of the war, but also various international events and conflicts, agreements, schemes, and projects that led to the war. It is especially concerned with the political, social, and military consequences of the conflict, typically until the outbreak of World War I, less than a decade later, and occasionally even later. The core of this book is nearly 600 main-text entries, ranging in length from about 100 to 2,000 words. Arranged alphabetically, they cover virtually every aspect of the Russo–Japanese War. Items for which there are specific entries are bolded where first mentioned in the Introduction and in the Dictionary

entries. Breaking such a major event down to a dictionary-like sequence is bound to have some apparent limitations, but also advantages. I hope, though, that readers and users of this book, especially those who do not know Russian or Japanese, will be able to benefit from its novel aspects and draw an altogether new and more accurate picture of the war and its consequences.

Acknowledgments

In researching a book of this type, one inevitably incurs debts of various sorts, some of which I will never be able to repay. During this project, I was fortunate to discuss various issues related to this book with numerous colleagues and participants at two conferences on the Russo–Japanese War that I took part in organizing. Among these remarkable scholars, I am especially grateful to Yitzhak Shichor, Ben-Ami Shillony, Harold Zvi Schiffrin, Ian Nish, Aron Shai, Yigal Sheffy, Philip Towle, Jonathan Frankel, Gad Gilbar, Ury Eppstein, Bernd Martin, Dani Gutwein, Peter Berton, Guy Podaler, Richard Smethurst, Joseph Henning, Oliver Griffin, Seok Hua-jeong, Patrick Beillevaire, Thomas Otte, Yulia Mikhailova, Jan Kusber, Tilak Sareen, Monika Lehner, Anna Frajlich-Zajac, and Paul Norbury, for sharing with me their knowledge and insights about the Russo–Japanese War.

I would like to thank my research assistants at the University of Haifa, Ido Blumenfeld, Ran Snir, Gideon Elazar, and Felix Brenner, for their dedication and help in gathering materials, translating, and editing. Ido Blumenfeld and Dikla Berliner were more than instrumental in helping to draw the maps for this book. Their assistance, as well as the insistence of the series editor, Jon Woronoff, served as a catalyst in starting this project. The advice provided and materials shared by Inaba Chiharu, Shôbo Haruhiko, Ishii Kazuo, and Mark Conrad were invaluable in locating and deciphering Japanese and Russian sources and concepts. I remain, however, solely responsible for the writing, interpretations, and possible mistakes in this book.

The financial support provided by the Research Authority at the University of Haifa and the lasting encouragement of the Dean of Research, Prof. Moshe Zeidner, were also essential and are highly appreciated. Murray Rosovsky was indispensable, as usual, in providing painstaking proofreading and expert editing. The research environment facilitated

by Ogawa Toshiki and the University of Tsukuba, as well as the generous hospitality in Japan provided by the Shôbo and Dewaraja families, was beneficial for the completion of this project.

No dedication can do justice to the patience of loved ones. Without my wife, Fabienne, and our three daughters, Jasmine, Emmanuelle, and Narkisse, this book would not have been possible. I want to let them know just how valuable and sustaining their support and love have been over this period.

The book is dedicated to my father, Leon Kowner—a teacher and a friend, who has shared with me his clear perception and profound knowledge of military history since my childhood in long and patient discussions, who bought me numerous military history books that at first I could not read but could only enjoy the photos, and who steadily taught me the value of total history and its far-reaching importance.

Reader's Notes

The writing of this dictionary involved great difficulties in transliteration and occasionally even translation of many of the entries. Not only is the script of each belligerent's language not Latin, but the war was waged on the territory of China and Korea, where other non-Latin scripts are in use. Further, in the century that has elapsed since the war, that territory has changed hands and regimes, and many of the place names have changed, often more than once. Place names in Manchuria and Korea during the early 20th century posed perhaps the greatest problem for this book, as they do for any historian who wishes to write about the war. Each belligerent often had its own name for the various localities; the English-speaking world had a third name; and the local people had a fourth or fifth (especially in Manchuria). Many of these names were changed after the war, for political reasons or due to a change in the transliteration system.

An example is the southern harbor, fortress, and site of a great siege, known in the West as Port Arthur after 1860. The local Chinese population called the place Lüshun. The Russians, who leased the site during 1898–1904, called it Port Artur. The Japanese, who occupied it from 1905 to 1945, called it Ryojun. After World War II, the Soviet Union controlled the harbor for a decade and reverted to Port Artur. In 1955, the Chinese regained control of the area and reverted to their old name for it, Lüshun. In the following years, the Chinese united the city with the adjacent city of Dalien (or Dalian; Talien in old Chinese transliteration, Dalny in English, Dairen in Japanese, Dalnii in Russian), and today they are often known together as Lüta. These historical, linguistic, and political shifts have been taken into account throughout the book, but they involved several editorial decisions to make it as systematic as possible.

NAMES OF PEOPLE

The names of people mentioned in the book follow several transliteration systems. Transliterations of Russian names, written originally in the Cyrillic alphabet, adhere to the modified form of the U.S. Library of Congress. Exceptions are names so familiar in English that they are written in the commonly accepted way so as not to mislead the reader (e.g., Nicholas II rather than Nikolai II); likewise, Russian names of German origin appear in the form usual in that period in the English literature (with the original German name in brackets). Japanese names are written according to the Hepburn transliteration system and in consultation with the Kodansha Encyclopedia (1983 edition). The circumflex used in some of the Japanese names indicates a long vowel. Chinese names are written according to the Pinyin transliteration system (with the Wade-Giles transliteration in brackets), while Korean names follow the McKuhn and Reischauer transliteration system. As commonly accepted in the East Asian tradition and in academic writing in English, all East Asian names appear with the family name first, followed by the personal name. Along with the above usages, many of the entry heads are followed by additional transliteration options in brackets. Notably, some of the Japanese first names have two different readings; one follows the Japanese reading (*kunyomi*) and one the so-called Chinese reading (*onyomi*).

NAMES OF PLACES

Names of locations in Manchuria and China are written according to the Wade-Giles transliteration system. While today the Pinyin transliteration system is in growing use, most books in European languages dealing with this period, and certainly all books written during the war itself and in the half a century that followed, apply the Wade-Giles system or similar traditional systems. Moreover, many of the place names in Manchuria and the names of battle sites are not in use today, partly because they were from local dialects or non-Chinese languages. Therefore, the use of current Chinese names or of old names in Pinyin transliteration may mislead the reader and make it impossible to identify these places. However, to allow the reader to identify the battle sites

and link them with present-day locations, the Pinyin transliterations are added in brackets, as well as the name in Japanese (written in italics), and the name in Russian if it differs substantially from the English name. Place names in Japan are written according to the Hepburn transliteration system, in consultation with the Kodansha Encyclopedia (first edition) and the fourth edition of the Kenkyusha Japanese–English dictionary. Finally, names of places of current special importance are written in the present transliteration, such as Tokyo (which a century ago was written Tokio and is transliterated fully as Tôkyô) and Beijing (Peking, Peiping).

DATES

The dates in the book are written according to the Gregorian calendar (the calendar which is commonly used today in the West and most of the world, including Russia), rather than either the Julian calendar, which was used in tsarist Russia until 1918, or the modern Japanese calendar, which is still in use today. The Julian calendar, used in many books on Russian history, was 12 days "behind" the Gregorian calendar during the 19th century and 13 days "behind" during the 20th century. Japan adopted the Gregorian calendar in 1873 but also began about that time to number years serially from the year in which a reigning emperor ascended the throne (the entire era). Therefore, the date of the outbreak of the war, which occurred on 26 January 1904 according to the Julian calendar in Russia, and on the 8th day of the second month of the 37th year of the Meiji era in Japan, appears in this book as 8 February 1904.

MEASUREMENT UNITS

The units of measurement in this book are given by the metric system, but to facilitate the text for those unfamiliar with it, units current in the United States appear in brackets. The description of the battles at sea pose a special problem because most fleets, including those of countries that had long since switched to the metric system, continued using traditional non-metrical units of measurement. Therefore, units of measurement that have additive professional meaning and were used for

general description (such as the caliber of guns) are provided as well in brackets. The displacement of ships is given in English tons (1 ton = 1,016 kg), even though no accepted unit for measuring and recording the displacement of battleships existed prior to the Naval Conference in Washington in 1922. Therefore, all measurements were related to "normal" displacement or to the displacement at the planning stage.

ARMAMENT AND ARMOR

Technical data regarding warships and guns are written in abbreviated form. Thus the inscription 4 × 305mm/40 [12in.] (2 × 2) means four guns of bore diameter 305 millimeters (12 inches) and barrel length 40 calibers (i.e., 12.20 meters), and the guns are arranged in two turrets of two guns each. The inscription TT (2AW 2sub) means four torpedo tubes, two of them above water and two submerged. For the various abbreviations, the reader is advised to consult the list of acronyms and abbreviations.

RANKS

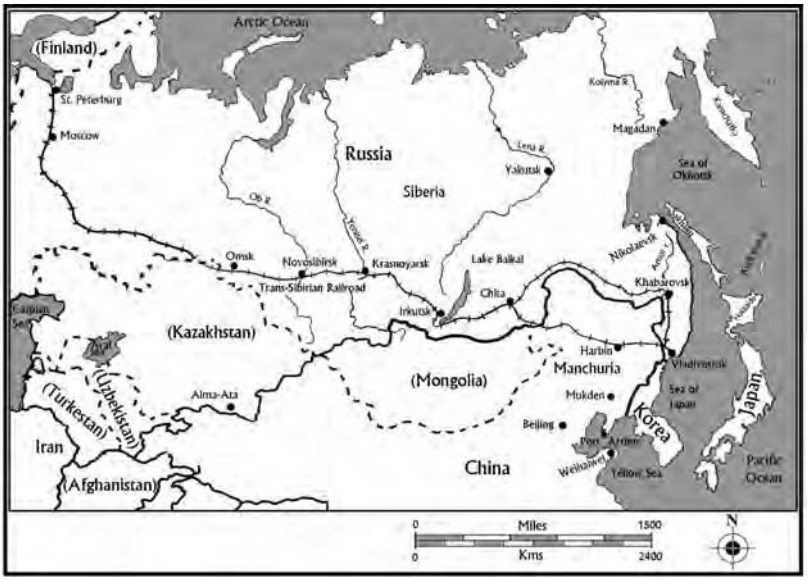
Ranks of the military figures are given according to the British system at the beginning of the 20th century. This is done to simplify the usage of different terms for the armies and navies referred to in the discussion, and to adhere to the names of the ranks as they appear in the contemporary literature in English on the war. Names of ranks of military and naval officers in both pre–World War I tsarist Russia and imperial Japan are listed with their corresponding British ranks in appendix 3.

Acronyms and Abbreviations

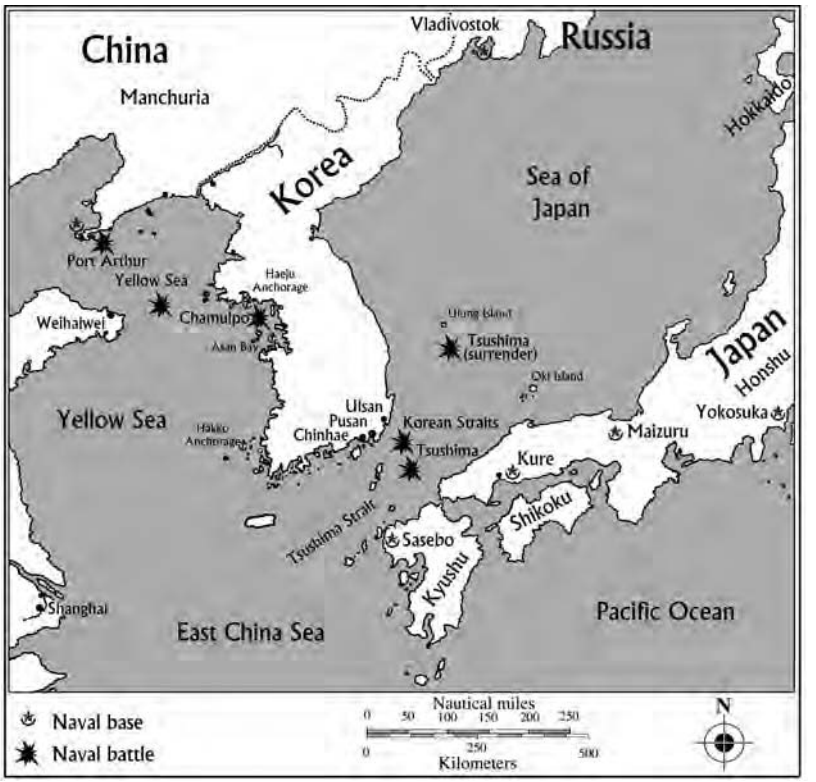
AAG	assistant adjutant general (British army)
ADC	aide-de-camp
Adm	admiral
AG	adjutant general (British army)
App.	appointed
Ass.	assistant
AW	above water
AX	Auxiliary vessel; transport ship
BB	battleship
BCE	before Christian era
Brig Gen	brigadier general
Brit.	British
Capt	captain
CBE	Commander of the Order of the British Empire (award)
CC	cruiser
Cdr	commander
C-in-C	commander-in-chief
cm	centimeter(s)
CO	commanding officer (commander)
Col	colonel
Comp.	complement (all of a ship's personnel required to operate the ship)
CoS	chief-of-staff
CR	armored cruiser
CT	conning tower
cyl	cylinder(s)
DAG	deputy adjutant general (British army)
DD	destroyer
Deg	degree(s)

Dep.	deputy
Displ.	displacement (the weight of water, in long tons, displaced by a ship)
E.	east
est.	established
Fin.	Finnish
Fr.	French
ft	foot, feet
GB	Great Britain
Gen	general
Ger.	German
GG	governor-general
GOC	general officer commanding (British army)
grt	gross registered tonnage
HMS	His/Her Majesty's Ship
hrs	hours
HTE	horizontal triple expansion
ihp	indicated horsepower
IJA	Imperial Japanese Army
IJN	Imperial Japanese Navy
in.	inch [2.54 centimeters], inches
IRA	Imperial Russian Army
IRN	Imperial Russian Navy
It.	Italian
Jpn.	Japanese
KC	Krupp compound
KCB	Knight Commander of the Order of the Bath (award)
km	kilometer(s)
kt	knot [1.853 kilometers per hour], knots
LBD	length, beam, draft (measurements of size of a ship)
lbs	pounds [1 pound = 0.454 kilogram]
Lt	lieutenant
Lt Cdr	lieutenant commander
Lt Gen	lieutenant general
m	meter(s)
m/sec	meters per second
Mac.	machinery
Maj	major

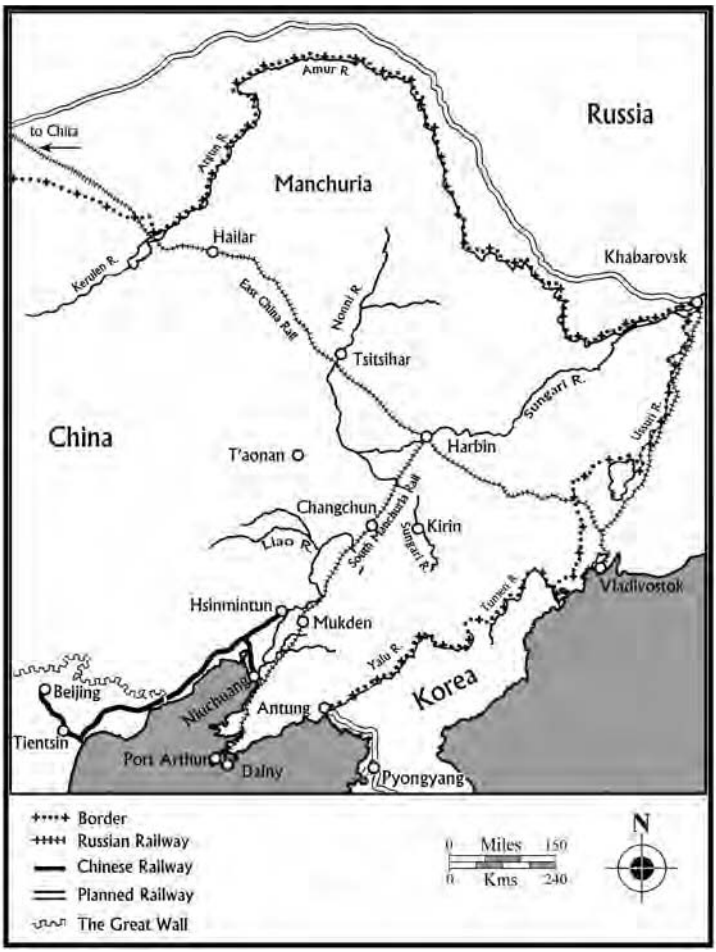
Maj Gen	major general
max.	maximum
mi	mile [1.609 kilometer], miles
ML	minelayer
mm	millimeter(s)
MN	naval mine(s)
MP	member of parliament
N.	north
NCO	non-commissioned officer
nm	nautical mile [1.853 kilometers], nautical miles
OBB	obsolete battleship (during the war) or coastal defense battleship
OCR	protected cruiser
pdr	pounder
PG	gunvessel and third-class cruiser
PM	prime minister
Pref.	Prefecture (Japanese administrative district)
QF	quick fire
QMG	quartermaster general
R Adm	rear admiral
r/min	rounds per minute
RN	British Royal Navy
Rus.	Russian
Sp.	Spanish
sq	square
sub	submerged
t	ton(s)
TB	torpedo boat
TT	torpedo tube(s)
USA	United States of America
USN	United States Navy
USS	United States Ship
v.	vice
V Adm	vice admiral
VTE	vertical triple expansion
WWI	World War I
WWII	World War II
y	yard [0.9144 meter], yards



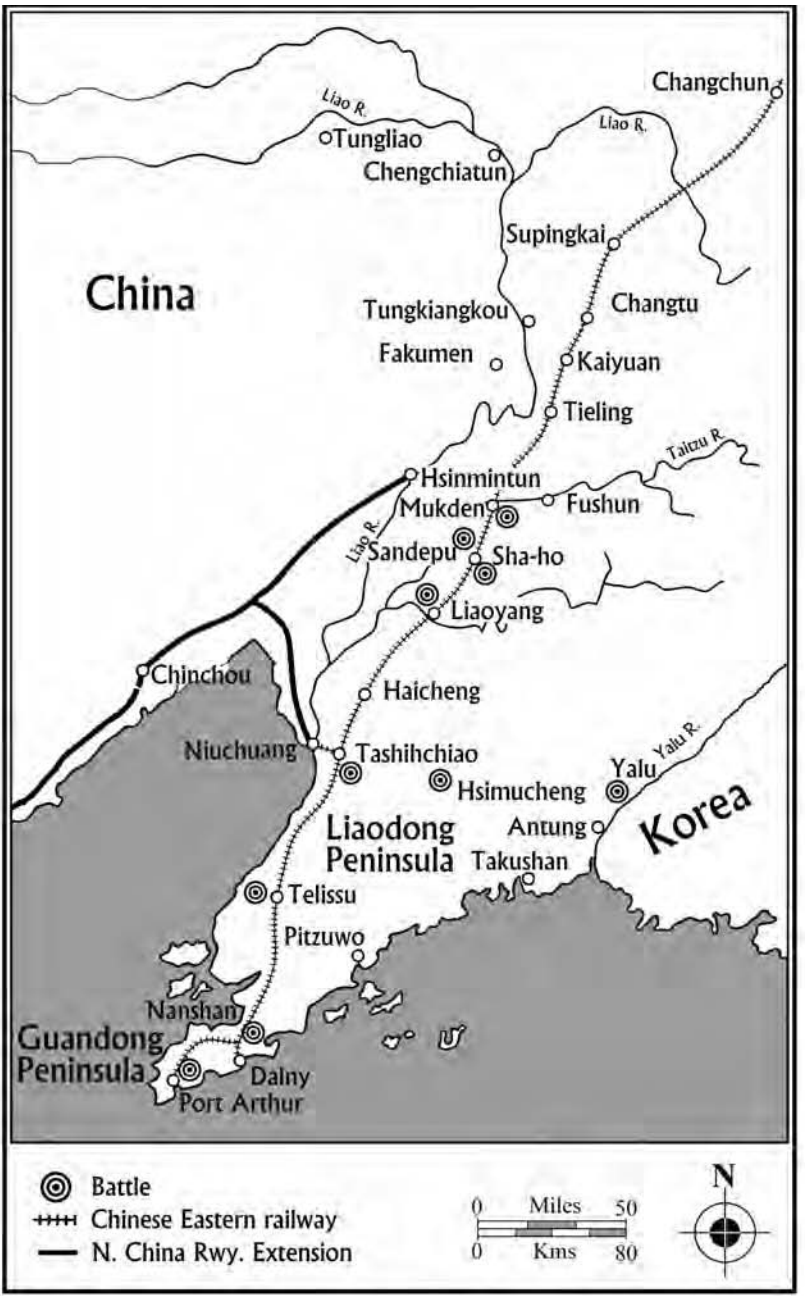
The war arena.



The naval arena.



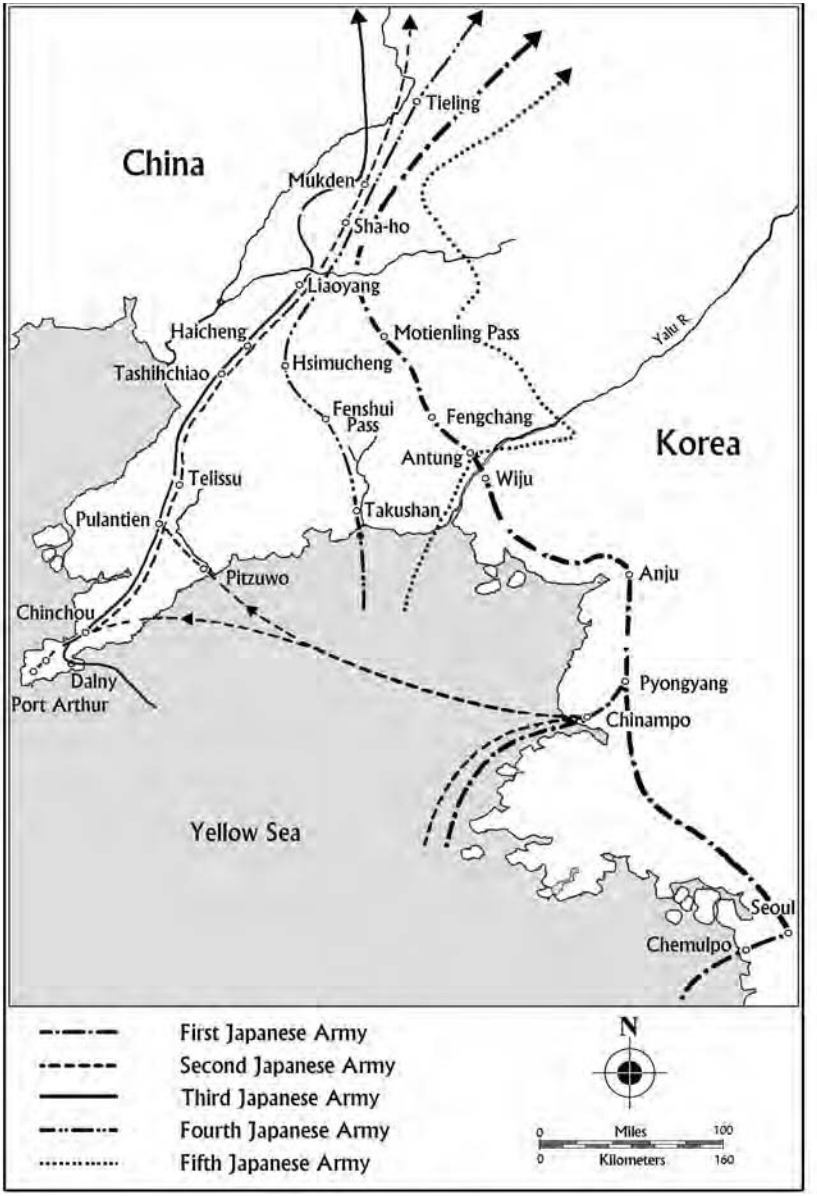
Manchuria and northern Korea.



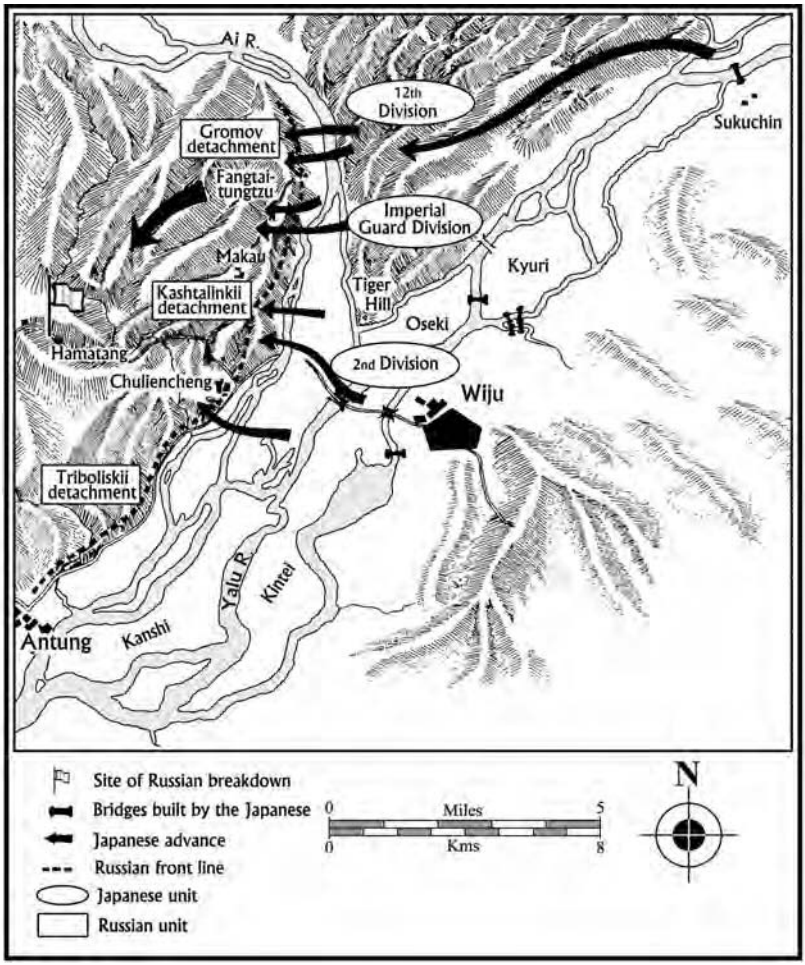
The battle arena (Liaotung peninsula).

Russia
China
Korea
Tumen R.
Yalu R.
Wiju
Hamyeng
Anju
Korea Bay
Pyongyang
Gensan
Sea of Japan
Chinampo
Imjin R.
Seoul
Han R.
Chemulpo
Nakrong R.
Yellow Sea
Kum R.
Ulsan
Pusan
Masan
Korea straits
Mokpo
Koje-do
Tsushima Is.
Tsushima straits
Border
0
Miles
150
0
Kms
240
N

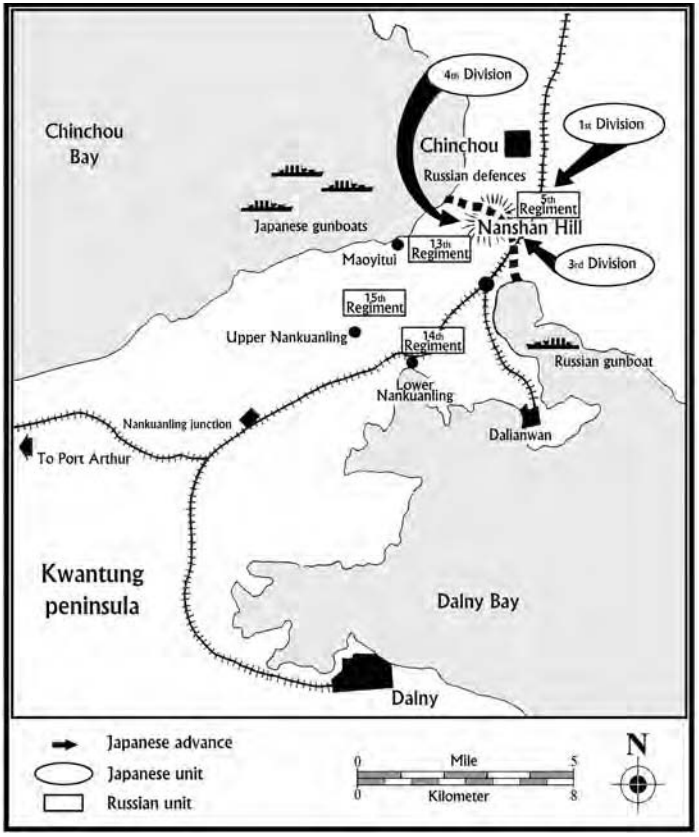
Korea.



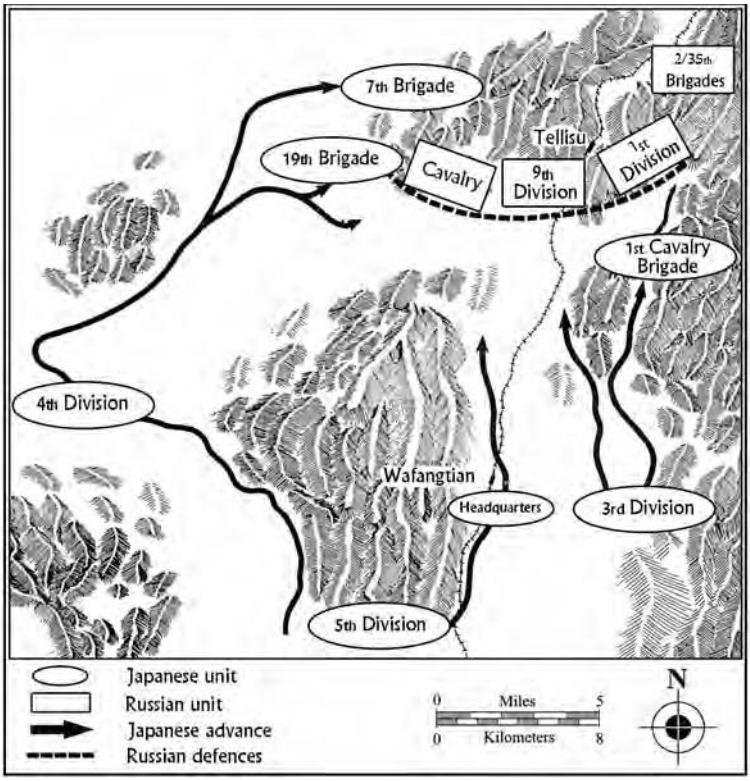
Landing and advance of the Japanese army.



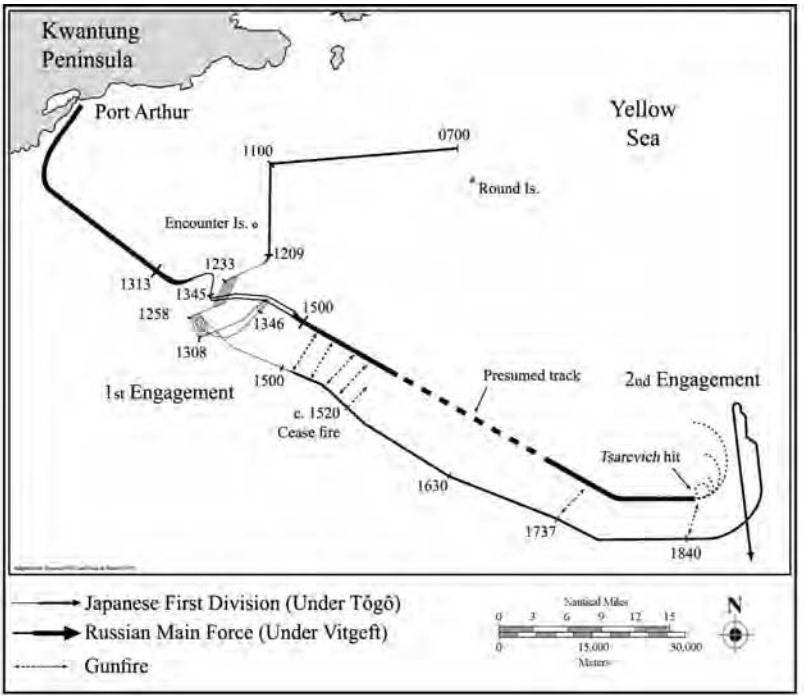
Battle of the Yalu.



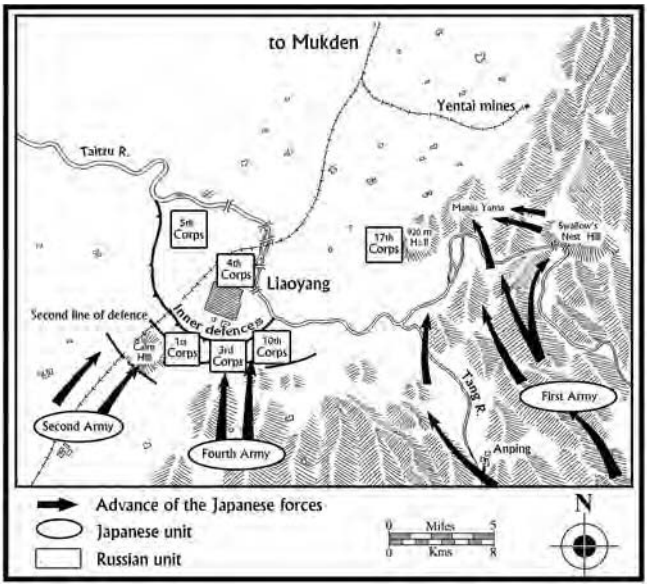
Battle of Nanshan.



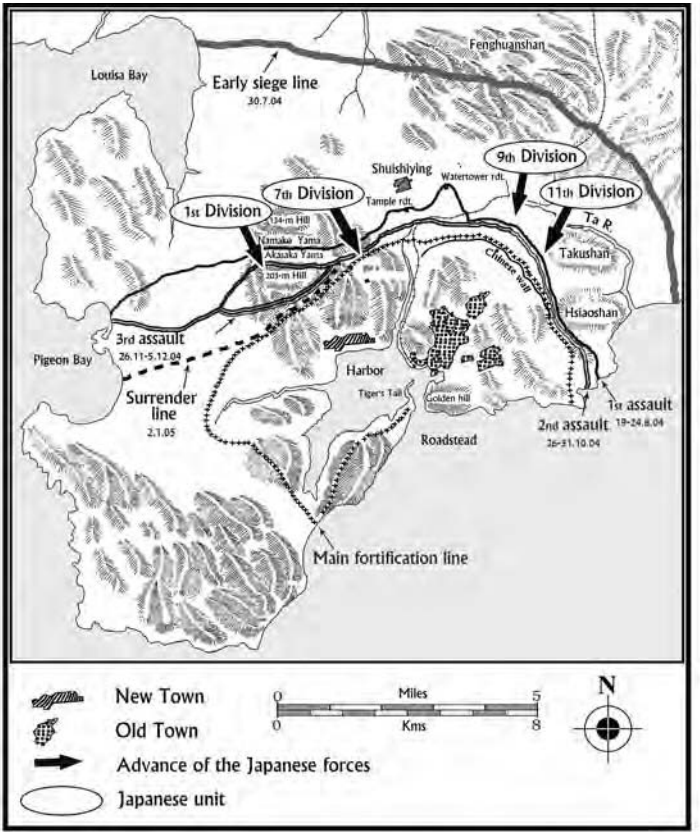
Battle of Telissu.



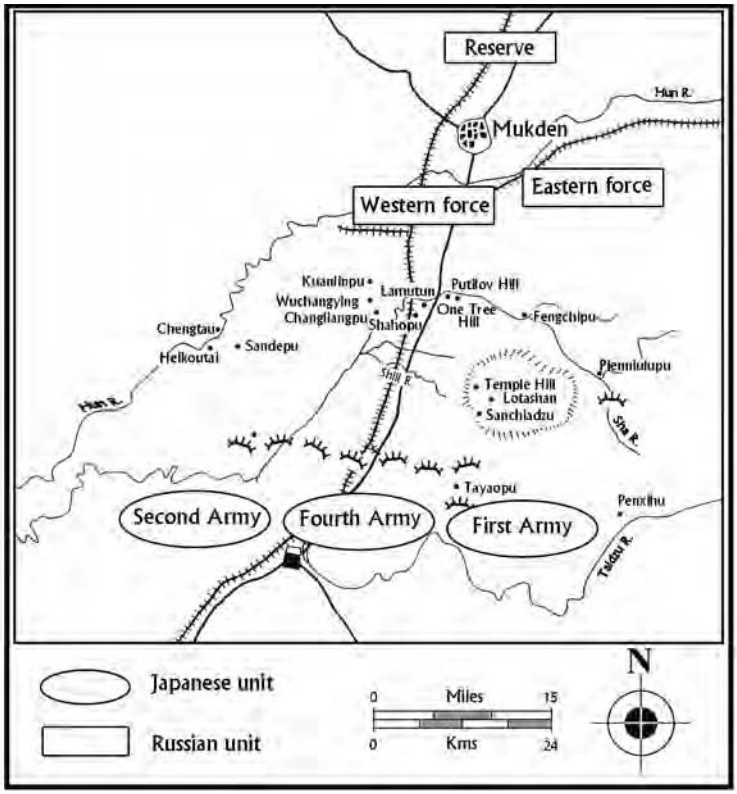
Naval battle of the Yellow Sea.



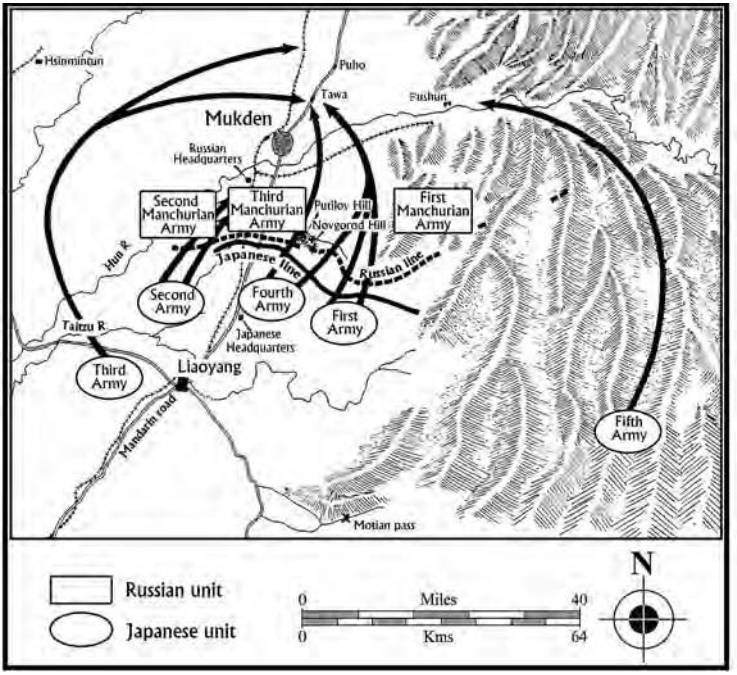
Battle of Liaoyang.



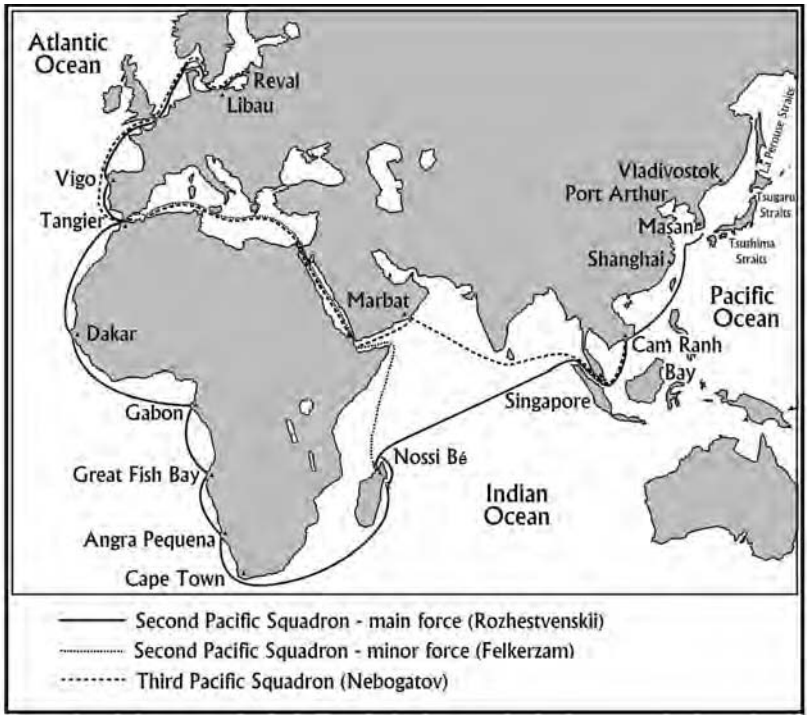
Siege of Port Arthur.



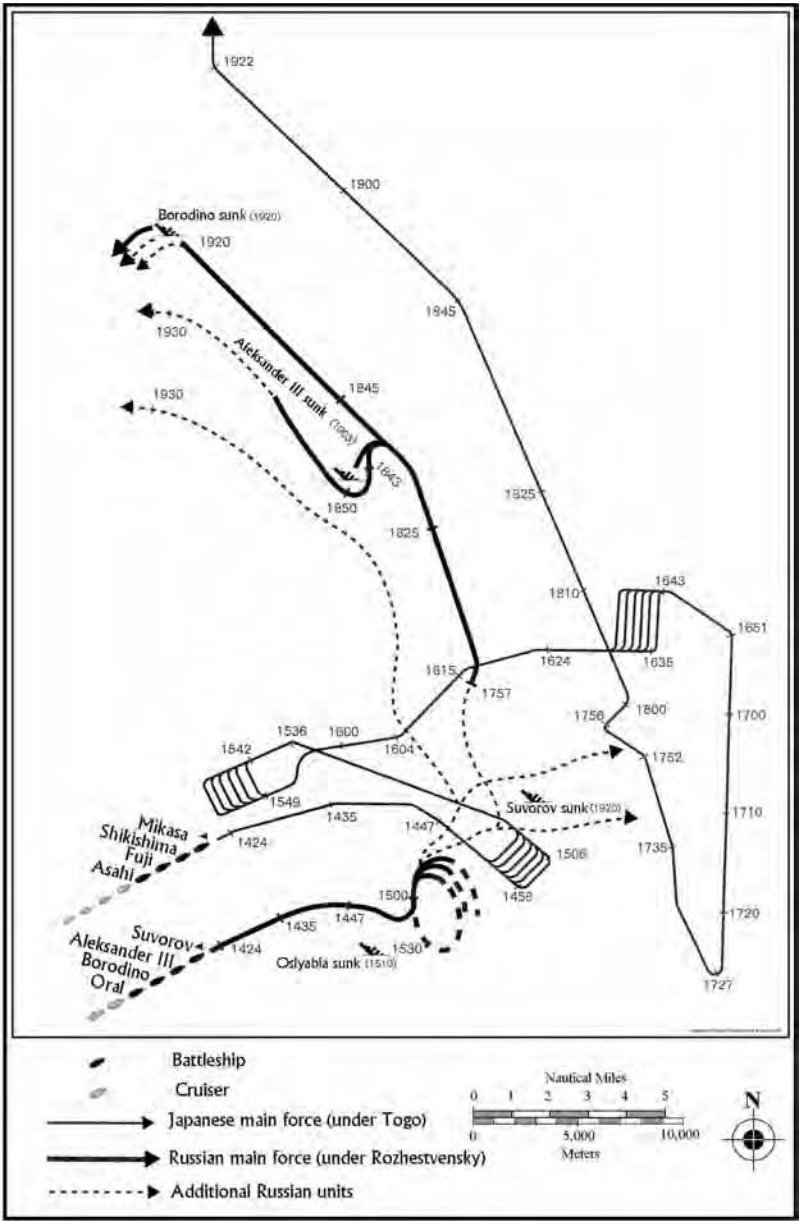
Battle of Sha-ho.



Battle of Mukden.



The voyage of the Baltic Fleet.



Naval battle of Tsushima.

Chronology

Prewar Events (1854–1904)

1854 31 March: United States and Japan sign the Treaty of Kanagawa.

1855 7 February: Russia and Japan sign the Shimoda Treaty; division of the Kuril Islands and joint control over Sakhalin.

1858 19 August: Russia and Japan sign a trade and navigation treaty.

1875 7 May: Russo–Japanese Exchange Treaty. Japan receives full control of the Kuril Islands while Russia receives full control of Sakhalin.

1876 February: Japanese naval force led by Kuroda Kiyotaka heads for Korea and negotiates the unequal Treaty of Kanghwa. The treaty opens Korean ports and allows for Japanese settlements on the peninsula.

1884 4 December: Progressive forces in the Korean government assisted by the Japanese minister stage a coup d'état in Seoul. Chinese military intervention suppresses the rebels and restores the king to the throne.

1885 5 April: China and Japan sign the Tientsin [Tianjin] Convention, which provides for the removal of their respective forces from Korean soil.

1891 11 May: In the Otsu Incident, a Japanese policeman wounds the Russian crown prince, Nicholas, in an assassination attempt during the prince's visit to Otsu, Japan. **31 May:** Construction of the Trans-Siberian Railway starts.

1894 **February:** Outbreak of the Tonghak rebellion in Korea. **21 July:** Japanese troops seize the Korean royal palace and install a puppet regent, while Japanese warships sink a Chinese troopship en route to Korea. **1 August:** Formal declaration of the First Sino–Japanese War. **October:** Japanese forces cross the Yalu River into Chinese territory. **1 November:** Tsar Alexander III dies; his son Nicholas II ascends the throne. **21 November:** Japanese forces take Port Arthur.

1895 **17 April:** Japan and China sign the Shimonoseki Treaty, ending the First Sino–Japanese War. **23 April:** Russia, Germany, and France submit an ultimatum to Japan, known as the Three-Power Intervention, to withdraw from the Liaotung peninsula. **8 October:** Korean Queen Min is assassinated in Seoul by members of the Japanese legation. **8 November:** A complementary treaty for the withdrawal of Japanese forces from China and Manchuria is signed.

1896 **10 February:** Korean King Kojong flees to the Russian legation (remains there until 20 February 1897). **3 June:** Conclusion of the Li–Lobanov agreement, granting Russia the right to build the Chinese Eastern Railway through Manchuria. **9 June:** Conclusion of the Yamagata–Lobanov agreement. **8 September:** A Russo–Chinese agreement for the construction of the Chinese Eastern Railway.

1897 **3 December:** Germany seizes Kiaochow in Shantung peninsula. **14 December:** Russia informs Germany that it intends to seize Port Arthur.

1898 **27 March:** China grants Russia 25-year leases to the ports of Dalny and Port Arthur. **25 April:** Conclusion of the Nishi–Rosen agreement. **10 December:** Under the Treaty of Paris that concludes the Spanish–American War, Spain cedes the Philippines to the United States.

1899 **Early:** The secret society of the Harmonious Fists (the Boxers) steps up attacks on Chinese converts along the Shandong–Heibei border. **September:** U.S. Secretary of State John Hay announces the Open-Door Policy regarding China.

1900 **10 June:** The Boxers enter Beijing. **9 July:** Russian army forces enter Manchuria. **4 August:** Russian forces occupy Niuchuang. **14 August:** The Boxers' siege lifted from the Foreign Legations quarter in Beijing. **Autumn:** Russian forces occupy the entire territory of Manchuria.

Introduction

THE ORIGINS OF THE RUSSO–JAPANESE WAR

From a broad historical perspective, the Russo–Japanese War was the flash point of prolonged friction between two expanding powers. From the west the Russian empire had been encroaching eastward for centuries, whereas from the east the Japanese empire had been expanding in the direction of the Asian mainland for three decades. The encounter between these two nations in the killing fields of **Korea** and **Manchuria**, areas that both sides were eager to control, was the first and most memorable confrontation between them.

Both belligerents were growing empires that tended during the premodern era to spread outward to new regions and to expand their borders. Still, **Russia** had more experience in the activity of territorial expansion. The Russian yearning for territorial expansion into East Asia was centuries old, pursued with economic, religious, and adventurous passion. In the 16th century, the area of Russia extended as far as the Ural Mountains. Beyond was Siberia, populated by tribal peoples who were unable to stem Russian intrusion. The Tatars cut off the Russian fur trade in the border areas in 1578, but a year later an expedition of **Cossacks**, led by an adventurer named Ermak (Yermak), was dispatched to renew it. In the following years, this expeditionary force pressed eastward for about 1,000 kilometers and, in less than a century, Russian explorers reached the Amur River.

At about the same time as Ermak's expedition, Japanese forces under the command of Toyotomi Hideyoshi strove to seize Korea and even **China**. Their failure, however, ended Japanese involvement in Asian affairs for almost three centuries. A few decades later, the fear of European-Christian involvement in the internal affairs of **Japan** drove the second shogun of the Tokugawa dynasty to a policy of long years of iso-

lation (*Sakoku*, 1640–1854). During that time, Japan maintained a continuous policy of non-involvement in Asian affairs, except for admitting a limited number of Chinese and Korean traders, as well as annual visits of Dutch merchant ships at the port of Nagasaki. For the time being, the Japanese need for territorial expansion was satisfied by the slow advance northward within the northern part of the Honshu mainland and the island of Ezo (now Hokkaido).

In 1697 Russian explorers arrived at Kamchatka, where they encountered for the first time a Japanese national and took him to Moscow. In the early decades of the 18th century, Russian hunters, researchers, and government officials penetrated the Kuril Islands northeast of Ezo. In 1739 Russians set foot for the first time on Japanese soil, and in 1792 a Russian expedition returned to Ezo but was not allowed entry. In 1804 a Russian flotilla arrived in Nagasaki; when not granted permission to enter the port, it shelled the villages in the area and attacked Japanese settlements in the Kuril Islands and in the adjacent elongated island of **Sakhalin**. Exactly a century before the Russo–Japanese War, tension between these two nations arose for the first time.

In the following half-century, Russo–Japanese relations calmed down, although Japan continued to bar Russian visits. In 1853, however, Tsar Nicholas I decided to dispatch another delegation to Nagasaki under the command of Vice Admiral Evfimii Putiatin, which did not complete its mission due to the outbreak of the Crimean War. Its timing, however, was exceptional, as in February 1854 an American flotilla under the command of Commodore Matthew Perry succeeded in forcing the shogun regime to end Japan's long period of isolation. A year later, Russia and Japan signed the first of three **prewar Russo–Japanese Treaties**, which included a temporary compromise regarding the division of Sakhalin. In 1868 a revolution known as the Meiji Restoration broke out in Japan, during which the shogun regime was replaced by an oligarchy of young samurai from the periphery. In consequence the Japanese nation entered into an accelerated process of modernization. That same year, the Japanese annexed Ezo and changed its name to Hokkaido.

During much of the second half of the 19th century, Russia and Japan maintained fairly stable relations, while both of them at the same time strengthened their hold in the region. In 1860 the Russians founded the city of **Vladivostok** on the shores of the Pacific Ocean. But they con-

tinued to look for an all-year-round open port of their own and therefore kept trying to expand southward. In 1875 Japan and Russia signed the second prewar Russo–Japanese treaty (the "exchange agreement") that set out once again their common borders. Partly pushed into an imperial struggle, the Japanese oligarchy was quick to examine ways not only to prevent the conquest of Japan by Western forces but also to strengthen its position in the eyes of the West. Its inability to change the unequal treaties signed by the shogunal representatives after the opening of the country led many in Japan to the conclusion that the road to regain national respect was by forming new relations with its neighbors in East Asia—China and Korea. In 1873 Japan felt internal pressures to take over Korea, but the debate was resolved with a pragmatic call for temporary restraint. To palliate the militant circles, a Japanese naval force landed in Formosa (Taiwan) in 1874 and forced the opening of Korea in 1876. During the 1870s, Japan expanded its territory by annexing the Ryukyu Islands in the southwest, the Bonin (Ogasawara) Islands in the south, and the Kuril Islands in the north.

Japanese military activities worried the Chinese, who decided to restore their now-weakened influence on Korea, and the 1880s were marked by a growing struggle in that country between China and Japan. From Japan's viewpoint, any attempt thereafter by a foreign power to take control of Korea was to be considered a *casus belli*. Such a power was China in 1894, and Russia a decade later. To prevent such escalation in Korea, in 1885 Japan and China signed the Tientsin [Tianjin] Convention. The status quo between Russia and Japan began to show cracks in 1891, the year the Russians announced the laying of the **Trans-Siberian Railway** from European Russia to the Pacific Ocean, a distance of about 9,200 kilometers. Russians often defined this project as a cultural mission—bringing civilization in general and Christianity in particular to the peoples of Asia. But it was too expensive an enterprise for purely cultural purposes. This ambitious project, with all its branches, was to change the face of East Asia.

As the construction of the line progressed, it became clear that its military goals had implications that were no less far-reaching. Once completed, the line was expected to assist, whenever necessary, in the rapid mobilization of military forces to East Asia. In **St. Petersburg** and in the capitals of Europe, observers saw it as a bridgehead for Russian expansion in East Asia. Major interest in the project was shown by

Russia's crown prince Nicholas, who in 1890 set out on a long trip to East Asia. His final destination was Vladivostok, where he was to lay the cornerstone for the railway terminal. On his way, the crown prince, who three years later became Tsar **Nicholas II**, visited Japan. There he was attacked by a fanatic policeman (the **Otsu Incident**), which may have affected his attitude toward Japan.

The Crucial Decade: The First Sino–Japanese War and Its Aftermath

In the decade before the Russo–Japanese War, a political vacuum was created in Korea, into which Russia was drawn. Ironically perhaps, it was Japan that contributed to this vacuum. The question of Japanese and Chinese hegemony in Korea led to the outbreak of the **First Sino–Japanese War** in the summer of 1894. While for China this was just another war in a series of struggles to maintain the integrity of its borders, for Japan it was the first war against a foreign country in modern times.

The impressive military victories of the Japanese army and navy aroused great joy in Japan, but in Europe they caused grave fears about the power of this country in particular and the ascendancy of East Asian nations in general. During the war, the German emperor, **William II**, invented the term "yellow peril," which quickly entered the international vocabulary as the hidden threat of the East Asian nations against Western civilization. Japan's victory was finalized diplomatically in the **Treaty of Shimonoseki**, according to which China was forced to cede Formosa and the **Liaotung peninsula**, with the harbor and fort of **Port Arthur** in its tip. Russia was alarmed by the notion of Japanese control in this peninsula, a gateway to Manchuria and the Chinese capital, Beijing. Less than a week later, on 23 April 1895, Russia managed to obtain the support of **France** and **Germany**, and together they relayed a message to Japan, "advising" it to restore to China the territories it had conquered in southern Manchuria, "for the sake of peace in the Far East." Under the explicit ultimatum of this **Three-Power Intervention**, Japan decided to give up the Liaotung peninsula. The enlarged indemnities it eventually received from China were no compensation, and the surrender to the threats of the powers was regarded as a national degradation.

After the defeat of China, Russia became the main rival of Japan, not only because of its involvement in the Three-Power Intervention, but by reason of its expansionist ambitions in East Asia. Japan was aware of the Trans-Siberian Railway project, but the focus of the Russo–Japanese rivalry centered at that time on Korea, whose king was beginning to view the Russians as his saviors. Russia, together with the **United States**, objected to the plans to grant the Japanese exclusive rights in Korea, and they induced the other powers to demand Korean concessions in the peninsula, such as a franchise for mining and for railway tracks. The position of Japan began to deteriorate, and in the summer of 1895 its agents attempted abortively to turn the country into a Japanese protectorate. On 8 October 1895, several members of the Japanese legation in **Seoul**, dressed in local garb and led by the Japanese minister to Korea, **Miura Gorô**, entered the palace and carried out the **assassination of Queen Min**, the most vehement opponent of Japanese presence in Korea.

In February 1896, when Japanese troops landed near the capital to assist in another revolt, King **Kojong** found sanctuary in the building of the Russian legation in Seoul, which was surrounded by 200 Russian marines for its protection. Many Koreans interpreted the "internal exile" of their monarch as an uprising against the Japanese presence and began to act accordingly. Japanese advisers were expelled from their positions, collaborators were executed, and the new cabinet was constituted of persons regarded as pro-Russian. A year after the First Sino–Japanese War had ended, Russian involvement in Korea was greater than ever before, while Japan fell back to its prewar position. In **Tokyo**, prominent figures such as **Yamagata Aritomo** claimed that Japan had to accept Russian hegemony in Korea for the time being and avoid a situation in which Japan might have to confront all the Western nations on this issue. In May 1896, the representatives of Russia and Japan signed a memorandum in which the latter recognized the new Korean cabinet. The two nations also agreed to station the same number of troops in Korea. A month later, this memorandum was ratified as the **Yamagata-Lobanov Agreement** during Yamagata's visit to Moscow for the coronation ceremony of Nicholas II.

The Russians also invited to the coronation ceremony the Chinese statesman **Li Hongzhang**, who was bribed to sign the **Li–Lobanov agreement**. The core of the agreement was mutual aid in the event of

Japanese aggression, but it was unclear how valid it was and who in the Chinese imperial court knew about it. However, one clause in the agreement was implemented at once: Li's consent to grant Russia the concession to build a significant shortcut for the Trans-Siberian Railway line across Manchuria to Chita [Cita], which led to a substantial increase in Russian involvement in the region.

The landing of German troops in Kiachow Bay on the Shantung peninsula in November 1897 caused the Chinese to invite the Russians, as a counter-measure, to temporarily occupy Port Arthur. From a Japanese perspective, the lease of Port Arthur by Russia was a critical step. With the memories of the evacuation still vivid, public agitation in Japan compelled the Russians to offer the Japanese a free hand in Korea in return for similar freedom in Manchuria. For the first time, the Japanese now formulated the doctrine of **Manchuria–Korea exchange**, which quickly resulted in the **Nishi–Rosen agreement** signed in May 1898. The Russians' desire for compromise was motivated by the need to buy time, a factor that was to underlie their policy toward the Japanese until the war. After it absorbed Manchuria, Russia began to envisage a continuous maritime link between Port Arthur and Vladivostok. This necessitated the control if not the subjugation of Korea, which Japan considered vital to its own empire. Henceforward the clash between the two nations was only a matter of time, as both sides were to increasingly view the competition for rail concessions, commercial expansion, and regional dominance as a zero-sum game that only one of them could win.

Russia indeed began to show greater interest in Korea in 1899, but the **Boxer Uprising** that spread throughout the north of China during 1900 momentarily restrained the simmering rivalry. Both Japan and Russia dispatched troops to aid in suppressing the Chinese rebellion. Russia, forced to abandon Korea, used this opportunity to occupy Manchuria with military forces. With the joint intervention over, the time was ripe for the Japanese to settle the struggle over Korea. Fearing that the impending completion of the Trans-Siberian Railway would bring the Russians back into Korea, the militant cabinet of **Katsura Tarô** pushed fiercely for a Russian evacuation of Manchuria. Although their negotiations with the Russians soon proved futile, the Japanese were more successful in their talks with **Great Britain**. The **Anglo–Japanese Treaty**, signed on 30 January 1902, provided Britain

with a strong Asian ally that could assist it in the struggle against Russian expansion on several fronts across Asia. For Japan, however, the treaty ensured that Russia would be isolated in case of another conflict with Japan, and in this way the treaty prevented this local confrontation from becoming an all-out European war, contrary to what occurred in 1914.

The Final Year: The Descent toward War

From the Japanese viewpoint, Russia's reluctance to withdraw from Manchuria was fully in line with their knowledge of its renewed interest in Korea. In February 1903 the Russians requested Korea to grant franchise for a Russian railway enterprise from Seoul northward to the border of the **Yalu River**. In June the general staff of the **Imperial Japanese Army** concluded that Japan should not disregard Russia's failure to keep to its commitment to withdraw from Manchuria, but that it should resort to military means if negotiations failed. Because of the sense of emergency, the **Imperial Council** also met in Tokyo on 23 June 1903 but seemed more willing to compromise.

In the spring of 1903, a Russian enterprise known as the **Yalu River Timber Concessions** set up its main office on the Korean side of Yalu delta. In an attempt to bring the hardliners together and to encourage Russian activity in Korea, on 12 August 1903 the tsar appointed Admiral **Evgenii Alekseev** to the new position of viceroy of the Far East region, residing in Port Arthur. Alekseev was supposed to be directly in charge of Russian interests in the region, although his authority was not fully defined. Two weeks later, the tsar completed his round of appointments. Finance Minister **Sergei Witte**, the architect of the Trans-Siberian Railway and a political dove, fell out of favor and was dismissed, whereas two adventurous and militant figures rose to power: the energetic **Aleksandr Bezobrazov** and his cousin **Aleksei Abaza**, secretary of the newly formed "Special Committee for the Far East." These two, as well as a number of prominent figures in St. Petersburg known collectively as the **Bezobrazov Circle**, urged a more adamant policy and the securing of additional concessions in Korea. Although the Trans-Siberian Railway was near completion, only a few in St. Petersburg believed that the Japanese intended to go to war. War Minister **Aleksei Kuropatkin** and Foreign Minister **Vladimir Lamsdorf** also submitted

their resignations but were persuaded to withdraw them. From then on, their moderating influence was muted and Russian foreign policy was fashioned through two voices that were more aggressive than before, one from the capital and the other from Port Arthur.

The shift in Russian policy had an effect on relations with China. In the autumn Alekseev halted negotiations over the Russian withdrawal from Manchuria and instead held a grand parade in **Mukden**. In September, Japanese and Russian representatives began negotiations in Tokyo. The Russian response, which was given at the beginning of October, disappointed the Japanese. It included an offer to turn the northern part of Korea beyond the 39th parallel into a neutral zone in return for removing Manchuria from Japan's sphere of interest. The Russians did not include in their proposal any obligation regarding the withdrawal of their forces. On 30 October the Japanese representatives offered amendments to the Russian proposal, limiting the neutral zone in Korea, moving its western borderline into Manchurian territory, and demanding recognition of their commercial rights in Manchuria.

Japanese decision-makers were aware that the Russians were trying to buy time. Moreover, the tsar was absent from the capital until November 1903, allegedly preoccupied with more urgent diplomatic issues in the European arena and in distress due to his wife's illness. At the beginning of December, Japanese opposition factions grouped together in Tokyo against the government of Katsura, claiming it was not doing enough to counter the Russian threat. An opportunity for action came on 11 December when the Russian minister in Tokyo, **Roman Rosen**, delivered his government's response. It did not contain any significant change from the former proposal and refrained from mentioning Manchuria, an area regarded as a matter for China and Russia alone. It rejected the Japanese exchange formula of Korea for Manchuria without any alternative compromise offer. In Tokyo a sense that there was no diplomatic solution to the crisis prevailed, although on 21 December another proposal, stated as the final one and containing the issue of Manchuria, was delivered to Russia. Simultaneously, the oligarchy in Tokyo sought to build a broad consensus for going to war over Manchuria if the Japanese proposals on Korea were rejected; Japanese preparations for war continued unabated. During December the **First** and the **Second Fleets** of the **Imperial Japanese Navy** were combined under a joint command; toward the end of the month, comprehensive

discussions took place at different military levels regarding the approaching war against Russia.

In St. Petersburg, matters proceeded calmly. On 28 December the tsar met with several of his ministers to discuss the Japanese proposals. The general attitude at the meeting was a desire to avoid war, at least for the time being, on the assumption that time was in Russia's favor and that the Trans-Siberian Railway would soon be fully functional and would aid in any future war effort. Besides, there was a general sense of confidence as to the power of Russia to withstand a Japanese attack, considering the relatively large number of forces in the region since the entry into Manchuria. Even though there was no agreement over the response to the Japanese proposal, it was decided to make an effort to calm Japan, and a message in that spirit was indeed sent by Rosen on 6 January 1904. The Russian message reiterated the need to create a neutral zone in Korea and that Japan should recognize Manchuria as being outside Japan's sphere of interest. It also intimated that Russia would not interfere with Japan or any other power taking full advantage of the rights granted them in the area according to their agreements with China, "except for the founding of settlements."

It is quite probable that before the Boxer Uprising the Russian response would have satisfied the Japanese. But as things stood, in early 1904 the general mood in Tokyo was that the Russians were not willing to compromise and that they could not be trusted. The winter gave the Japanese an advantage because the port of Vladivostok was frozen and naval vessels could not sail. On 12 January another meeting of the Imperial Council determined that Russia had not made any significant concessions over Korea and was not willing to enter into negotiations regarding Manchuria while trying to build up its military strength there. The next day Japan sent the Russians an ultimatum, stating its readiness to accept their proposals regarding Manchuria if Russia agreed to similar conditions regarding Korea. The Japanese ultimatum reached St. Petersburg on 16 January but was not given immediate attention and was probably not understood as an ultimatum.

On 2 February 1904 **Kurino Shin'ichirô**, the Japanese ambassador at St. Petersburg, informed his government that the Russians had no intention of replying. The same day the tsar approved a Russian counterresponse to the ultimatum, which was conveyed to Tokyo via Port Arthur. The response did indeed include a reference to Manchuria, but

it contained no significant change in the Russian position, despite the feeling among Russian historians later that the response was "generous." The message reached Tokyo only on 7 February, although its gist had already been forwarded by the Japanese ambassador. It was too late. During the previous week the Japanese army made final preparations for war. On 6 February, Kurino announced the rupture of diplomatic relations and began preparations to leave St. Petersburg. That day too the Russian ambassador was called to the residence of the Japanese foreign minister and received an identical announcement. In it Japan accused Russia of delaying its response in an inexplicable manner and stated that it was difficult to reconcile the military actions of Russia with its declared intentions of peace.

Military Balance and War Plans

In purely numerical terms, Japan's venturing into war against Russia was compared, at least in the eyes of the world press at that time, to David facing Goliath. But when the prewar **military balance** is examined, the seemingly unbridgeable differences between the rivals is seen as a product of widespread illusions rather than careful analysis. Granted, the Russian standing army was more then three times greater than the Imperial Japanese Army, and the **Imperial Russian Navy** was far larger than its rival. Nonetheless, in East Asia the Russian military presence was fairly limited, and only the Russian **Pacific Fleet** was roughly of similar strength to the Imperial Japanese Navy (see appendix 4). At the beginning of the war, in fact, and during certain significant stages, Japan enjoyed a qualitative and at times even a quantitative advantage in the number of soldiers and the number of vessels at its disposal. Nevertheless, Japan had to exploit its superiority rapidly, and it could not afford to fail, because failure at any stage of the war could yield up the local advantage to Russia.

The Japanese **war plans**, prepared separately by the army and the navy, played a central role in shaping the course of the battle. The first premise of the plan was that in a war against the Russians in northeast Asia, Japan would benefit from its short supply lines and from the ability to array its forces rapidly along the front. The war scenario proposed an opening blow by the Japanese against the harbors of Port Arthur and Vladivostok that would put the Pacific Fleet totally out of action. Next

the army could overrun the relatively small **Imperial Russian Army** units in Manchuria before it could muster any reinforcements by the still unfinished Trans-Siberian Railway. The plan recognized that Japan could not eliminate the Russian threat forever, but it assumed that even partial success would bring the Russians to the negotiating table, around which Japan could use Manchuria as a bargaining chip.

The Russian war plans were by nature defensive, and they allowed for a scenario in which the Japanese would be the first aggressors, trying to invade Manchuria. The Russian plans were constantly subject to change, and were still not complete when war broke out. Their first draft had been prepared in 1895 after the show of Japanese strength in the First Sino–Japanese War. They were updated to suit the changing realities in 1901 and again in 1903. The updated plan on the eve of the war stated that in case of Japanese attack, the Imperial Russian Army would protect both Port Arthur and Vladivostok, and deploy defensively behind the Yalu River, with particular emphasis on the region of Mukden. It was also planned to send reinforcements to the region, and once the Russian forces attained numerical superiority, they would go on the offensive. The war was supposed to conclude with an invasion of the Japanese home islands, although there was no detailed plan beyond an initial deployment of the Russian defense. The final version of the plan was based on Russian control of the sea and on a land struggle lasting long enough for reinforcements to arrive overland.

THE COURSE OF THE WAR

On the morning of 6 February 1904, the day diplomatic relations between Japan and Russia were broken off, the Japanese **Combined Fleet** under the command of Admiral **Tôgô Heihachirô** sailed for the shores of Korea. Opposite the port city of **Chemulpo**, in the vicinity of Seoul, the force split into two. Most of the warships made for Port Arthur, while a small naval force under Rear Admiral **Uryû Sotokichi** remained to protect the **landing operations** of the army in Chemulpo on the night of 8 February. On the following morning the forces of the **First Army** took control of the Korean capital. From outside the neutral port, a Japanese naval force demanded that the Russian naval detachment depart from it. Following a short engagement outside the harbor, known

as the **battle of Chemulpo**, the Russian **cruiser *Variag*** and the **gunvessel *Koreets*** returned to the port. Their crews scuttled the vessels rather than hand them over to the enemy. In Port Arthur, 10 Japanese **destroyers** attacked the Russian warships in the harbor with **torpedoes** but did not inflict much damage. On 10 February, Japan declared war (see appendix 1), whereupon a 19-month war officially began.

In the first two months of the war, Japan occupied the entire Korean peninsula with virtually no Russian opposition. While Russia hoped that Japan would be content with this territory, the latter was determined to cross the Yalu River and invade Manchuria. The mid-scale engagement between the two belligerents along this river from 1 to 5 May 1904 produced the first major defeat of the Imperial Russian Army. Generally, the **battle of the Yalu** marked the start of the Russian defeat by the Japanese and was to be remembered as such for decades to come. It was the first time in the modern age that an Asian force overcame a European force in a full-scale clash. The contemporary psychological impact of the rout on the Russian land forces was so great that in retrospect some writers have viewed this as the decisive battle of the war.

The Japanese Takeover of the Liaotung Peninsula

Within a month of the crossing of the Yalu River by the Japanese First Army, the **Second**, **Fourth**, and **Third Armies** landed along the southern coast of the Liaotung peninsula. At this stage, Field Marshal **Ôyama Iwao**, commander-in-chief of the Japanese **Manchurian Army**, turned to **Liaoyang**, the point where he planned to have his armies converge. Defeating the Russians around the city, he assumed, would enable him to take control of all the Liaotung peninsula and to overpower the defenses of Port Arthur. An initial step in accomplishing this goal was the Japanese success in cutting off the garrison in Port Arthur from the rest of the Russian **Manchurian Army** in the north. The Japanese chose the hills of **Nanshan**, the narrowest passage connecting the **Kwantung peninsula** to the Liaotung peninsula. The **battle of Nanshan** was fought on 26 May 1904, and in its aftermath the Russian forces abandoned the nearby port of **Dalny**.

While the Third Army under General **Nogi Maresuke** was designated to lay siege to Port Arthur, the main Japanese forces turned northward, en route to Liaoyang, and on 14–15 June 1904 they engaged Rus-

sian forces in **Telissu**. The quick, disastrous defeat in the **battle of Telissu** ended Russian attempts to move south, and consequently the Russian commander, General Aleksei Kuropatkin, resumed his defensive strategy. On 24–25 July 1904, Japanese and Russian forces engaged in the **battle of Tashihchiao**. Units of the two belligerents fought again a week later, on 30–31 July 1904, farther north, and this **battle of Hsimucheng** resulted in another Russian retreat.

Finally, on 25 August 1904, the **battle of Liaoyang** was joined. This was the biggest land engagement so far, fought near the city of Liaoyang, where Kuropatkin had set up a new defense line during his "planned withdrawal" up the Liaotung peninsula. Not only did he regard the site as suitable for "a decisive battle," but the viceroy, Evgenii Alekseev, assumed that Russia's Manchurian Army had at last accumulated sufficient forces for its first victory over the Japanese, thereby breaking the siege of Port Arthur. Liaoyang was also the point at which Ôyama planned to have his three armies converge. Defeating the Russians around the city, he assumed, would enable him to overpower the defenses of Port Arthur. At that stage the two belligerents were convinced that the impending collision at Liaoyang would determine the outcome of the war. Instead, the battle determined only that the decisive moment would occur later and elsewhere. Altogether the two forces numbered close to 300,000, a figure exceeded at that time only by the battle of Sedan of 1870.

On 3 September, when the battle ended, the Russians retreated and Kuropatkin established his headquarters in Mukden. The Japanese victory was not complete, as the Russians managed to retreat with confidence and to postpone the decisive battle to another occasion. Just over a month later, another large-scale land battle broke out near the Sha River (Sha-ho), on the route to Mukden. The **battle of Sha-ho** was fought from 10 to 17 October 1904, and it too ended in a Russian retreat. Tactically the overall results were not decisive, and the Russians re-formed just south of Mukden on the Sha River.

The Siege of Port Arthur

From the onset of the war it was apparent that Port Arthur had not only strategic importance but also great symbolic significance, since it represented Russian power in East Asia. Despite Port Arthur's separation from the rest of the Russian army in Manchuria, the almost intact

units of the Pacific Fleet in its harbor remained a constant threat to Japanese naval hegemony. In the first months of the war, the Imperial Japanese Navy attempted in vain to impose a naval blockade on the harbor. It used altogether 21 blockships and simultaneously began **mining operations** of the port that led to the sinking of the Russian flagship ***Petropavlovsk*** together with the illustrious commander of the Pacific Fleet, Vice Admiral **Stepan Makarov**. On 10 August 1904 the Japanese Combined Fleet and the Russian Pacific Fleet in Port Arthur engaged in their most important battle during the war, known as the **battle of the Yellow Sea**. It was a consequence of the intensifying Japanese **siege of Port Arthur** and the growing pressure on the Russian naval force in Port Arthur to escape to Vladivostok. Following the death of Rear Admiral **Vilgelm Vitgeft** caused by two Japanese shells, the Russian warships returned to their harbor. Thereafter the Japanese actions continued undisturbed by any Russian naval intervention until the arrival of the **Baltic Fleet** nine months later.

Japanese determination to take this principal naval base and fortress at all costs resulted in one of the greatest sieges in history. It lasted about seven months and cost both sides over 100,000 casualties. The siege began once the Imperial Japanese Army gained control of southern Manchuria following the seizure of Nanshan. Consequently the Third Army assumed the task of conquering the site, and following the crucial fall of **203-Meter Hill** in November 1904, the fort surrendered on 2 January 1905. With the takeover of the fort, the Third Army headed north and joined the main Japanese land forces for the decisive confrontation against the Russian Manchurian Army in the vicinity of Mukden.

The Final Battles: Mukden and Tsushima

The final major land engagement and the largest single battle of the Russo–Japanese War occurred in the vicinity of the city of Mukden. The two deeply entrenched forces faced each other for several months. The Russians were the first to move. On 25–29 January 1905, there was a short engagement known as the **battle of Sandepu**, which ended in great losses but without a significant change in the lines. Both forces were then reinforced during the interlude until the decisive **battle of Mukden**, fought between 23 February and 10 March 1905. This was the largest engagement in military history until then, and it ended in a

Russian retreat. Both sides suffered horrific casualties. Following the battle, both forces were spent and needed much time to reorganize and replace the casualties. The Japanese forces in particular lacked additional sources of manpower, and the government began more earnestly to seek an end to the conflict through negotiation.

Nevertheless, the war was still far from over, since a Russian naval reinforcement consisting of the Baltic Fleet, and renamed the **Second Pacific Squadron**, was heading toward the shores of Japan under the command of Vice Admiral **Zinovii Rozhestvenskii**. The decision to dispatch this fleet was made in June 1904, although its first units sailed only in October. When Port Arthur fell in early January 1905, most of the warships had already rounded the Cape of Good Hope. Still, the epic **voyage of the Baltic Fleet** continued five months more, until its 52 warships approached the **Tsushima Straits**.

The Russians encountered the well-prepared Japanese Combined Fleet under the command of Admiral Tôgô Heihachirô, and two great forces clashed on 27–28 May 1905. The outcome of the **battle of Tsushima** was decisive. It was not only the most devastating defeat suffered by the Imperial Russian Navy during its entire history, but also the only truly decisive engagement between two fleets of **battleships** in modern times. All the Russian battleships were lost; only a few of the surviving Russian warships managed to escape. Three vessels alone completed the voyage and arrived safely in Vladivostok. Following the battle, the Russian government's hopes of somehow reversing the military situation in East Asia were shattered. Now it was compelled to enter into peace negotiations, which resulted in the **Treaty of Portsmouth**, signed a little more than three months later.

Political and Social Features of the War in Russia and Japan

Public opinion in Japan and Russia on the war differed substantially, and consequently it had a great effect on the conduct of the war by the two sides. In Japan the war was perceived as vital to the preservation of national sovereignty and a cause for patriotic mobilization. The public supported the war wholeheartedly and was ready for human sacrifice and economic hardship. Since the turn of the century, associations such as the **Kokuryûkai** and the **Tairo Dôshikai**, and groups such as the one leading to the **Seven Professors Incident**, pushed for expansion in Asia

and urged the government to take a hard line against Russia. This militant approach prevailed among the Japanese public and was manifested most extremely in the **Hibiya Riots**, soon after the disappointing terms of the Treaty of Portsmouth were revealed. Only a tiny minority of Japanese opposed the war, for humanistic motives, as manifested by **Uchimura Kanzô** and to a certain extent by the poet **Yosano Akiko**, or for socialist motives, as manifested by the **Heiminsha** members.

In Russia the war broke out with subdued public support, which waned still more as soon as the people realized that this remote conflict was irrelevant to their own troubles. The most significant internal event in Russia during the war was the **Revolution of 1905**, which adversely affected Russia's military capability generally and fostered the tsar's willingness to end the war and to accept the **Portsmouth Peace Conference**. While the origins of the revolution can be found decades earlier, Russia's successive defeats in the first half of the war brought to the surface strong discontent among the rising urban middle class and industrial workers. On 22 January 1905, three weeks after the surrender of the fortress of Port Arthur, tsarist troops opened fire on a non-violent demonstration in St. Petersburg, resulting in a massacre known as **Bloody Sunday**.

The tsar's promise in March to summon a "consultative assembly" was insufficient to calm the mounting agitation, and throughout the spring and early summer of 1905 there were strikes, severe civil disturbances, such as the **Lodz Uprising**, and assassinations of political figures. In the army and navy there were many mutinies, the most notorious being the **Potemkin mutiny** that broke out aboard a warship of the **Black Sea Fleet**. The revolutionary activities continued also after the conclusion of the Treaty of Portsmouth. At the end of October, all European Russia was paralyzed by a general strike, directed in the capital by the first workers' *soviet* (council). The tsar eventually yielded on 30 October and issued the **October Manifesto**, granting Russia a constitution and promising a legislative **Duma**. The revolution then began to calm down, although in some locations, notably in Moscow, riots and mutinies continued until early 1906.

The War and the World

Upon the declaration of war on 10 February 1904, the Japanese government sent a message to various governments announcing its deci-

sion. In the following 12 days, it received declarations of **neutrality** from 18 nations, including all the great European powers and the United States. Neutral nations were expected to fulfill their obligations strictly and not to succor either of the two belligerents. During the war the issue of neutrality thus arose, particularly in regard to war contraband and internment of warships. Although the Russo–Japanese War has not lingered long in the collective memory of humanity, it had much exposure at the time. The war attracted many renowned **war correspondents** such as **Jack London**, **Frederic Villiers**, and **Maurice Baring**, who reported its progress to avid readers in the West, using **radio** transmission for the first time. More than in any war before, the conflict in Manchuria also attracted a large number of **military observers**, who were dispatched to the front by non-belligerent governments to observe the war for military purposes. All in all, over 80 officers from the armed forces of 16 different nations observed the conflict from both sides. Many of them were to enjoy distinguished military careers and rose to become leading military figures in their respective armies and navies, especially during World War I. These observers included renowned military figures such as Lieutenant General (at the time of the Russo–Japanese War) **Ian Hamilton**, Captain (Royal Navy) **Ernest Troubridge**, and Lieutenant Colonel **James Haldane** from Great Britain; Major General **Arthur MacArthur** and Captain **John Pershing** from the United States; Captain **Carl Hoffmann** from Germany; and Major **Enrico Caviglia** from Italy.

The Conclusion of the War

The peace initiative that brought the two belligerents to the negotiating table was the brainchild of U.S. President **Theodore Roosevelt**, who in February 1905 sent messages to the two governments informing them of his readiness to serve as mediator. Following the battle of Mukden, the Japanese oligarchy was increasingly willing to end the hostilities, as they could not reach a decisive victory on land and the war had depleted Japan's economy and human resources. In Russia the war had very little support among the public, but the political leadership, especially the tsar, were prepared to continue the fight on the assumption that time would be in their favor. This attitude too changed following the defeat at the battle of Tsushima. Still, the obstinate stance of the tsar

forced the Japanese to give their opponents a defiant reminder that the military option was well in hand. Following Roosevelt's suggestion, they did not hesitate to invade Sakhalin in July 1905. After the **conquest of Sakhalin**, their troops were deployed in a position to capture Vladivostok.

The two belligerents eventually met in Portsmouth, New Hampshire, and from the very start of the negotiations it became clear that the issue of reparations would be the bone of contention, since both parties saw it not only as having serious economic significance but also as a symbolic issue. Between 9 and 30 August, 12 sessions were held, in which Russia's chief plenipotentiary, Sergei Witte, became gradually convinced that Japan desperately wanted peace. He consequently presented Russia's "last concession," which included recognition of Japanese control over the southern half of Sakhalin but no indemnity or any other financial compensation. A refusal, he believed, might place the blame for the breakdown of the talks on Japan. Japan indeed yielded to Witte's ultimatum, and on 5 September 1905 the two nations signed the Treaty of Portsmouth, according to which Korea became a Japanese protectorate. Japan also won control of the Kwantung peninsula and the southern half of Sakhalin, while Russia removed all its armed forces from Manchuria. When news of the peace agreement reached Tokyo, 30,000 demonstrators amassed and the Hibiya Riots broke out, leading to the declaration of temporary martial law in the capital.

REPERCUSSIONS AND LEGACY OF THE WAR

The Balance of Power in the West

During the Russo–Japanese War and soon after, significant geopolitical changes began to crystallize in Europe, leading to a new balance, or rather imbalance, of power. Critically, the defeat of Russia undermined the military balance that had endured in Europe since the Napoleonic era, principally due to the emergence of Germany as an unequalled military and industrial power, which became a source of apprehension in France, Great Britain, and later Russia. To face the German threat, these nations overcame their colonial differences and formed the **Anglo–French Entente** (*Entente Cordiale*), signed during the first stages of the war, while Russia joined them three years later to form the

Triple Entente of 1907. These changing circumstances were one of the underlying motives for the German landing in Tangiers in March 1905 and the ensuing **Moroccan Crisis**, which served as a message to France that Germany would take up arms if its imperialistic ambitions were not respected. In 1907, two years after the war ended, a new balance between the European powers was created and remained in force until the outbreak of World War I. The impulse to an all-European war was not irreversible, but on the diplomatic front no change occurred in the power relationships over the next decade, and no new alignment was formed to avert a major conflict in Europe.

The Russo–Japanese War was not the only cause of the Revolution of 1905 in Russia, but it served as its main catalyst. While the upheavals in Russia prevented the government from acting with full force against Japan, the war outside Russia made it difficult to respond resolutely to the turmoil within. Above all, the Russian defeat had a psychological effect on the public, who for the first time witnessed the weakness of the autocratic regime. The urban population and even the peasants were susceptible to the speeches of the revolutionaries, and the people's belief in the tsar began to wane. The direct outcome of the war was Nicholas II's readiness to set up a legislative council called the Duma, and to grant the people a constitution. The first Duma was received in the palace of the tsar in 1906, but from the very start it struggled to obtain political and civil rights, and to implement plans that were not included among the concessions of the tsar at the end of 1905. The struggle for less autocratic rule during the war led to the formal dissolution of the Duma within a few months, although it continued to function up to the Bolshevik Revolution of 1917. The tsar's inability to cope simultaneously with a foreign enemy and an internal rebellion, as evident in the Russo–Japanese War, was to recur with even greater intensity after 1914, and to lead to his downfall three years later.

Even on the European periphery of the Russian empire, such as in **Finland** and **Poland**, there were clear signs of rebellion and change. Toward the end of 19th century, the Russians tightened their control over the semi-independent duchy of Finland, but the Revolution of 1905 in Russia sparked a national awakening among the Finns. Following demonstrations and a general strike, the status quo that had been in force in Finland until 1899 was restored, and the rights of the local parliament were reinstated. Divided between Russia, Germany, and **Austro–Hungary**,

Poland experienced a surge of hope for independence during the war. In 1905 two movements fighting for the unification of Poland were founded, and a year later 36 Polish delegates were elected to the Duma.

The Russo–Japanese War was accompanied by keen international awareness of the increasing importance of the United States, which had emerged earlier as a leading economic power but still lacked the skills and experience to exploit its economic achievements for decisive international influence. Despite its initial sympathetic attitude toward Japan, the United States was interested in balancing and weakening both belligerents, so as to sustain its own economic involvement in East Asia. Maintaining its neutrality throughout the war, the United States eventually acted as a mediator. The conclusion of the war at the Portsmouth Peace Conference was nonetheless the achievement of the American president, Theodore Roosevelt, who later received the Nobel Prize for peace for his efforts. While demanding that Japan maintain the **Open-Door Policy** in Manchuria, and return this territory to Chinese sovereignty, the Americans were reluctant to enter into conflict with Japan, and recognized Japanese control over Korea in the **Katsura–Taft agreement**.

The goodwill on both sides of the Pacific, however, could not prevent the looming American–Japanese confrontation as the United States continued in its ascent to global supremacy. In 1907 the Americans updated their "Orange Plan" to protect the waters of the Pacific Ocean against the Japanese menace, for fear that their rival would take control of American outposts in the Philippines and Hawaii, and might even blockade the Panama Canal. American apprehension of Japan, slightly premature but not unrealistic, tightened the restrictions on Japanese immigration to the United States and was the first step of a hostile policy toward Japan in the 1920s. The Russo–Japanese War was therefore the beginning of "Cold War"-like relations that steadily deteriorated and erupted in a full-blown military confrontation in December 1941.

The balance of power among the nations was also upset in the military sphere. Rather than a typical "colonial war," the Russo–Japanese War served as a dress rehearsal for World War I. As a conflict between two large and modern powers, it attracted the attention of all the larger armies and navies. The military observers dispatched to the front witnessed a number of large-scale battles and recorded their conclusions in thick volumes. The Russo–Japanese War provided overwhelming proof

for those who still doubted the importance of firepower as the dominant factor in military combat, and some of the sharper observers did not have to wait for Verdun to realize the deadly and decisive effect of intensive **artillery** in general and the **machine gun** in particular. Nonetheless, even after the war, supporters of the offensive still maintained that initiative and fighting spirit, as shown by the Japanese, could break through any line of defense. So it came about that European armies' indifference to adopting fresh tactical or strategic approaches, considering the dramatic increase in firepower in warfare, begot such carnage a decade later.

In the naval arena as well, the war was followed by drastic transformations, although it did not result in a disturbance of the naval balance among the major powers. The loss of a significant part of the Imperial Russian Navy, the third largest in the world before the war, put the British **Royal Navy**, the biggest fleet in the world, in a far stronger position at the end of the war than it had enjoyed throughout the previous two decades. Great Britain was concerned now by the rapid growth of the German Imperial Navy, and expected that the construction of the **dreadnought**, a revolutionary class of battleship, would ensure it the upper hand. With the commission of HMS *Dreadnought* in 1906, more than 100 battleships of earlier classes became obsolete and a new naval arms race began in the world. While **submarines** did not take part in this war, both sides successfully employed torpedoes, **mines**, and radio transmitters.

Implications of the War on Asia and the Colonial Empires

The Russo–Japanese War also had far-reaching implications for East Asia. They resulted from the victory of Japan and its rise to power on the one hand, and from the decline in the power of Russia on the other. Russia had posed a direct threat to Chinese and Korean sovereignty, but also helped to maintain equilibrium by acting against Japan's expansionist ambitions after the defeat of China in 1894–1895. It was only after defeating Russia that Japan was viewed by others, and especially by itself, as equal to all other imperial powers active in East Asia; only then did it become, at least from a military perspective, the strongest power in the area. With the end of the war, the number of businessmen and private entrepreneurs who went from Japan to Manchuria in search of new

business opportunities began to soar. The victory over Russia not only did not curtail military requirements, but even increased them. With the occupation of territories on the Asian mainland, this created among the decision-makers in Japan an exaggerated sense of the need to strengthen the army and establish a strategic infrastructure.

Two years after the war, a national security plan was formulated in Japan that defined Russia, France, and for the first time the United States as possible national foes. At that time they all had normal relations with Japan, but they also had interests in East Asia and in the Pacific Ocean that were viewed by the decision-makers in Japan as opposed to their national security. As a lesson in history, the war was firm evidence that the modern Japanese nation was invincible. With the removal of the existential threat against Japan, together with the overwhelming proof of the success of the modernization, Japanese intellectuals put their minds to questions of national identity. During the following years, they made a concentrated effort to redefine the essence of being Japanese and developed a national discourse. This activity laid the foundations for the bitter racial struggle that the Japanese waged against the West three decades later.

In China the war prompted widespread political activities that led six years later to the Revolution of 1911 and the elimination of the Qing dynasty after reigning for 267 years. Already in 1905 the foundations for a constitutional monarchy were laid, and at the same time the first modern political movement was established. Sensing the undermining of its power, the government began in the following years to introduce several reforms that included an attempt to establish elected assemblies and to eradicate opium smoking. During the war the Chinese public manifested solidarity with the Japanese, and regarded them as brothers in a racial struggle. Many Chinese went to Japan to study and regarded it as a role model for a successful modernization process. Within three years, however, this sentiment changed to deep suspicion toward the Japanese, who not only displayed profound disrespect for the Chinese but were determined to wrest the entire territory of Manchuria from them.

The Japanese presence in Manchuria indeed led to increased friction with the Chinese population in Manchuria but also to a Japanese desire to interfere in Chinese affairs elsewhere. This was expressed in the notorious **Twenty-one Demands** document which the Japanese submitted to the Chinese government a decade after the war, and which was im-

plemented fully through Japan's conquest of China during the long war that broke out in 1937. Such a move would have seemed fantastic at the end of the 19th century, but with historical hindsight it had evidently begun to take shape already during the Russo–Japanese War.

Korea was perhaps affected the most by the war. It gradually lost its sovereignty until it was finally annexed by Japan in 1910. From a Korean point of view, the end of the war marked the beginning of a period of oppression and a Japanese attempt to destroy the identity of the Korean people—a period that ended only with the fall of Japan in 1945. The annexation of Korea has left its mark on the nation to the present day. The fracturing of its society and national identity during the 35 years of Japanese domination made possible the territorial division of Korea, no less than the political contest between American and Soviet forces in the country that created a capitalist regime in the southern half and a communist regime in the northern. This political division still characterizes the two states of the Korean peninsula at present. Not only is there great hostility between them, which endangers the peace in the area, but North Korea still bears a grudge against Japan for its occupation, and similar sentiments exist in South Korea, even if muted.

The war was also a catalyst for many new radical movements and organizations all over Asia. Spanning a political and ideological spectrum from socialists to nationalists, anarchists, and even communists, these movements were a source of many striking developments that characterized Asia politically in the following decades. The war contributed to the radicalization of moderate socialist movements in the area, to the delegitimization of parliamentary democracy, and to emphasis on national issues. Extremist movements sprang up during the war in China and Japan, but also in colonial countries such as Vietnam and the Philippines. In the ensuing years they worked for the independence of their countries, albeit with no great success at that time.

The echoes of the war reached even to the Middle East. During the war, when **Sun Yixian** [Sun Yat-sen], the first president of the future Republic of China, was making a passage down the **Suez Canal**, Russian ships with wounded soldiers from the front on their decks were likewise passing through. A local person who met Sun asked him if he was Japanese. "The joy of this Arab, as the son of a great Asian race," he noted, "was unbounded." The victory of a developing Asian country over a big European power was perceived as a symbol and model for the prospect

that an Arab nation could break free from foreign rule. National movements across the Arab world, which at that time was almost entirely under the rule of the Ottoman empire, saw the war as a sign that they could win their independence. One year after the war, a revolution began in **Iran**, which for the first time put a constitutional government in power. This revolution was partially the result of the weakening of Russia, but it was also due to the knowledge that the victor was an Asian power with a constitution, and that the vanquished was the only European power without a constitution. Two years later a revolution began in **Turkey**. There too, Japan served as a model of a country that had succeeded in adopting modern technology without losing its national identity.

As a global turning point, the role of the war is recognizable in the new definition of race relations in the world. This was the first modern conflict in which an "Eastern," "non-white" nation overcame a "Western," "white" nation. For the first time the myth of the superiority of the white man was shattered. For this reason, the Japanese victory had powerful reverberations among the nations then under Western rule, and even more so among future revolutionaries. In the **Indian sub-continent**, for instance, which was then under British rule, there was much gloating, not only at Russia as a longtime colonial threat, but also because of the victory of an Asian country over a European power. Years later Jawaharlal Nehru, who was to become the first prime minister of India, recalled how the war helped to reduce "the feeling of inferiority from which we all suffered." In Vietnam also, which was then under French control, the nationalist **Phan Boi Chau** believed that the outcome of this battle "opened up a new world." As a modern nation with significant military power, Japan won international recognition for the first time, and this paved the way 15 years later for its obtaining a permanent seat on the Council of the League of Nations. Japan's victory in the Russo–Japanese War, therefore, upset the hegemony enjoyed by the European nations since the industrial revolution.

The Dictionary

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ABAZA, ALEKSEI MIKHAILOVICH (1853–?). Russian naval officer and administrator who served as director of the Special Committee for the Far East during the Russo–Japanese War and was an influential figure in formulating Russian policy in East Asia. Abaza began his naval career in 1873 and thereafter held various sea and shore duties. Recruited in 1898 by Grand Duke Aleksandr Mikhailovich, together with his cousin **Aleksandr Bezobrazov** he joined an enterprise known as the **Yalu River Timber Concessions** in northern **Korea** to expand Russian influence in the region. In 1902 Abaza was promoted to rear admiral, and a year later he was made director of the newly formed Special Committee for the Far East. With the right to report directly to Tsar **Nicholas II**, he de facto replaced the foreign minister in issues related to Russian involvement in East Asia. Similar to other members of the **Bezobrazov Circle**, he was convinced of **Japan**'s military weakness and opposed territorial compromise. Although the Special Committee was abolished soon after the war, Abaza retained much power in the Department of the Navy. In 1908 Foreign Minister **Aleksandr Izvolskii** accused him, together with other leading members of the Bezobrazov Circle, of major responsibility for defeat in the war, a view that lingered in tsarist and Soviet historiography.

***ADMIRAL NAKHIMOV*.** Russian armored **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was the only ship of the relatively old *Admiral Nakhimov* class. and her design was based on drawings of HMS *Imperious* and *Warspite*. She was originally rigged as a brig but was equipped with new boilers and rearmed in 1889. At the outbreak of

the Russo–Japanese War, *Admiral Nakhimov* served in the **Baltic Fleet** and was attached to the **Second Pacific Squadron**, with which she made the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet**. She escaped serious damage during the early stages of the **battle of Tsushima** but suffered a **torpedo** hit during the following night and was scuttled by her crew upon surrender the next morning.

Technical data: Builder: Baltic Works, St. Petersburg, Russia, 1884–1888; Displ.: 8,524t; LBD: 101.5×18.59×8.38m [333×61×27.5ft]; Machinery: 12 cylinder boilers, 2-shaft VC, 9,000ihp; Speed: 17kt; Fuel: 1,200t coal; Armament: 8×203mm/45 [8in.] (4×2), 10×152mm/35 [6in.], 12×3pdr revolvers, 4×1pdr revolvers, 3×381mm [15in.] TT AW, 40 MN; Armor: compound, belt: 152–254mm [6–10in.], barbettes: 76–203mm [3–8in.], CT: 152mm [6in.]; Comp.: 570.

ADMIRAL SENIAVIN*.** Russian coastal-defense **battleship** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was one of three ships of the ***Admiral Ushakov class and was originally intended to match a similar type of Swedish warship. She was not suited for long-distance sailing. At the outbreak of the war she served in the **Baltic Fleet** and was later attached to the **Third Pacific Squadron**. She subsequently left with her squadron under the command of Rear Admiral **Nikolai Nebogatov** for a shortened version of the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet** via the **Suez Canal**. After her surrender at the **battle of Tsushima** she was recommissioned as the **Imperial Japanese Navy** ship *Mishima*, served as a second-class coast-guard ship and as an icebreaker, and ultimately was scrapped in 1928.

Technical data: Builder: Baltic Works, St. Petersburg, Russia, 1892–1896; Displ.: 4,971t; LBD: 87.32×15.85×5.94m [286.5×52×19.5ft]; Machinery: 8 cylinder boilers, 2-shaft VTE, 5,750ihp; Speed: 16kt; Fuel: 300/450t coal; Armament: 4×254mm/45 [10in.] (2×2), 4×120mm/45 [4.7in.], 6×3pdr, 10×1pdr, 6×1pdr revolvers, 4×381mm [15in.] TT; Armor: Harvey nickel steel, belt: 102–254mm [6–10in.], CT: 203mm [8in.], turret: 203mm [8in.]; Comp.: 404.

ADMIRAL USHAKOV*.** Russian coastal-defense **battleship** that took part in the Russo–Japanese war. She was one of three ships of the *Admiral Ushakov* class. Similar to her sister ship ***Admiral Seniavin, she

was slow and not meant for ocean-going. At the outbreak of the war, the *Admiral Ushakov* served in the **Baltic Fleet** and was attached to the **Third Pacific Squadron**. She subsequently left with her squadron under the command of Rear Admiral **Nikolai Nebogatov** for a shortened version of the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet** via the **Suez Canal**. She ultimately was sunk in the **battle of Tsushima**, mainly by shells from the **cruiser *Yakumo***.

Technical data: Builder: New Admiralty, St. Petersburg, Russia, 1892–1895; Displ.: 4,971t; LBD: 87.32×15.85×5.94m [286.5×52×19.5ft]; Machinery: 4 cylinder boilers, 2-shaft VTE, 5,750ihp; Speed: 16kt; Fuel: 300/450t coal; Armament: 4×254mm/45 [10in.] (2×2), 4×120mm/45 [4.7in.], 6×3pdr, 10×1pdr, 6×1pdr revolvers, 4×381mm [15in.] TT; Armor: Harvey nickel steel, belt: 102–254mm [4–10in.], CT: 203mm [8in.], turret: 203mm [8in.]; Comp.: 404.

ADZUMA. *See AZUMA*.

AFGHANISTAN. An arena of conflict between **Russia** and **Great Britain** during the late 19th century and at the time of the Russo–Japanese War. During that war Britain failed in its attempts to reach an agreement with Russia changing the status quo regarding Afghanistan, but the two sides did agree on this following the war. During his 21-year reign (1880–1901), Amir Abdur Rahman replaced the feudal militia under tribal chiefs with a standing army owing allegiance to none but himself. With this force he was able to establish an efficient central administration, retaining all power in his own hands, and to improve the public revenues. In 1884 Great Britain and Russia agreed that a joint commission of their respective officers would demarcate the northern boundary of Afghanistan. A year later, while the amir was conferring with Lord Dufferin, the viceroy of **India**, at Rawal Pindi, Russian troops attacked an Afghan force and drove it from Panjdeh, a small town on the frontier.

When Abdur Rahman died in 1901, he was succeeded as amir by his oldest son, Habibullah, who strictly upheld the stipulations on the control of Afghanistan's foreign affairs, which the government of India had recognized earlier. During the Russo–Japanese War, however, he consented to receive a special mission under Sir Louis Dane, for-

eign secretary to the government of India. The mission reached Kabul in December 1904 but failed to obtain any concessions, merely confirming and ratifying existing agreements. Consequently the British sought to dispel the amir's apprehension and arranged for him to pay a visit to India. The hospitality accorded him by the viceroy in India, Lord Minto, in January 1907 did much to improve the relations between the two governments. Eventually, in August 1907, Great Britain and Russia signed the **Anglo–Russian Entente** whereby the former disclaimed any intention of altering the political status of Afghanistan while the latter declared Afghanistan to be beyond its sphere of influence.

AKASHI*.** Japanese protected **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was one of two ships of the ***Suma class and one of the first Japanese armored ships built with Japanese materials in a Japanese shipyard to Japanese plans. She slightly differed in hull form and dimensions from her sister ship *Suma* and had improved stability. *Akashi* served in the 4th Division of the **Second Fleet** at the outbreak of the war. She was hit by a **mine** south of **Port Arthur** on 10 December 1904 but was repaired by April 1905. After the war she became a training vessel and was sunk as a target in 1930.

Technical data: Builder: Yokosuka Navy Yard, Japan, 1894–1899; Displ.: 2,756t; LBD: 90.00×12.70×4.80m [295×42×16ft]; Machinery: 2-shaft VTE, 9 boilers, 7,890ihp; Speed: 19.5kt; Fuel: 600t coal; Range 12,000nm on 10kt; Armament: 2×152mm/40 [6in.], 6×120mm/40 [4.7in.], 10×47mm/40 QF, 5×356mm [14in.] TT; Armor: Harvey nickel steel, gun shields: 114mm [4.5in.], deck: 25–51mm [1–2in.]; Comp.: 275.

AKASHI, MOTOJIRÔ (1864–1919). Japanese army officer who served as intelligence coordinator in Europe and instigator of anti-tsarist activities during the Russo–Japanese War; after the war he became a leading figure in the **Imperial Japanese Army**. Born to a poor family in Fukuoka, he was enlisted by the **Kokuryûkai** and sent to a military school. After joining the army and rising to the rank of colonel, Akashi was sent to Paris in 1901 and served as military attaché. In August 1902 he was transferred to **St. Petersburg**, where he served in the same capacity until the Russo–Japanese War. At the outbreak of the

war he left for Stockholm, where he gathered information about the **Baltic Fleet**, movements of various army units, and the general sentiments of other Western powers toward **Russia**. Akashi established there an espionage network to provide **military intelligence**. He made contact with anti-tsarist activists throughout the tsarist empire, offering them financial support. In July 1904 he went with Finnish revolutionary **Konrad Zilliacus** to Switzerland to organize a meeting of Russian dissidents in exile. Through the Russian revolutionary activist Vera Zasulich, he met **Vladimir Lenin** and **Georgii Plekhanov**. Akashi was also involved in organizing a meeting of revolutionary Russian exiles in Paris on 1 October 1904 and began to purchase large quantities of light weapons, which he stored in London.

Through Akashi's organizational skills and financial support (perhaps amounting to one million yen) disbursed to various groups of revolutionaries, the Japanese government became a major *agent provocateur* against Russia during the Russo–Japanese War. Soon after the conclusion of the **Treaty of Portsmouth**, Akashi returned to **Japan** and was appointed military attaché to **Germany**, but due to the exposure by the German press of his clandestine wartime activities, he was recalled to Japan. In 1907 he was promoted to major general and appointed chief of the military police in **Korea**. Following the annexation of Korea, Akashi was appointed provost marshal and was involved in suppressing mutinies. In 1913 he was promoted to lieutenant general and appointed deputy chief of the general staff. A year later he commanded a division and in 1918 he was appointed governor-general of Taiwan. He was promoted that year to general but soon after died prematurely in Taiwan.

AKITSUSHIMA. Japanese protected **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was the only ship of the *Akitsushima* class. The last warship to be built in **Japan** from imported steel, she suffered from faulty design. *Akitsushima* served in the 6th Division of the **Third Fleet** at the outbreak of the war and took part in the **battle of Tsushima**. She was removed from the operational fleet in 1921 and scrapped two years later.

Technical data: Builder: Yokosuka Navy Yard, Japan, 1890–1894; Displ.: 3,400t; LBD: 92.02×13.14×5.32m [301×43×17.5ft]; Machinery: 2-shaft VTE, 6 boilers, 8,400ihp; Speed: 19kt; Fuel: coal;

Armament: 4×152mm/40 [6in.], 6×120mm/40 [4.7in.], 10×47mm/40 QF, 4×356mm [14in.] TT; Armor: Harvey nickel steel, gun shields: 114mm [4.5in.], deck: 25–76mm [1–3in.]; Comp.: 314.

AKIYAMA, SANEYUKI [MASAYUKI] (1868–1918). Japanese naval officer who served as staff officer of the **First Fleet** responsible for operational planning during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading naval theoretician of the **Imperial Japanese Navy** after the war. Akiyama was born in Matsuyama, Ehime Prefecture, and graduated from the Naval Academy in 1890. During the **First Sino–Japanese War** he served as a navigation officer on the **gunvessel** *Tsukushi* and participated in the attacks on **Weihaiwei**. Later he was assigned to the **intelligence** section of the navy's general staff, and he was promoted to lieutenant in 1896. A year later Akiyama was sent to the **United States** to study, and although he was unable to gain entry to Newport Naval War College, he accepted the advice of **Alfred Mahan** and undertook private study. During the Spanish–American War, Akiyama observed naval operations against the Spanish navy with the fleet staff of Admiral William T. Sampson's North Atlantic squadron. After further study in the United States and **Great Britain**, he returned to **Japan** in 1900 and for the next four years served on the navy's general staff, the fleet staff, and at the Naval War College.

At the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, Akiyama served as a staff officer of the **First Fleet** aboard the flagship ***Mikasa***, on which he took part in the **Port Arthur naval blockade** and the **battle of the Yellow Sea**. He drew up a seven-stage plan for a major engagement with the approaching Russian **Baltic Fleet**, to which Admiral **Tôgô Heihachirô** adhered with some modifications. The outcome was the Russian defeat at the **battle of Tsushima**. After the war Akiyama alternated duty between staff and ship commands; he was promoted to captain in 1908, rear admiral in 1913, and vice admiral in 1917. During World War I he made a trip to Europe to observe the naval campaign, and a year after his return was placed on the inactive list. During his entire career as senior officer he taught tactics and strategy at the Naval War College, and in later years advocated reliance on "Japanese military spirit." Yet Akiyama did not ignore the development of new weapons, such as **submarines** and aircraft, and his ob-

servation of World War I in Europe led him to stress the importance of popular mobilization and the economics of attrition in total war.

AKIYAMA, YOSHIFURU (1859–1930). Japanese army officer who served as commanding officer of a cavalry brigade during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading figure in the **Imperial Japanese Army** in later years. Akiyama was born in Matsuyama, Ehime Prefecture, to a samurai family and was the older brother of **Akiyama Saneyuki**. After graduating from the Army Academy he was sent to study in **France**, and on returning he took part in the **First Sino–Japanese War**. During the Russo–Japanese War, Major General Akiyama commanded the 1st Cavalry Brigade and fought with distinction. After the war he was appointed commanding officer of the **13th Division** in 1913, and commander-in-chief of the Korean garrison in 1916 and promoted to general. In 1920 he was appointed superintendent general of the education section of the army and subsequently became an army councilor. In 1923 he was transferred to the reserves. He returned to his hometown and became principal of a middle high school.

ALEKSANDR III. *See IMPERATOR ALEKSANDR III.*

ALEKSANDROVSKII, SERGEI VASILEVICH (1863–1907). Russian official and governor, who served as **Red Cross** administrator during the Russo–Japanese War and provincial governor afterward. Aleksandrovskii was a son of the governor of Penza and embarked on a military career, but in 1899 he was transferred to the civil service as an official of the ministry of finance. Aleksandrovskii organized Red Cross organizations during the 1902 earthquake in Andizhan and the 1903 flood in **St. Petersburg** to help the many victims. During the Russo–Japanese War he was a member of the executive committee to aid wounded Russian soldiers; subsequently he was appointed director of the Red Cross mission to the Russian armies in East Asia. In 1905 he was appointed director of the medical unit of the First **Manchurian Army**, where he risked his life to help wounded soldiers at the front. In 1906 Aleksandrovskii was appointed governor of Ekaterinoslav and soon after governor of Penza, where he was assassinated by a revolutionary terrorist a few months after taking office.

ALEKSEEV, EVGENII IVANOVICH (1843–1918). Russian naval officer and administrator who acted as the viceroy of the Far East region and commander-in-chief of the Russian land and naval forces in East Asia during the first stages of the Russo–Japanese War. Alekseev was born in Sevastopol into the family of a military officer, although many of his contemporaries believed he was the illegitimate son of Tsar Alexander II, hence an uncle of Tsar **Nicholas II**. After graduating from the Naval Academy in 1863, he served as military and naval attaché in Paris, and subsequently as commanding officer of a number of cruisers and assistant to the chief of the Naval Staff. In 1895 he was appointed junior flag officer of the **Pacific Fleet**; a year later he became its commander-in-chief, and in 1897 he became senior flag officer of the **Black Sea Fleet**. Considered of good reputation at that stage, in 1899 Alekseev was appointed commander of the Russian forces in **Kwantung Fortified Region** and commander of the Pacific Fleet. During the **Boxer Uprising** he gained some new military experience following his appointment by War Minister **Aleksei Kuropatkin** as commander of an army corps. In August 1903 Alekseev was appointed viceroy of the Far East. Ruling from his headquarters at **Port Arthur**, he was beyond the jurisdiction of all ministries and reported directly to Tsar Nicholas II.

Alekseev associated with members of the **Bezobrazov Circle**, and while he was an avid proponent of their policies, he reassured the government that more aggressive policies vis-à-vis the Japanese would not ignite a war. As the only full admiral in the arena, he also exerted much influence on the naval activities of the Pacific Fleet. At the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, Alekseev commanded the Russian land and naval forces in East Asia, a position he held for the first nine months of the conflict. As the senior naval officer in the theater, he also assumed the role of acting commander-in-chief of the Pacific Fleet after the dismissal of Vice Admiral **Oskar Stark** until the arrival Vice Admiral **Stepan Makarov**, and once again after the death of Makarov until the arrival of Vice Admiral **Nikolai Skrydlov**.

Following an order by the tsar, Alekseev left Port Arthur on 5 May 1904 for **Mukden**, where he continued to monitor the attempts to halt the northward advance of the Japanese **Second Army**. Alekseev was in constant conflict with General Kuropatkin, who opposed his more offensive strategy and favored a further buildup of the Russian forces.

In the aftermath of the Russian defeat in the **battle of Sha-ho**, Alekseev was relieved of his command by the tsar and left **Harbin** on 25 October 1904. His ambiguous status as viceroy of the Far East came to an end at last in June 1905 when the post was abolished by the tsar. Subsequently Alekseev served as a member of the state council but never regained his earlier power. In later years he became a schoolteacher in Russian Armenia and never made any attempt to defend himself against the copious criticism of his conduct of the war.

ALEKSEEV, MIKHAIL VASILEVICH (1857–1918). Russian army officer who served as quartermaster general of the **Third Manchurian Army** during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading figure in the **Imperial Russian Army** during World War I. Born in Tver Province, he graduated from the Moscow Cadet Infantry School in 1876 and first saw combat in 1877 during the Russo–Turkish War. After graduating from the Nikolaevskii Academy of the General Staff in 1890, Alekseev served in the Department of Military History. Following the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, he was promoted to the rank of general and appointed quartermaster of the Third Manchurian Army.

After the war Alekseev was appointed chief of staff of the Kiev Military District in 1908, and commander of the Eighth Army Corps in 1912. At the outbreak of World War I he became chief of staff under General **Nikolai Ivanov**, who commanded the southwestern front. During the campaign of 1915 he commanded the western front, which extended roughly from Kovno to Lvov; late in 1915 he was appointed chief of staff to Tsar **Nicholas II** at central headquarters, thus becoming in practice the supreme commander-in-chief of the Imperial Russian Army. After recovering from illness, in February 1917 Alekseev returned to his post, which he held until April, and again from September to November 1917, thereby taking part in the events that led to the abdication of Nicholas II. He actively resisted the Bolshevik government either by commanding military troops or by raising funds, but he lost the leadership of the White movement in southern **Russia** during 1918 and died soon after.

ALEKSEI ALEKSANDROVICH. *See* ROMANOV, ALEKSEI ALEKSANDROVICH.

ALMAZ. Russian armed yacht that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was the only ship of the *Almaz* class and had two funnels, three masts, and clipper bows. At the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War the *Almaz* served in the **Baltic Fleet** and was attached to the **Second Pacific Squadron**, with which she made the shortened course of the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet** via the **Suez Canal** under the command of Rear Admiral **Dmitrii von Felkerzam**. She was the only sailing ship to take part in the voyage. Although she may not qualify for inclusion as a true warship, her uniqueness and exploits in the aftermath of the **battle of Tsushima** make her a worthy exception. On 28 May 1905, as most of the ships of the Baltic Fleet were either destroyed or captured, the *Almaz* and two **destroyers** were the only vessels to reach **Vladivostok**. After the war she remained there and was transferred to the Black Sea as late as 1911, where she served as a seaplane carrier during World War I, carrying up to four seaplanes.

Technical data: Builder: Baltic Works, St. Petersburg, Russia, 1902–1903; Displ.: 3,285t; LBD: 111.45×13.26×5.33m [365×43.5×17.5ft]; Machinery: Belleville boilers, 2-shaft VTE, 7,500ihp; Speed: 19kt; Fuel: 560t coal; Armament: 4×11pdr revolvers, 8×3pdr; Comp.: 336.

AMUR. Russian **minelayer** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was one of two ships of the *Amur* class and served in the **Pacific Fleet** at the outbreak of the war under the command of Commander **Fedor Ivanov**. On 14 May 1904 she laid a field of 50 **mines** off **Port Arthur**, thereby executing one of the most successful mining operations ever, as it led to the dual sinking of the Japanese **battleships** ***Hatsuse*** and ***Yashima***. She was sunk by hits of 280 millimeter [11-inch] **howitzer** shells on 18 December 1904 during the **siege of Port Arthur**.

Technical data: Builder: Baltic Works, St. Petersburg, Russia, 1898–1899; Displ.: 3,010t; LBD: 91.44×12.50×5.49m [300×41×18ft]; Machinery: Belleville boilers, 2-shaft VTE, 4,700ihp; Speed: 18kt; Fuel: 400t coal; Armament: 5×11pdr, 7×3pdr, 1×381mm [15in.] TT, 500 MN; Comp.: 317.

AMUR FLOTILLA. A fleet of armed barges and steamships operated privately to transport personnel and supplies for the use of the **Impe-**

rial Russian Army along the Amur River during the Russo–Japanese War. Less than a year after the end of the war, the Russian government made it part of the **Imperial Russian Navy**. The flotilla's task was to defend the Amur basin, and by 1910 it comprised 28 **gunvessels**. In 1918 the flotilla was seized by the Japanese forces that invaded Siberia, and its ships were confiscated. The Soviet government reorganized the flotilla in the aftermath of the civil war, and in 1925–1926 the **Imperial Japanese Army** returned to it many of the ships it had seized. In 1929 the flotilla was employed in the skirmishes with Chinese forces and was awarded the Order of the Red Banner.

AMUR RIVER SOCIETY. *See* KOKURYÛKAI.

ANDÔ, SADAYOSHI (1853–1932). Japanese army officer who served as commanding officer of a division during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading figure in the **Imperial Japanese Army** in later years. He was born in the feudal domain of Iida (part of present-day Nagano Prefecture), entered the military boarding school in Osaka in 1870, and was later wounded in the Satsuma Rebellion of 1877. At the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, Major General Andô commanded the 19th Infantry Brigade, and in January 1905 he was promoted to lieutenant general and appointed commanding officer of the **10th Division** as part of the **Fourth Army**. In 1907 Andô was made a baron and served as commander-in-chief of the Korean garrison from 1911 to 1915. In 1915 he was promoted to general. He served as governor-general of Taiwan from 1915 to 1918, when he retired.

ANDONG. *See* ANTUNG.

ANGLO–FRENCH ENTENTE [ENTENTE CORDIALE] (1904). Diplomatic convention between **Great Britain** and **France** signed on 8 April 1904 during the Russo–Japanese War. This convention, also known as the Entente Cordiale, settled the colonial differences between these two European powers and may be regarded as a turning point in their relations. It had significant repercussions on the global balance of power in the next decade. The negotiations between the two parties began in August 1903 and were completed two months

after the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War. Often believed to be the brainchild of King Edward VII, whose major contribution was in fact his success in disarming latent French hostility toward Great Britain during his visit to Paris in 1903. The main participants in the agreement were British Foreign Minister **Henry Lansdowne** and French Foreign Minister **Théophile Delcassé**. The agreement settled territorial disputes in Morocco, Egypt, Siam, Madagascar, New Hebrides, and West Africa. While the Entente was not anti-German in character, the expansionist policy of **Germany** in the following years strengthened the cooperation between France and Great Britain, culminating in the Military Conversations from 1906 to 1914 and the subsequent military cooperation during World War I.

ANGLO–JAPANESE ALLIANCE (1902). Military alliance between **Great Britain** and **Japan** signed in 1902 and lasting until 1923. This alliance was a decisive element in the Japanese decision to go to war against **Russia** and served as a cardinal factor in British and Japanese policy in East Asia for two decades. Starting with the **Anglo–Japanese Treaty**, British motivation to promote the alliance was spurred by Russian expansion into **China** and **Korea** and the increasing naval race in Europe. It was promoted by Japanese statesman **Yamagata Aritomo** and Prime Minister **Katsura Tarô**, and committed both sides to aid each other in the event of a war with Russia if it was allied with a fourth nation. It provided for mutual assistance in the safeguarding of British interests in China and Japanese interests in China and Korea. Furthermore, although it could not be invoked during the Russo–Japanese War, since Russia fought the war alone, it provided the Japanese with greater security when they chose to launch the attack.

As for Great Britain, the alliance marked its emergence from its long "splendid isolation," allowing it to concentrate more warships in the European arena. On 12 August 1905, during the negotiations at the **Portsmouth Peace Conference**, the treaty was revised and prolonged for another 10 years. Its scope was extended to **India** and East Asia generally, and **Japan**'s paramount position in Korea was emphasized more. Later developments, notably the annexation of Korea to the Japanese empire in 1910, led to the renewal of the alliance in July 1911. An important feature of the new agreement was the inclu-

sion of an article intended to free Great Britain from intervening in case of a conflict between Japan and the **United States**.

In consequence of the alliance, Japan joined the Allies and entered World War I on 23 August 1914. After the end of the war Great Britain became acutely aware that the alliance was straining its relations with the United States, as the likelihood of armed conflict between the latter and Japan grew greater than ever. Furthermore, British concern over potential market encroachment by Japan, coupled with both countries' vying for American political cooperation, resulted in the dissolving of the alliance on 17 August 1923 in favor of the ambiguous Four Power Treaty, which also included the United States and **France**.

ANGLO–JAPANESE TREATY (1902). Treaty signed between **Great Britain** and **Japan**, functioning as the precursor to the **Anglo–Japanese Alliance** and boosting Japanese diplomatic and military confidence on the eve of the Russo–Japanese War. It was signed on 30 January 1902 for the duration of five years and recognized originally the independence of **China** and **Korea**, the special interests of Great Britain in China, and those of Japan in China, and politically, as well as commercially and industrially, in Korea. It also acknowledged the rights of both parties to take such measures as may be indispensable to safeguard those interests against the aggressive action of any other power or in the case of disturbances in either country. The treaty was renewed and revised several times and led to the emergence of the Anglo–Japanese Alliance, which served as a cardinal factor in British and Japanese policy in East Asia for 21 years.

ANGLO–RUSSIAN ENTENTE (1907). Convention concluded between **Great Britain** and **Russia**, signed in August 1907 in **St. Petersburg**. It can be regarded as part of international developments in the aftermath of the Russo–Japanese War. It defined spheres of influence in **Iran** and the two countries' attitudes to **Tibet** and **Afghanistan**. This understanding, which was similar in character to the **Anglo–French Entente**, was the culmination of long negotiations, beginning with abortive proposals by Lord Salisbury in 1898. Talks were resumed after the Algeciras Conference of 1906 demonstrated the close collaboration between Great Britain and **France**, Russia's ally. While

the convention did not specify any steps against **Germany**, it was anti-German in the sense that it sought to check German penetration of the Middle East. The agreement did not deal with European affairs in general or the Balkans in particular, although Great Britain announced that in the future it would no longer oppose Russian ambitions to control the Bosphorus and the Dardanelles. The agreement opened British financial markets to Russia and thereby helped its economy to recover from the defeat in the Russo–Japanese War as well as the chaos during the **Revolution of 1905**.

ANTI-RUSSIA SOCIETY. *See* TAIRO DÔSHIKAI.

ANTUNG [ANDONG, DANDONG; *ANTÔ*]. Chinese city port in the eastern part of south **Manchuria** on the Korean frontier and a treaty port taken over by Japanese forces during the early stages of the Russo–Japanese War. Antung lies 30 kilometers north of the mouth of the **Yalu River** on the eastern border of **Liaoning** Province (39° 59' north 124° 30' east). Although in the past it was notable for its silk trade with Chefoo [Zhifu] and its timber market, its modern importance stems essentially from its position as a frontier station through which the railway from **Korea** passes into south Manchuria across a long bridge over the Yalu. At the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, Antung was held by Russian forces of the Eastern Detachment, but during early May 1904, in the latter stages of the **battle of the Yalu**, the city was taken over by the **2nd Division** of the Japanese **First Army** under the command of Lieutenant General **Nishi Kanjirô**. The port was opened to foreign trade only in 1907, and within the following two decades it grew to become the seventh most important port of China.

ARAKI, SADAO (1877–1966). Japanese army officer and politician who served as a junior officer during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading figure in the Japanese military and politics in later years. He was born in **Tokyo** and graduated from the Army Academy. During the Russo–Japanese War, Lieutenant Araki served in a mixed reserve brigade of the **Imperial Guards Division** and was promoted to captain. After the war he graduated from the Army War College in 1907, and during World War I he served as a military attaché in **Rus-**

sia and took part in the Siberian Intervention of 1918. In 1928 Araki was appointed principal of the Army War College and in 1931 chief of the Army Education Administration. During the early 1930s Araki led the ultranationalist Kôdôha faction in the army together with **Mazaki Jinzaburô**. Following an abortive attempt in 1932 to overthrow the government and install instead a cabinet under Araki, he was appointed army minister to appease the rebels. In 1933 Araki was promoted to general but eventually was forced to retire in 1936 following the February 26 Incident. In 1938 he joined the government again, this time as education minister. After World War II Araki was tried as a class-A war criminal in the Tokyo War Crimes Trial and in 1948 was sentenced to life imprisonment. He was paroled in 1954 at the age of 77 and later pardoned.

ARIMA, RYÔKITSU (1861–1944). Japanese naval officer who served as senior staff officer of the **Combined Fleet** during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading figure in the **Imperial Japanese Navy** after the war. Arima graduated from the Naval Academy in 1886, and held both staff and sea assignments during his early career. As captain he was appointed operations officer of the Combined Fleet in 1903 and planned the **naval blockade of Port Arthur**, which he had visited a year earlier. During February and March 1904 Arima led two of the three attempts to blockade the harbor. After the war he held a series of fleet commands and retired as admiral in 1919. Twelve years later he became chief priest of the Meiji Shrine and was appointed to the Privy Council.

ARISAKA TYPE 30 RIFLE [*SANJÛ NENSHIKI HAHEIJÛ*]. Japanese main rifle used by the infantry units of the **Imperial Japanese Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. The Japanese Army began the search for a new small-caliber magazine rifle in 1894, with the intention of replacing the obsolete **Murata Type 22 rifle**. Development of the new rifle was undertaken in December 1895 at the Koishikawa Arsenal under the direction of its chief superintendent, Colonel Arisaka Nariakira. The first design of the new rifle was introduced in 1897 and was known as the Type 30 rifle (30th year of the Meiji era, or 1897). It showed some deficiencies during the Russo–Japanese War and was gradually replaced by the **Arisaka Type 38 rifle**.

Technical data: Caliber: 6.5mm [0.256in.]; Weight: 3.85kg [8.55lbs]. Length: 127cm [50in,]; Magazine capacity: 5 rounds; Practical rate of fire: 10–12r/min; Muzzle velocity: 865m/sec; sighting range (iron sights): 2,000m.

ARISAKA TYPE 31 GUN [*SANJÛICHI NENSHIKI SOKUSHA YAHÔ*]. Japanese main field gun during the Russo–Japanese War. It was designed by Colonel Arisaka Nariakira to replace earlier Japanese bronze guns. The design was based on the quite similar though larger 75 millimeter Meiji 31 [1898] field gun. Its most remarkable characteristic was its extremely narrow and low structure. The gun used ammunition of the cartridge shot type as well as a semi-rigid recoil system using cables connected to a set of springs and a screw breech with four segments. The deployment of the Arisaka Type 31 gun in the **artillery** units was completed in 1902 and it was used by the **Imperial Japanese Army** until the end of World War II. It had a field version and a lighter mountain version with slightly shorter range.

Technical data (field version): Caliber: 75mm/13.3 [2.95in.]; Barrel length: 99.8cm; Battle station weight: 907kg; Muzzle velocity: 488m/sec; Traverse: None; Elevation: (−)10deg-(+)30deg; Max range: 7,700m, effective range: 4,300m; Ammunition weight: 6.5kg.

ARISAKA TYPE 38 RIFLE [*SANJÛHACHI NENSHIKI HAHEIJÛ*]. Japanese rifle introduced to infantry units of the **Imperial Japanese Army** during the final stages of the Russo–Japanese War. The Arisaka Type 38 was developed to replace the **Arisaka Type 30 rifle** following combat experience in the early stages of the war. The new design appeared in 1905–1906 as the Type 38 rifle (38th year of the Meiji era, or 1905). This rifle, chambered for relatively mild 6.5-millimeter [0.256-inch] ammunition, was manufactured in several versions, including long rifle and carbine variants, and more than 3 million were manufactured by various government arsenals. It was purchased by several armies, and during World War I **Great Britain** and **Russia** purchased about 500,000 and 620,000 rifles, respectively. The Arisaka Type 38 rifle was heavily influenced by contemporary German Mauser designs but also had some unique features. It was still used by the Imperial Japanese Army in the Second Sino–Japanese War of 1937. It was replaced only in 1939, two years before the

outbreak of the Pacific War (1941–1945) during World War II, by a 7.7-millimeter [.303-inch] rifle. The new rifle was based on the Type 38 design and was designated Type 99.

Technical data: Caliber: 6.5mm [0.256in.]; Weight: 4.12kg [9.07lbs], with bayonet: 4.4kg [9.69lbs]; Length: 127.5cm [50.2in.], barrel length: 80cm [31.5in]; Magazine capacity: 5 rounds; Practical rate of fire: 10–12r/min; Muzzle velocity: 730m/sec; Sighting range (iron sights): 2,400m.

ARMY, IMPERIAL JAPANESE. One of the two branches of the Japanese armed forces. On the eve of the Russo–Japanese War it consisted of some 850,000 troops, made up of 380,000 in the active and reserve army, 200,000 in the second reserve, 50,000 in conscript reserve, and 220,000 trained men of the National Army. The most available force comprised 257,000 regular **infantry**, 11,000 **cavalry**, and **artillery** units with 894 guns. The troops were organized in 13 infantry divisions (*jobi)*: the **Imperial Guards Division** and 12 divisions recruited from various parts of Japan. Each division consisted of two infantry brigades, in turn composed of two regiments, themselves formed of three battalions of 950 infantrymen each. The battalions were further divided into four companies, each of three platoons. Each division had in addition a **cavalry** regiment composed of three squadrons with about 140 horses each, making 430 cavalry per regiment; an **artillery** regiment, composed of two battalions consisting of three batteries each, with six guns to a battery; an engineers battalion, composed of three companies including a bridging train; a telegraph company; six field hospitals; and 10 supply columns (three ammunition columns for the infantry brigades, three for the artillery regiment, and four general supply columns).

Altogether, an infantry division had a total of 11,400 infantrymen, 430 cavalrymen, and 36 guns, supported by 830 engineers and 5,500 other non-combatants, two reserve cavalry brigades (of two regiments composed of four squadrons each). The Japanese second reserves were assigned to 12 reserve brigades (*kôbi*) consisting of two infantry regiments of two battalions each (3,500 infantrymen), with the appropriate supply columns attached. Larger *kôbi* brigades, with two regiments of three battalions each, three artillery batteries, and one engineers company, were formed during the war. On 20 June

1904 the Japanese units in **Manchuria** were organized under the umbrella of the **Manchurian Army**, under the command of Field Marshal **Ôyama Iwao**. The divisions were organized gradually in five larger units: the **First Army** under the command of General **Kuroki Tametomo**, the **Second Army** under the command of General **Oku Yasukata**, the **Third Army** under the command of General **Nogi Maresuke**, the **Fourth Army** under the command of General **Nozu Michitsura**, and the small **Fifth Army** under the command of General **Kawamura Kageaki**. During 1905 four new divisions (the **13th, 14th, 15th,** and **16th**) were established, together with two new reserve brigades, thus reaching by the end of the war a total force of 17 divisions. Altogether, during the Russo–Japanese War the army mobilized 1,090,000 fighting men and 154,000 non-combatant civilian employees. They formed 156 infantry battalions, 54 cavalry battalions, 106 artillery battalions, and 38 engineers battalions.

Most of the soldiers recruited during the war were assigned to existing units to fill the gaps created in their ranks due to the intense fighting. Officers were mainly of samurai origin, upbringing, and tradition and thus highly homogeneous, whereas the conscripts were mostly peasants of rural origin. This composition was the result of a long process starting in 1868, when the Japanese oligarchy, believing a strong army to be the foundation of a strong nation, decided to disband the local militias and establish a national army. In 1872 the first conscription law was adopted, requiring all men between ages 17 and 40 to enlist for three years' service and four years' reserve duty. Initially the newly established Imperial Japanese Army chose **France** as a model, but the French defeat in the Franco–Prussian War influenced some of its leading figures, such as **Yamagata Aritomo** and **Ôyama Iwao**, to suggest the Prussian system as a new model.

The transformation to the new model took more than a decade and was boosted in 1885 by the arrival of the German Major **Klemens Meckel**, who assisted in building a national army in its modern form. One of Meckel's most important contributions was the notion of the "independence" of the supreme command, which took deep root in modern **Japan**. The army acquired its initial significant combat experience during the **First Sino–Japanese War** and emerged from this conflict as a modern and motivated force. While that war defined the framework in which Japan would deal with its external and inter-

nal problems for the next five decades, the army grew substantially during the next decade and prepared for confrontation with the **Imperial Russian Army**. While it still purchased **machine guns** and heavy **howitzers** abroad, it began producing its own field guns, **rifles**, and most of its ammunition.

ARMY, IMPERIAL RUSSIAN. On the eve of the Russo–Japanese War, Russian land forces were the biggest in the world, numbering 41,079 officers and 1,067,000 other ranks, and with full deployment of more than 3 million including the reserves. The sum of Russian troops stationed at that time east of **Lake Baikal** (the Priamur and Siberian Military Districts and the **Kwantung Fortified Region**) was about 95,000 **infantry**, some 3,000–5,000 **cavalry**, and between 120 to just under 200 guns. These were concentrated at **Port Arthur**, under the command of Lieutenant General **Anatolii Stoessel**, and around **Vladivostok**, under the command of General **Nikolai Linievich**. These forces were arranged in 68 infantry battalions, 35 squadrons of cavalry (mainly **Cossacks**), 13 engineer companies, five fortress engineer companies, and four and a half battalions of fortress **artillery**.

While it had often been regarded as conservative and unpolished, the Imperial Russian Army of 1904 was very different from what it had been four decades earlier. The defeat suffered by Russia in the Crimean War hastened the abolition of serfdom and stimulated the reorganization of the Imperial Russian Army. During the 1860s, War Minister D. A. Miliutin carried out several reforms that created a sufficient number of trained reservists to deploy a massive army in the event of war. The reform also resolved the problem of improving the organization of the military administration and the rearmament of the army. From 1874 military service was compulsory for every male who reached the age of 21. The length of active military service was set at up to six years, with nine years in the reserves. The law of 1874 did not extend to the Cossacks, or to the people of the Trans-Caucasus region, Central Asia, and Siberia. The benefits of the military reforms became clear during the Russo–Turkish War of 1877–1878. But despite the ultimate victory, the war also revealed disorganization, deficiencies in armaments, and weakness in the high command. Further reforms in the aftermath of the war made the

Imperial Russian Army an awesome force, yet its true abilities were not tested for more than two decades.

On the eve of the Russo–Japanese War, the Russian national service consisted of four years of active service and 14 years in the reserves, with two training periods of six weeks each, for soldiers from the age of 21 to 43. There were few exemptions from service, though several groups, such as the Cossacks and Finns, were entitled to different conditions of service. The army had 12 military districts: **St. Petersburg**, Moscow, **Finland**, Vilno, Warsaw, Kiev, Odessa, Kazan, the Caucasus, Turkestan, Siberia and the Amur region, and the Oblast of the Don Host. Despite the improved deployment, the army suffered from outdated tactics and old, inflexible, high-ranking officers, who were often unfamiliar with new advances in technology. The lower-ranking officers and non-commissioned officers suffered from long periods of being given unchallenging assignments and a lack of training. The land forces were divided into regular units and Cossacks. In peacetime, field troops made up 73.4 percent of the entire regular forces, whereas fortress troops were 6.6 percent, reserve forces 9.5 percent, rear forces 0.7 percent, local troops 2.3 percent, and auxiliary detachments 7.5 percent. In 1898 the infantry accounted for 74.8 percent of the entire army; cavalry were 8.5 percent (excluding the Cossack cavalry units), artillery 13.7 percent, and engineering 3.0 percent. Infantry divisions, consisting of about 18,000 men each, were assembled into corps, and corps were joined in wartime into armies.

On the eve of the Russo–Japanese War, the forces of the Imperial Russian Army in Manchuria were organized within the **Manchurian Army**, under the command of General **Nikolai Linievich**. This army consisted of two corps: the **First Siberian Army Corps** and the **Third Siberian Army Corps**. The rank and file were mainly loyal peasants from eastern Russia, who were regarded as resilient and accustomed to the harsh conditions of the region, but uneducated and unused to fighting without a commanding officer to direct them. Initially the two corps were smaller and less well organized than parallel European corps. The former, for example, had 32 guns, whereas the latter had 48 or 64 guns. Each corps consisted of two divisions, which in turn comprised two brigades. The typical Siberian brigade consisted of 3,400 men and 12 artillery guns in two batteries. A bat-

tery consisted of eight **Putilov M-1903** 76.2-millimeter [3-inch] field guns, as well as a small unspecified number of 117-millimeter [4.6-inch] **howitzers** and no more than eight **Maxim machine guns**. The Siberian infantry brigades grew slowly and eventually evolved into the Siberian infantry divisions, which did not exist prior to the war.

The Siberian corps had no divisional cavalry and their infantry soldiers were equipped with the **Mosin M-1891 rifle** while their commissioned and non-commissioned officers were equipped also with the **Nagant M-95 revolver**. At the outbreak of the war the Russian units of the Manchurian Army were widely dispersed and disorganized, but as the war progressed their organization and efficiency increased. During 1904 the Manchurian Army was gradually reinforced by the **First, Fourth, Eighth, Tenth, Sixteenth, and Seventeenth European Army Corps**, consisting of 28,000 rifles and 112 guns each. Thus army corps, rather than divisions, were the main fighting unit used by the Russians during this war. Their troops were transferred eastward by the **Trans-Siberian Railway**, which could deliver 40,000 men (one and a half corps) a month. In September 1904 the Manchurian Army was divided into the **First Manchurian Army** and the **Second Manchurian Army**, and in December 1904 the **Third Manchurian Army** was also formed.

In the aftermath of the Russo–Japanese War, the Imperial Russian Army was forced to undertake a series of reforms to strengthen its forces, and thus initiated the "great military program." In 1913 it envisaged an increase in the army's size by almost 40 percent by 1917, and a large-scale augmentation of the armaments used by the artillery and the rifle forces. Changes were made also in the readiness of the army to mobilize and the way it was staffed. The overall length of service was set at 18 years, of which three to four years were on active service. On the eve of World War I, Russia's land forces were regarded as a potentially unbeatable army, although in reality the army was still in the midst of a process of reorganizing and developing its capabilities. In the first months of the war, the Imperial Russian Army mobilized 3.5 million men. However, at the end of 1917 and early in 1918 it was demobilized, and the Red Army was created instead.

ARMY, JAPANESE FIFTH [ARMY OF THE YALU RIVER]. One of the five principal fighting units of the **Imperial Japanese Army**

during the Russo–Japanese War. It was commanded by General **Kawamura Kageaki** from 15 January 1905 to January 1906 and was formed only during the final stages of the war, thereafter taking part in the **battle of Mukden**. It was an army in name only, as it consisted just of the **11th Division** and some reserves reinforcements.

ARMY, JAPANESE FIRST. One of the five principal fighting units of the **Imperial Japanese Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. It was commanded by General **Kuroki Tametomo** from 5 February 1904 to December 1905 and consisted primarily of three divisions: the **Imperial Guards Division**, the **2nd Division**, and the **12th Division**, as well as a Guard Kôbi Brigade under Major General Umezawa. The First Army was the first principal Japanese unit to see combat, as a detachment 2,500 strong landed in **Chemulpo**, **Korea**, on 8 February 1904; they were followed by the 12th Division and some units of the 2nd Division during 17–22 February. These units headed north and took **Pyongyang**. The rest of the army units began the war upon **landing** in Chinnampo [Nampo] during 13–29 March 1904 and they jointly took part in the **battle of the Yalu**. Subsequently the army advanced northwest and participated in the campaign at Motienling [Motien Pass; *Matenrei*], in the **battle of Liaoyang**, the **battle of Sha-ho**, and eventually in the **battle of Mukden**.

ARMY, JAPANESE FOURTH. One of the five principal fighting units of the **Imperial Japanese Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. It was commanded by General **Nozu Michitsura** from 2 May 1904 to January 1906 and consisted initially of the **10th Division**, the **5th Division**, and the 10th Kôbi Brigade. In early 1905 the 5th Division returned to its original unit and was replaced by the **6th Division**. The Fourth Army began the war by the **landing** of the 10th Division in Nanchientszu at the tip of Korea Bay. It made a second landing, of its major force, in Takushan [Dagushan, Gushan] on 19 May 1904. The Fourth Army advanced from its landing place northwest and took part in the **battle of Hsimucheng.** After converging with the Second Army at **Haicheng**, it took part in the **battle of Liaoyang**, the **battle of Sha-ho**, and the **battle of Mukden**.

ARMY, JAPANESE SECOND. One of the five principal fighting

units of the **Imperial Japanese Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. It was commanded by General **Oku Yasukata** from 6 March 1904 to January 1906 and consisted primarily of three divisions: the **1st Division** (transferred in June to the **Third Army**), the **3rd Division**, the **4th Division**, and the **5th Division**, as well as the 11th Kôbi Brigade. In late July 1904, after taking part in the **battle of Telissu** and the subsequent **battle of Tashihchiao**, the 5th Division was transferred to the **Fourth Army** and was replaced by the **6th Division**. In January 1905 the 5th and the 6th Divisions changed places, and while the 5th returned to the Second Army, the 6th Division joined the Fourth Army. In January 1905 the Second Army was reinforced by the **8th Division**, which took part in all subsequent engagements in Sandepu and **Mukden**. The Second Army began the war by **landing** in **Pitzuwo** on 5 May 1904; it advanced southwest to the **Kwantung peninsula** and took part there in the **battle of Nanshan**. After capturing **Dalny**, it began advancing northward along the Port Arthur–Mukden railroad. Subsequently it won the **battle of Telissu** and the **battle of Tashihchiao**. After converging with the **Fourth Army** in **Haicheng**, it participated in the major **battle of Liaoyang**, the **battle of Sha-ho**, the **battle of Sandepu**, and the battle of Mukden.

ARMY, JAPANESE THIRD. One of the five principal fighting units of the **Imperial Japanese Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. It was commanded by General **Nogi Maresuke** from 2 May 1904 until January 1906 and consisted primarily of four divisions: the **1st Division** (transferred from the **Second Army**), the **9th Division**, the **6th Division** (transferred in July 1904 to the Second Army), and the **11th Division**, as well as a *kôbi* brigade. During the final stages of the **siege of Port Arthur**, beginning October 1904, the Third Army was reinforced gradually by the **7th Division**, whereas in early 1905 its 11th Division was transferred to form the core of the **Fifth Army**. The Third Army began the war by **landing** in **Dalny** on 6 June 1904. When the last unit arrived, it comprised about 60,000 troops. Starting in the end of July, for the next five months it laid siege to **Port Arthur**, where it suffered more **casualties** than any other Japanese main unit. In the late stages of the siege, the Third Army was the largest of all the Japanese armies during the war, totaling about

100,000 men. In mid-January 1905, after the surrender of the fort, the army was free to join the other Japanese armies, and following its advance northward it took part in the **battle of Mukden**.

ARMY OF THE YALU. *See* ARMY, JAPANESE FIFTH.

ARTILLERY. The Russo–Japanese War witnessed a massive use of artillery, but it was not a revolutionary step in the development of this branch. While the amount of usage and the centralization of control during the war were without precedent, field artillery reached maturity only during World War I. The use of goniometers for measuring angles, panoramic sights, field telephones (especially by the Japanese), and even aerial observation by **balloons** allowed the commanding officers in the field to use their artillery firepower against targets outside the line of sight of the batteries used. These technological advances, together with the increase in the range and effectiveness of the guns, made it possible to concentrate the fire of a whole army corps on a single target. At the **battle of Liaoyang**, for example, medium and heavy artillery were massively employed. On the Japanese side alone there were 56 heavy guns and mortars and a total of 470 guns. During the **battle of Sha-ho**, 48 Russian guns fired 8,000 rounds in 40 minutes; at the **battle of Tashihchiao**, a battery fired 500 rounds per gun.

The battle of Sha-ho may furnish a further instance of successful concentration of the fire of dispersed batteries. The concealment of batteries in action began to be more fully realized and the impracticability of close support by guns pushed forward into the infantry firing line under the enemy's small-arms fire was demonstrated on many occasions. The advances of technology, achieved already in the 19th century, made the use of artillery and indirect fire in the battlefield safer and simpler, and during this war indirect fire at last became the norm. All in all, the two armies used unprecedented quantities of artillery ammunition. The **Imperial Russian Army**, for example, spent about 900,000 artillery rounds during the entire war, a tiny proportion of the 65.3 million manufactured and imported by **Russia** during World War I, and a fraction of the 360 millions shells and bombs Russia alone manufactured during World War II.

Still, the **Imperial Japanese Army** appeared to be more adapted to the modern use of artillery during the Russo–Japanese War. It used

screens of artillery shelling to cover the advance of its infantry with very accurate and close support, through the extensive employment of field telephones and flag signaling. The tactics of advancing, positioning, and deploying the artillery forces evolved as well. The Japanese used camouflage and batteries to conceal the positioning of their guns from the Russian troops, and they watered the roads on which they moved them to prevent dust clouds that would have given away their position and movements. Until the Russo–Japanese War, shelling would stop when the attacking troops were still far from their target to prevent their being harmed, but now Japanese artillery officers often continued shelling almost up to the Russian trenches and ceased only moments before the assault began. During the war the Russians displayed improved gunnery performance and innovation as well. In the fortification of **Port Arthur**, for example, they placed most of their guns in batteries outside the forts of the main perimeter, contrary to common practice, thus eliminating "dead" ground and forcing the attacker to disperse his fire. Altogether, the use of artillery in the Russo–Japanese War inaugurated the era of mass bombardment and close support for the advancing troops, a fact that did not attract much attention of **military observers**.

Enhanced accuracy and communications apparent during the war having made close support an actual option, the Japanese and the Russians alike started using heavier guns with recoil systems. Japanese artillery corps were equipped with the **Arisaka Type 31 gun** as their main field gun until 1902, although they were occasionally equipped also with a small number of the 105-millimeter Model 38 field gun. The **Imperial Guards**, the **1st**, **2nd**, **3rd**, **4th**, and **6th Divisions**, and their *kôbi* brigades were issued the field version of the Arisaka gun. It was capable of firing high-explosive or shrapnel shells up to 4,500 meters. But it lacked a recoil system and was replaced at the end of the war by an improved model of the same gun, which incorporated this and other new improvements known at that time. The **5th**, **7th**, **8th**, **9th**, **10th**, **11th**, and **12th Divisions** were issued the mountain-gun version, similar to the field version and based on it, but with a shorter range of 4,300 meters.

During the Russo–Japanese War the distinction between guns and **howitzers** gradually disappeared and both sides employed successfully a small number of howitzers. Both sides used an increasingly

large number of 120-millimeter [4.7-inch] Krupp-design howitzers purchased before the turn of the century, as well as a small number of 150-millimeter [5.9-inch] Model 38 howitzers (only in Japan). Only the Japanese, however, made full use of this type of gun by mobilizing 18 gigantic Krupp-made 280-millimeter [11-inch] howitzers at **Port Arthur**. Their firepower was exploited to the utmost during the siege of the fort and was instrumental in razing the Russian defenses. The Russian artillery corps were equipped with superb quick-firing **Putilov M-1903** 76.2-millimeter [3-inch] field guns, which replaced the older M-1900. Even though these guns were most up-to-date, they were still heavier and less maneuverable than the Japanese guns. In addition, both sides made use of various older guns of 90 to 120 millimeters, and the Russians also employed during the siege of Port Arthur naval guns, mainly of 152 millimeters [6 inches] and smaller, which were removed from the warships of the **Pacific Fleet**. Both sides made some limited use of heavy mortars, especially in mountain engagements and around Port Arthur against nearby targets protected by hills or other obstacles. They were of 90–150 millimeter caliber and could fire up to 30-kilogram [66-pound] shells a short distance.

ASAHI*.** Japanese **battleship** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. The only ship of the newly built *Asahi* class, she closely resembled the ***Shikishima class with certain modifications; the most visible of them was two funnels instead of three. She served in the 1st Battle Division of the **First Fleet** at the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War and took part in most of the major operations of the **Imperial Japanese Navy** during the war, notably the **battle of the Yellow Sea**. She was badly damaged by a **mine** off **Port Arthur** on 26 October 1904 and returned to active service only in April 1905. *Asahi* saw action again in the **battle of Tsushima**, where she took nine hits and suffered eight killed. During World War I, she became a gunnery training ship and was converted a decade later to a **submarine** salvage vessel. Thereafter she was placed in reserve, reactivated as a repair ship in 1938, and ultimately sunk by an American submarine in 1942.

Technical data: Builder: John Brown, Great Britain, 1897–1900; Displ.: 15,374t; LBD: 129.50×22.92×8.30m [425×75×27ft]; Machinery: 2-shaft VTE, 25 boilers, 16,360ihp; Speed: 18kt; Fuel:

2,000t coal; Range 9,000nm on 10kt; Armament: 4×305mm/40 [12in.], 14×152mm/45 [6in.], 20×76mm [3in.] QF, 12×47mm, 4×457mm [18in.] TT; Armor: Harvey nickel steel, belt: 102–229mm, barbettes: 152–356mm [6–14in.], turrets: 203–254mm [8–10in.], casemates: 152mm [6in.], CT: 102–356mm [4–14in.], deck: 51–102mm [2–4in.]; Comp.: 773.

ASAMA. Japanese armored **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was one of two ships of the *Asama* class and considered one of the first modern armored cruisers of the **Imperial Japanese Navy**. She was heavily armed and well protected but suffered from a short range. At the outbreak of the war, *Asama* belonged in the 2nd Battle Division of the **Second Fleet** and served as the flagship of the squadron under the command of Rear Admiral **Uryû Sotokichi**. Her division was detached to the port of **Chemulpo** at the outbreak of the war, and during the subsequent **battle of Chemulpo** she engaged and hit the Russian protected cruiser ***Variag***. *Asama* later took part in the **battle of the Yellow Sea** and the **battle of Tsushima** as part of the 2nd Battle Division under Vice Admiral **Kamimura Hikonojo**.

Technical data: Builder: Armstrong, Elswick, Great Britain, 1896–1899; Displ.: 10,519t; LBD: 134.72×20.45×7.43m [440×67×24ft]; Machinery: 2-shaft VTE, 12 boilers, 18,000ihp; Speed: 21.3kt; Fuel: 1,406t coal; Range 4,600nm on 11kt; Armament: 4×203mm/40 [8in.], 14×152mm/40 [6in.], 12×76mm [3in.] QF, 8×47mm QF, 5×457mm [18in.] TT; Armor: Harvey nickel steel, belt: 89–178mm [3.5–7in.], barbettes: 152mm [6in.], turrets: 152mm [6in.], casemates: 152mm [6in.], CT: 76–356mm [3–14in.], deck: 51–76mm [2–3in.]; Comp.: 726.

ASKOLD. Russian protected **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was the only ship of the newly built *Askold* class and served in the **Pacific Fleet** at the outbreak of the war. As the fastest large cruiser in the **Imperial Russian Navy**, she managed to escape to Shanghai in the aftermath of the **battle of the Yellow Sea**. She was interned there, thereby surviving the war. During World War I, *Askold* served in the Mediterranean and White Sea and was seized by the **Royal Navy** after the Bolshevik Revolution, renamed HMS *Glory IV*, and eventually scrapped in 1921.

Technical data: Builder: Krupp, Germany, 1898–1901; Displ.: 5,905t; LBD: 133.20×15.00×6.20m [437×49×20.5ft]; Machinery: 9 Schulz-Thornycroft boilers, 3-shaft VTE, 20,420ihp; Speed: 23.8kt; Fuel: 720/1,100t coal; Armament: 12×120mm/45 [4.7in.], 12×11pdr, 8×3pdr, 2×1pdr pompom, 6×381mm [15in.] TT (4AW 2sub); Armor: deck: 51–76mm [2–3in.], CT: 152mm [6in.]; Comp.: 576.

AURORA*.** Russian protected **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. This glorious warship was one of three cruisers of the newly built ***Pallada class and served in the **Baltic Fleet** at the outbreak of the war. She was dispatched to East Asia in November 1903, soon after her completion, together with a detachment under the command of Rear Admiral A. Virenius, but while on her way was sent back to the Baltic Sea. *Aurora* was redispatched back to East Asia in October 1904, this time as part of the **Second Pacific Squadron** and took part in the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet**. During the **battle of Tsushima** she was part of the cruiser detachment under the command of Rear Admiral **Oskar Enkvist**. She followed the flagship, the cruiser ***Oleg***, and was engaged by Japanese cruisers of the 1st Battle Division. The *Aurora* was damaged and her commanding officer, Captain Evgenii Romanovich Egoriev, killed, but she kept advancing northward. During 28 May 1905, Enkvist made *Aurora* his flagship and decided to withdraw his three surviving cruisers to the south, and together they reached Manila on 6 June 1905. The *Aurora* was interned by the American authorities the next day and was released after the war.

In February 1906 the *Aurora* returned to Libau [Liepaja] in the Baltic Sea and became a training ship. At the outbreak of World War I she performed various artillery and patrol duties, but on 13 March 1917 her crew mutinied, and thereafter she was commanded by a Ship Committee. Remaining under subordination to the local council in **St. Petersburg**, the *Aurora* took part in the October Revolution and fired at the Winter Palace, where the provisional government was located. In summer 1918 she was removed to **Kronstadt** and put in reserve. She was recommissioned as a training ship in 1922, laid at anchor in 1933, but took part in the defense of Leningrad during World War II. After the war the *Aurora* was restored as a memorial site to the Bolshevik Revolution.

Technical data: Builder: New Admiralty, St. Petersburg, Russia, 1897–1903; Displ.: 6,731t; LBD: 126.69×16.76×6.55m [415×51×

21.5ft]; Machinery: 24 Belleville boilers, 3-shaft VTE, 13,000ihp; Speed: 19kt; Fuel: 1430t max coal; Armament: 8×152mm/45 [6in.], 24×11pdr, 8×1pdr, 3×381mm [15in.] TT (1AW 2sub); Armor: deck: 38–63mm [1.5–2.5in.], CT: 35.5mm [1.4in.]; Comp.: 581.

AUSTRO–HUNGARY. European empire, a dual monarchy from 1867, and a political unit that dominated central Europe until 1918. During the Russo–Japanese War it declared its **neutrality** and had very minor involvement in the conflict, but was affected by its outcome. It had no imperial aspirations in East Asia, and it declared its neutrality in the early stages of the war. Austrian indecisiveness during the Crimean War cost it control over the Danube principalities, while defeat against Sardinia a few years later in 1859 cost it Lombardy, leaving it with only Venice, which was coveted by **France**. In 1873 Austria signed peace treaties with both **Germany** and **Russia** and in 1876–1877 supported Russia's war against the Turks in return for a promise of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Russia, however, did not fulfill this promise and Austria was prepared to resort to force but was eventually granted a mandate over Bosnia and Herzegovina by the Berlin Congress of 1878. Consequently it signed a secret treaty with Germany against potential Russian aggression, but under German mediation another treaty was signed with Russia to temporarily avert conflicting interests in the Balkans. In 1882 Italy joined in to form a triple alliance with Austria and Germany. The alliance between Germany, Austria, and Russia was renewed in 1884 but crumbled in 1887, and the subsequent endeavors of Bismarck to split control of the Balkans between Germany's two allies were in vain.

During the Russo–Japanese War the concentration of Russian forces in East Asia seemed to reduce tensions in central Europe and the Balkans, and therefore the conflict became a major issue in Austro–Hungarian politics and media. Russia's weakness exposed in East Asia caused Austro–Hungary to seek a rapprochement with it, and indeed on 15 October 1904 the two nations, represented by Russian Foreign Minister **Vladimir Lamsdorf** and the Austro–Hungarian ambassador in **St. Petersburg**, Graf Aehrenthal, signed a secret protocol to maintain the status quo in southeast Europe. Following the war, however, Russia resumed its active meddling in the Balkans. An Austrian attempt to annex Bosnia and Herzegovina resulted in a crisis with

Russia but was averted through reparations and threats. The successful annexation left Austro–Hungary and its ally Germany with a sense of vindication concerning their loss in the earlier **Moroccan Crisis** of 1905, but thereafter the conflict with Russia worsened, culminating in the outbreak of World War I.

AVELAN, FEDOR KARLOVICH (1839–1916). Russian naval officer who served as navy minister during the Russo–Japanese War. Avelan began his military service in 1857 and his rise through the ranks of the **Imperial Russian Navy** coincided with successive appointments as commanding officers of **battleships** and fleet detachments. Subsequently he was made assistant chief of the main naval staff and later chief of the naval staff, in which position he served from 1898 to March 1903. Subsequently Vice Admiral Avelan was appointed director (navy minister) of the navy ministry, and in this position he was responsible for the naval preparation of the Imperial Russian Navy in general and the **Pacific Fleet** in particular in the year before the Russo–Japanese War. During the war his reports and evaluations were held largely responsible for the naval defeat that **Russia** suffered at the hands of the **Imperial Japanese Navy**. Consequently he retired from service in July 1905, soon after the fiasco of the **battle of Tsushima**. In 1914 he was appointed to the State Council and served there until his death two years later.

AZUMA*.** Japanese armored **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was the only ship of the *Azuma* class and a French variant of the ***Izumo class with similar technical specifications. She served in the 2nd Battle Division of the **Second Fleet** at the outbreak of the war and took part in all the major naval engagements of the war, including the **battle of Tsushima**. In 1921 the *Azuma* was partly disarmed but remained in service. She was hit in an air raid in 1945 and scrapped after World War II.

Technical data: Builder: Ateliers et Ch de La Loire, St. Nazaire, France, 1898–1900; Displ.: 9,953t; LBD: 137.90×18.00×7.21m [452×59×23.5ft]; Machinery: 2-shaft VTE, 24 boilers, 17,000ihp; Speed: 21kt; Fuel: 1275t coal; Range 3,900nm on 10kt; Armament: 4×203mm/40 [8in.], 12×152mm/40 [6in.], 12×76mm [3in.] QF, 8×47mm QF, 5×457mm [18in.] TT; Armor: Krupp steel, belt: 89–178mm [3.5–7in.], barbettes: 152mm [6in.], turrets: 152mm

[6in.], casemates: 152mm [6in.], CT: 76–356mm [3–14in.], deck: 51–76mm [2–3in.]; Comp.: 650.

– B –

BAIKAL [BAYKAL], LAKE. A large lake in Siberia and a major obstacle to the Russian logistic system during the Russo–Japanese War. It is the largest freshwater lake of Eurasia and the deepest in the world. Its surface area is 31,494 square kilometers [12,160 square miles], length 640 kilometers [395 miles], width up to 80–130 kilometers [50–80 miles], and maximum depth of 1,742 meters [5,714 feet]. The lake is about 450 meters [1,500 feet] above sea level and surrounded by a mountain range of up to 2,500 meters [8,500 feet] in height. The **Trans-Siberian Railway**, which was used as the main logistic trunk of transportation from European Russian to the land forces in **Manchuria**, was designed to run near the southern shores of the lake. The sections from Irkutsk to the lake and from the lake eastward to Sretensk were completed in 1900; construction of the section surrounding the lake (the Circumbaikal section) began in 1901 but was still incomplete by the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War.

The **Imperial Russian Army** employed instead two ferries, the *Baikal* and the smaller *Angara*, to ferry trains or troops across the lake. During the winter the water froze, and from the end of January the ferries could not be used for a few months. During the winter of 1904, Russian troops en route to Manchuria had to march across the ice, halting every six or seven kilometers in heated shelters. The Imperial Russian Army mobilized 3,000 horses to draw sledges across the lake and even laid a line on the ice, but after a number of fatal accidents the use of locomotives was discontinued. During the summer of 1904, Russian engineers strove to complete the Circumbaikal project of 257 kilometers [160 miles], which followed the southern rim of Lake Baikal. These efforts bore fruit only in September 1904, when the line opened for service, thereby clearing the formidable obstacles encountered during the previous winter.

BALFOUR, ARTHUR JAMES (1848–1930). British statesman who served as prime minister during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born into an aristocratic family and studied at Eton and Trinity College,

Cambridge. He was first elected to Parliament in 1874 and served as a Conservative member for over four decades. He later served as the first secretary for Scotland in 1886, chief secretary for Ireland from 1887 to 1891, and as first lord of the treasury in 1891–1892 and again in 1885–1902. In 1902 Balfour succeeded his uncle, Lord Salisbury, as prime minister. During his incumbency as foreign secretary, **Great Britain** signed the **Anglo–Japanese Alliance**, which allowed it greater diplomatic leeway before the Russo–Japanese War. During the war he persisted in his support of **Japan** and began to realize his vision of Britain's role in European politics, which included the conclusion of the **Anglo–French Entente**. Internal disputes with Joseph Chamberlain weakened the party, and Balfour lost his position in the 1906 elections but remained leader of the Conservatives until 1911. During World War I he served as the first lord of the admiralty in 1915 and as foreign secretary in 1916–1919. In this capacity he delivered the famous Balfour Declaration regarding the establishment of a Jewish homeland in Palestine.

BALLOONS. Airtight bags filled with hot air or gas that were used for reconnaissance and sighting on a static battle front. During the Russo–Japanese War both belligerents, the **Imperial Japanese Army** in particular, employed balloons for reconnaissance tasks. Balloons had been developed for observation purposes in the 19th century and remained a useful **artillery** aid in 1904. Whereas the besieged Russians did not have balloons during the siege of Port Arthur, General **Nogi Maresuke**, the commander of the Japanese **Third Army**, employed balloons sporadically for photographing. The **Imperial Japanese Navy** also used balloons for the same purpose off **Port Arthur**, but they were unable to get a view of the whole harbor. The photos and oral reports obtained from those aerial observations allowed the commanding officers in the field to use their artillery firepower against targets outside the line of sight of the batteries. The balloons usually ascended to a height of 600 meters [2,000 feet], and only for a short time lest they become prey for enemy guns, which in this era could easily shoot them down even at long range. Around **Mukden** the Japanese made additional use of balloons for propaganda purposes. In an attempt to demoralize enemy soldiers, they carried posters depicting the leisure surrendered Russian soldiers could expect as **prisoners of war**.

BALTIC FLEET. One of the three fleets of the **Imperial Russian Navy** at the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War. Being far from the naval arena at the outbreak of the war, the majority of the warships of the fleet were dispatched to assist the besieged **Pacific Fleet** and were eventually sunk or captured at the **battle of Tsushima**. The origins of the Baltic Fleet date to the early 18th century, when Peter the Great established his new capital on the Baltic at the end of the war with Sweden and began to establish **Russia** as a naval power. While the fleet had been the backbone of the Imperial Russian Navy ever since, it remained heavily dependent upon foreign commanding officers throughout the 18th century. After the death of Tsarina Catherine, and especially during the reign of Tsar Alexander I (1801–1825), the Fleet was weakened, although it played a limited part during the Napoleonic Wars in denying the French armies a supply route for their troops. Following the Crimean War in 1854, Russian warships were forbidden to sail into the Black Sea, and **Kronstadt**, the main base of the Baltic Fleet, assumed its earlier predominance.

In the latter half of the 19th century, the fleet expanded to become the third largest in the world and comprised many new and modern warships purchased or constructed with huge budgets. At the same time, slight emphasis was placed on training crews, which left them far behind European fleets of similar size. Crews remained ineffective due to limited training and social disaffection while their ships lay idle in port for many months of the year. During the Russo–Japanese War the fleet was divided into two squadrons, known as the **Second Pacific Squadron** and the **Third Pacific Squadron**, which were sent to East Asia under the command of Vice Admiral **Zinovii Rozhestvenskii**. The long **voyage of the Baltic Fleet** ended upon arrival at the **Tsushima Straits,** where it was virtually destroyed in the **battle of Tsushima**. The fleet also suffered from social unrest, and later in the same year its main base was afflicted by a mutiny known as the **Kronstadt Rebellion**.

The rebuilding of the fleet began only in 1909 with the laying down of four new **battleships**. Despite some ambitious construction programs in the next years, only the four ships whose construction began in 1909 and one new destroyer were ready in time for World War I. The naval war in the Baltic from 1914 to 1917 was fought mainly by small boats and was distinguished above all in **mine** laying. The fleet played little role in the civil war as a naval contingent,

but four years later, dissatisfied with the Soviet regime, the sailors of Kronstadt mutinied again and were suppressed harshly. In the 1920s the fleet was reduced to a small coastal defense force, but in the next decade it began to benefit from larger budgets. In World War II the fleet delayed the German invasion to Russia, but for the remainder of the war its ships were bottled up between **Kronstadt** and Leningrad [**St. Petersburg**], although it assisted somewhat in the defense of Leningrad. After the war the fleet regained its old bases and acquired new, ice-free bases in former East Prussia. It resumed the construction of a large blue-water fleet, and by the time of the collapse of the Soviet Union in 1989 it had been built into a large and modern fleet with the emphasis on nuclear **submarines**.

BALTIC FLEET, VOYAGE OF THE (1904–1905). Voyage of the various units of the **Baltic Fleet**, known collectively as the **Second Pacific Squadron** and the **Third Pacific Squadron**, from the Baltic Sea to the **Tsushima Straits** during the Russo–Japanese War. This almost eight-month voyage, from 11 October 1904 to 27 May 1905, is considered one of the epics of naval history. The decision to dispatch the Baltic fleet to East Asia was made in June 1904 when the vulnerability of the **Pacific Fleet** stationed mainly in **Port Arthur** became evident, especially as the Japanese **Third Army** began to close in on the fortress. The decision was followed by the appointment of Vice Admiral **Zinovii Rozhestvenskii**, the chief of the naval general staff, as commanding officer of the force. He was assisted by Rear Admiral **Dmitrii von Felkerzam**, who was to command the 2nd Battleship Division, and Rear Admiral **Oskar Enkvist**, who was to command the 1st Cruiser Division. After lengthy preparations the assembled fleet, now called the Second Pacific Squadron, left its base at **Kronstadt** on 30 August and began maneuvers in the Baltic Sea. During the following six weeks, Tsar **Nicholas II** vacillated over whether to dispatch the fleet; his indecisiveness peaked during October when he changed his mind three times. Finally, on 10 October 1904, he reviewed the armada at the port of Reval [present-day Tallinn, Estonia]. The next day the force of 42 warships and 12,000 officers and sailors left for Libau [Libava, present-day Liepaja in Latvia], and after coaling it departed on 15 October for a voyage of 33,000 kilometers [18,000 nautical miles] to an unknown destiny.

Rozhestvenskii's critical hurdle was logistic. He needed at least 3,000 tons of coal a day without entering neutral ports, closed to his armada by international law. Moreover, the majority of the principal coaling stations en route to Asia were in the hands of **Great Britain**, **Japan**'s major ally. **Russia** turned instead to its allies, **France** and **Germany**. Although the two powers were reluctant to intervene, a German company, the Hamburg–America Line, leased the Russians scores of colliers for the transport of coal; for its part, the French government allowed the fleet to anchor briefly at a number of ports in its colonies. Before the fleet crossed the straits into the North Sea, tension rose due to nonsensical rumors of an impending Japanese ambush by **torpedo boats**. When the fleet reached **Dogger Bank** during the night of 21–22 October 1904, it encountered some vessels that it identified as enemy torpedo boats. The Russians opened fire and even hit each other. In the morning the enemy turned out to be a British fishing boat, and apart from the sheer embarrassment the matter nearly developed into a serious international conflict with Great Britain. Only the patience and determination of British Prime Minister **Arthur Balfour** and Foreign Minister **Henry Lansdowne** could calm the public cry for revenge, and the **Dogger Bank Incident** was eventually resolved at the International Court at the Hague.

The ships reached the Spanish port of Vigo on 1 November 1904, and after negotiations they were granted their first refueling. At the next stop in Tangier the armada split up. Five of the older and least reliable warships, the **battleships** ***Sissoi Velikii*** and ***Navarin***, and the **cruisers** ***Svietlana***, ***Zhemchug***, and ***Almaz***, along with several transports, took the shorter route through the **Suez Canal** under the command of Felkerzam, while the larger and newer vessels steamed southward to round Africa. On 20 November the first of two detachments intended to reinforce the Second Pacific Squadron left Libau under the command of Captain Leonid Dobrotvoskii, to join Rozhestvenskii's armada. The detachment took the short route via the Suez Canal. It comprised 10 ships, led by the two new cruisers ***Oleg*** and ***Izumrud***.

The main force headed undisturbed to Dakar and refueled there on 16 November, and then reached Gabon on 1 December, Great Fish Bay six days later, and Angra Pequena in German South West Africa on 16 December. The next day they departed for the long sail to

Madagascar. On their way, after rounding the Cape of Good Hope, they received the grim news of the fall of **Port Arthur**. The loss of the main Russian naval base in East Asia and the destruction of the **First Pacific Squadron** left Rozhestvenskii with an impossible dilemma. He could not return, but with no bases from which to operate, his force was obviously inferior to the Japanese **Combined Fleet**. The Russian naval base at **Vladivostok** could not serve as a substitute since it lacked naval facilities and supplies. Morale among the crews diminished further, while Rozhestvenskii shut himself away, exasperated at the intention to send the Third Pacific Squadron under the command of Rear Admiral **Nikolai Nebogatov**, which he felt would be futile in the ensuing engagement with the Japanese. Rozhestvenskii met Felkerzam's detachment at Nossi Bé in northern Madagascar on 9 January 1905, and on 14 February he was also joined by the small detachment of Dobrotvoskii. A day later the Third Pacific Squadron left Libau, just as the distressing reports from the **battle of Mukden** arrived.

Although he was instructed unequivocally to wait for Nebogatov's squadron, Rozhestvenskii left Madagascar on 16 March and proceeded to Singapore, passing there before thousands of onlookers on 8 April 1905. Unable to coal or even anchor in British ports, the Second Pacific Squadron refueled at sea and proceeded northward. On 14 April it anchored in Cam Ranh Bay, off the coast of Annam in French Indochina (today Vietnam). In this last stop before battle, Rozhestvenskii was ordered to wait for the arrival of Nebogatov, who meanwhile had passed through the Suez Canal, coaled in Djibouti, and proceeded to the Straits of Malacca in a search of ships of the Second Pacific Squadron. During the long stay at this last stop before battle, morale had never been so low and mutiny broke out on the ***Orel***. The lengthy anticipation of the arrival of Nebogatov's ships led to a storm of anti-French demonstrations in Japan and mounting diplomatic pressure on Paris. France indeed wanted the Russian armada to leave but had little power to persuade it to do so. Finally, on 9 May 1905 the Third Pacific Squadron joined the main armada; now the joint force, which had grown to 52 vessels, was ready to leave. This was no secret since the voyage received constant coverage by the international **press**. Furthermore, using an intricate net of **military intelligence**, the **Imperial Japanese Navy** followed closely the

advance of the Russian armada, although it did not know the Russians' exact course to Vladivostok. Admiral **Tôgô Heihachirô**, commander of the Combined Fleet, assumed that Rozhestvenskii would pass through the Tsushima Straits. Accordingly he sent a multitude of warships and fishing boats to locate the Russians as they approached the straits.

Hidden by low visibility, Rozhestvenskii chose indeed to traverse the Tsushima Straits en route to Vladivostok. He divided his warships into two columns. In the eastern column, which was nearer to the island of Tsushima, were all seven principal **battleships** of the fleet, as well as a **cruiser**. The secondary column, sailing a parallel course, included all the other vessels, led by the outdated battleships under the command of Nebogatov. The death of Felkerzam three days before the passage through the Tsushima Straits left Nebogatov second in command, although he was not informed of this. On 26 May 1905, the Japanese armed merchant cruiser *Shinano* sighted the Russian armada and called for additional forces by **radio**. The following morning, Japanese warships tailed their opponents like a distant shadow, and their number increased continually toward noon. Soon afterward, the decisive **battle of Tsushima** began to unfold.

BARING, MAURICE (1874–1945). British author and diplomat who served as a **war correspondent** during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in London, the fourth son of the first Lord Revelstoke, and educated at Eton and Trinity College, Cambridge. He entered the diplomatic service in 1898 and resigned in 1904, taking up journalism and acting as correspondent for the *Morning Post* in **Manchuria** in 1904 and **Russia** in 1905–1908. His experience and impressions during the war appeared in his book *With the Russians in Manchuria* (1905). Following a stint in Constantinople during the Balkan War, Baring worked as a reporter in **France** and back in Britain during World War I. Apart from various volumes of poems, parodies, and critical essays, he wrote several novels and published works on Russia.

BARRY, THOMAS HENRI (1855–1919). American army officer who served as a senior **military observer** during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in New York, graduated from the U.S. Military Academy, and joined the 7th Cavalry as a 2nd lieutenant. Barry was

promoted during service to brigadier general, and at the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War he was assigned to the **Imperial Russian Army** as a military observer. After the war he served as president of the army war college and was promoted to major general. Subsequently Barry was placed in command of the Army of Pacification in Cuba and made the island's acting governor. In the final stages of his career he served as superintendent of the U.S. Military Academy and commander of the Central Department.

BATTLECRUISERS. Type of hybrid capital ships, idiosyncratic to the 1905–1920 period, which combined the striking armament of a **battleship** and the speed of a **cruiser**. Their construction was related to the naval outcomes of the Russo–Japanese War. The dilemma between armor and speed, as manifested in the **British Royal Navy** following the main naval engagements of the Russo–Japanese War, led to the birth, apart from the *Dreadnought*, of a new type of capital ship. Having full **battleship** guns and a large speed advantage over the battleships, they suffered from relatively thin armor. The first three ships of the *Invincible* battlecruiser class were ordered by the Royal Navy in 1905 and commissioned in 1908. They were armed with eight 305-millimeter [12-inch] guns, and although they had 96 percent of the displacement of the **dreadnought** type, they enjoyed an exceptionally long sailing range and an unprecedented maximum speed of 27 knots. This was at the expense of having one turret less than a dreadnought, and armor whose maximum thickness was only 152 millimeters [6 inches], half that of a dreadnought, which did not ensure survival against battleships.

The battlecruiser was the brainchild of the British first sea lord, Admiral **John Fisher**, who compromised on constructing more battleships but believed that battlecruisers were the future masters of the seas. In the days before the Russo–Japanese War he had designated this new type of warship to defend merchant shipping against the threat of French and Russian cruisers. Following the demise of the **Imperial Russian Navy** in that war and the improved relations with **France**, the function of the battlecruiser inevitably became blurred, and Fisher's arguments for preferring the battlecruiser to the dreadnought lost ground. Until World War I only **Great Britain**, **Germany**, and **Japan** dared to invest in battlecruisers. Ultimately, the vulnerability of the battlecruiser when facing battleships or other bat-

tlecruisers was exposed during World War I, and with the introduction of oil fuel, which made battleships faster, this type of warship was gradually phased out.

BATTLE OF CHEMULPO. *See* CHEMULPO, BATTLE OF.

BATTLE OF HSIMUCHENG. *See* HSIMUCHENG, BATTLE OF.

BATTLE OF LIAOYANG. *See* LIAOYANG, BATTLE OF.

BATTLE OF MUKDEN. *See* MUKDEN, BATTLE OF.

BATTLE OF NANSHAN. *See* NANSHAN, BATTLE OF.

BATTLE OF SANDEPU. *See* SANDEPU, BATTLE OF.

BATTLE OF SHA-HO. *See* SHA-HO, BATTLE OF.

BATTLE OF TANNENBERG. *See* TANNENBERG, BATTLE OF.

BATTLE OF TASHIHCHIAO. *See* TASHIHCHIAO, BATTLE OF.

BATTLE OF TELISSU. *See* TELISSU, BATTLE OF.

BATTLE OF THE KOREA STRAITS. *See* KOREA STRAITS, BATTLE OF THE.

BATTLE OF THE SEA OF JAPAN. *See* TSUSHIMA, BATTLE OF.

BATTLE OF THE YALU. *See* YALU, BATTLE OF THE.

BATTLE OF THE YELLOW SEA. *See* YELLOW SEA, BATTLE OF THE.

BATTLE OF TSUSHIMA. *See* TSUSHIMA, BATTLE OF.

BATTLE OF ULSAN. *See* KOREA STRAITS, BATTLE OF THE.

BATTLE OF WAFANGKOU. *See* TELISSU, BATTLE OF.

BATTLESHIPS. The most powerful contemporary capital ships, regarded since the 18th century as the supreme naval weapon. This type of warship was of the utmost importance during the Russo–Japanese War. At the beginning of the 20th century they were heavily armored, all-steel vessels, their armament consisting of breech-loading guns of various caliber positioned in rotating turrets and casemates. Battleships were designed to lay down great firepower on the enemy while withstanding as much damage as possible. Because of their power, high construction and maintenance costs, and technological construction requirements, they were considered the representatives of the country's economic and technological levels. For the fear of losing them, as well as for political reasons, their use was often limited, especially after 1905. The Russo–Japanese War was the last true war of the battleships, and in its naval engagements many of these vessels saw action against both enemy ships and shore batteries; often they were deployed without hesitation. Moreover, the war made it possible to test in combat several tactical maneuvers, later used in the further development of artillery-armed warships.

The status of the battleship was doubtful in the decades preceding the war. Toward the end of the 19th century the leading navies held heated discussions as to its role in the future naval arena. Some claimed, most prominently the French school known as *La jeune école*, that the battleship was an outdated and expensive capital ship that had lost its utility in view of the technological developments of the time. Naval forces that found it difficult to compete with the accelerated pace of equipment production of the British **Royal Navy** were drawn to this approach and began to equip themselves with **torpedo boats** and **destroyers** in ever-growing numbers. In 1889, however, the British laid the keel of the first ship of the *Royal Sovereign* class, considered the first of a new age of battleships of the type that would be defined later as **pre-dreadnought**. This class was noted for the high turret and its improved protection, which made it a prototype for most battleships that were built throughout the world during the period up to the end of the Russo–Japanese War.

Those years also saw the beginnings of a renewed arms race, mainly between the Royal Navy, the French Navy, and the **Imperial**

Russian Navy, with the Imperial German Navy still trailing behind. By 1905 the Royal Navy laid down 47 battleships that shared the common feature of having the primary battery placed on two turrets, each with two barrels of 305mm [12in.]. The remaining European navies in this period also built a large number of ships with similar features. **France** built 20 battleships of the first line, **Germany** built 25, Italy built nine, and **Austro–Hungary** built three, whereas the U.S. Navy built 24 battleships. **Russia** and **Japan** were not idle either, and joined the circle of superior naval forces that owned the latest type of battleships. The Imperial Russian Navy began building battleships of the pre-dreadnought type in 1892 and completed the construction of 20 ships during that period. In 1893 the **Imperial Japanese Navy** ordered two of its first battleships from **Great Britain** based on the *Royal Sovereign* class, and three years later another four based on the *Majestic* class.

At the time of the Russo–Japanese War, more than a hundred battleships of pre-dreadnought classes were sailing the seas and hoisting the ensigns of eight navies. The construction of these vessels incurred enormous expenditure, and they imposed a heavy burden on the defense budgets of most powers. Moreover, without any naval battle since the onset of the pre-dreadnought age, and with the constant improvements in the quality of the **torpedo**, many naval experts harbored doubts as to the ability of the ever-growing number of battleships to cope with the new threats that appeared in the naval arena. The Russo–Japanese War supplied them with an answer. More than any naval engagement of the war, the battle of Tsushima highlighted the decisive, but not exclusive, importance of the primary battery in a naval confrontation between battleships. At Tsushima, and even more so in the **battle of the Yellow Sea** nine months earlier, firing was opened at distances previously unknown, made possible by guns of a large caliber.

The fact that only guns of large caliber were used in long-range engagements had dramatic repercussions. First, only ships with especially thick armor were able to survive a hit by those guns, and second, the development of armor, both in thickness and quality, made it possible only for guns with especially large caliber to sink or cause any significant damage to battleships or armored **cruisers**. The Royal Navy, headed at that time by Admiral **John Fisher**, was the first navy to conclude that the design of the next class of battleships should be

totally modified. While the idea of an all-gun battleship was entertained before the Russo–Japanese War, only in March 1905, two months before the **battle of Tsushima**, did the Royal Navy approve plans for a revolutionary battleship, known as the *Dreadnought*. It is certain that the reports of the British **naval observers** reached the Admiralty within a short time, and for years afterward their conclusions would be used in discussions within the British navy regarding the absorption of new technologies and particularly the role of the battleship in future naval warfare.

The launching of the *Dreadnought* in 1906 signified a revolutionary development in the evolution of the battleship, and it made all its predecessors, more than a hundred other battleships in the world's fleets, outdated. Dreadnought soon became the general name for all battleships with large numbers of heavy guns, and all the other battleships that were constructed before it were called pre-dreadnought. With the completion of this new class, all the enormous sums invested in the construction of the latest pre-dreadnought types went to waste, and the race in battleship construction was now renewed from a common starting point. On the eve of World War I, the dreadnoughts became the universally accepted index of naval power, but the decisive confrontations in which they were expected to meet never materialized, partly because of the awareness of the growing threat from **mines**, **torpedoes**, and **submarines**.

BAYAN. Russian armored **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. One of four ships of the newly built *Bayan* class, she served in the **Pacific Fleet** at the outbreak of the war and was heavily damaged during the Japanese naval bombardment of **Port Arthur** on 9 February 1904. She was further damaged when she hit a **mine** on 27 July 1904, and eventually was sunk by hits of 280-millimeter [11-inch] **howitzer** shells during the **siege of Port Arthur**. She was raised by the **Imperial Japanese Navy** after the surrender of the fort, recommissioned as the *Aso* in 1906, and eventually sunk as a target in 1932.

Technical data: Builder: La Seyne, France, 1899–1903; Displ.: 7,725t; LBD: 137.03×17.52×6.71m [450×57.5×21ft]; Machinery: 26 Belleville boilers, 2-shaft VTE, 16,500ihp; Speed: 21kt; Fuel: 950–1,100t coal; Armament: 2×203mm/45 [8in.] (2×1), 8×152mm/45 [6in.], 16×11pdr, 8×3pdr, 2×381mm [15in.] TT; Ar-

mor: Harvey nickel steel, belt: 63.5–203mm [2.5–8in.], turrets: 152–171mm [6–6.7in.], CT: 171mm [6.7in.]; Comp.: 568–593.

BAYKAL, LAKE. *See* BAIKAL, LAKE.

BAYONET. Short, sharp, and sometimes pointed weapon serving as a firearm barrel attachment for hand-to-hand fighting. It was produced probably for the first time in Bayonne, France, in the early 17th century and was originally designed as a foot-long, double-edged blade with a wooden shaft of equal length inserted into the muzzle of a musket, thereby creating a weapon that succeeded the pike. Models from the end of the 17th century were redesigned to fit around the muzzle so they would not prevent it from firing or cause it to jam. At the turn of the 20th century many officers in most armies still viewed the bayonet charge as a true expression of the "offensive spirit." While the development of repeating firearms reduced its combat effectiveness, the bayonet was still widely in use during the Russo–Japanese War by both the **Imperial Russian Army** and **Imperial Japanese Army**. The Japanese **infantry** corps used the Type 30 bayonet, 50 centimeters [19.7 inches] in length, as well as the shorter Type 39 bayonet. In many close-contact engagements during the war, especially during the **siege of Port Arthur**, infantry soldiers of both sides resorted to their bayonets rather than to the unsafe use of slow shooting. It was still in use later, during World War I and even World War II, and served as the infantryman's primary close-combat weapon in **trench warfare** and also as an all-purpose knife carried in a scabbard when not in combat use.

BEIJING, TREATY OF. *See* PEKING, TREATY OF.

BELYII, VASILII FEDOROVICH (1854–1913). Russian army officer who served as commanding officer of the fortress **artillery** during the **siege of Port Arthur**. He was born in Kuban to a **Cossack** family and began to serve in the Kuban Artillery Brigade in 1869. Belyii became an officer four years later and distinguished himself at the siege of Kars during the Russo–Turkish War of 1877–1878. Subsequently he served as an artillery officer in the fortresses of Kars, Warsaw, and Sevastopol. In 1900 he was stationed at **Port Arthur**,

appointed commander of the fortress artillery of the **Kwantung Fortified Region**, and promoted to major general. During the Russo–Japanese War he was in charge of the artillery defense of Port Arthur and was regarded as an ingenious and skillful officer. Belyii gained some renown for his ability to employ gunfire from hidden positions, as well as for his opposition to surrender toward the end of the siege. Following the Japanese takeover of the fort, he returned to **Russia**, and in 1906 became commander of the **Vladivostok** fortress artillery, where he served until his retirement in 1911.

BEZOBRAZOV, ALEKSANDR MIKHAILOVICH (1855–1931). Russian businessman, political activist, and adventurer who was the driving force behind Russian ventures in East Asia before the Russo–Japanese War. Bezobrazov was born into a noble family from the Tambov region, joined the **Imperial Russian Army**, and rose to the rank of captain in the renowned Horse Guards. After the assassination of Tsar Alexander II in 1881, he joined the counter-revolutionary group known as the "Holy Militia." Merging his entrepreneurial interests and political activities, in 1898 Bezobrazov joined an initiative to expand Russian influence in the northern part of **Korea** by means of a timber concession. Subsequently he was introduced to Tsar **Nicholas II** by Grand Duke Aleksandr Mikhailovich, who also brought in Bezobrazov's cousin, Rear Admiral **Aleksei Abaza**. Bezobrazov's oratory skills soon made him the spokesman for the entire concessionaire group, which became known as the **Bezobrazov Circle**. The scheme for timber concessions was opposed by Finance Minister **Sergei Witte**, but in late 1902 the tsar endorsed it and sent Bezobrazov to East Asia. After his return, he was appointed state secretary, and in May 1903 he received the tsar's full support for his enterprise known as the **Yalu River Timber Concessions**.

In June 1903 Bezobrazov established the "Russian Lumber Producing Association in the Far East," which replaced his East Asian Industrial Company and aimed to log timber on both the Manchurian and Korean banks of the **Yalu River**. Leaving for East Asia the same month, he organized along the border between **Manchuria** and Korea an armed militia of Chinese, as well as strongholds manned by Russian soldiers. The discovery of these activities by Japanese agents intensified the rivalry between the two nations. The outbreak of the

Russo–Japanese War caused the collapse of Bezobrazov's enterprise, already on the verge of bankruptcy in the fall of 1903. Following his personal downfall, Bezobrazov took refuge in Switzerland for a few months, but in September 1904 he returned to **Russia** and attempted to recommence his activities. Unable to reestablish his prewar political status, he left Russia after the October Revolution and died in Paris in 1931. Russian historiography debates his responsibility for the Russo–Japanese War. Some historians have viewed him as the direct cause of the war, others as a factor in Russia's deteriorating relations with **Japan** and as responsible for the dismissal of Sergei Witte.

BEZOBRAZOV, PETR ALEKSEEVICH (1842–1906). Russian naval officer who served as commander of the **Vladivostok Squadron** during the early stages of the Russo–Japanese War and remained a prominent figure in the **Imperial Russian Navy** after the war. He began his navy service in 1864 aboard the frigate *Dmitrii Donskoi* and in 1883 became executive officer of the frigate ***Svietlana***. Bezobrazov was subsequently appointed commander of **gunvessels** (1885–1888) and promoted to captain in 1890. From 1893 to 1897, Bezobrazov commanded the armored **cruiser** *General-Admiral* and then the battleship ***Navarin***. In 1879 he was promoted to rear admiral and served as chief of staff of the **Kronstadt** naval base and deputy commander of the **Baltic Fleet** until 1901. He was then transferred to the **Black Sea Fleet** and promoted to vice admiral in 1903.

Bezobrazov was appointed commander-in-chief of the **First Pacific Squadron** on 8 May 1904, following the death of Vice Admiral **Stepan Makarov**. He arrived in **Vladivostok** on 12 June 1904, but because of the Japanese control of the seas he could not directly command the squadron in **Port Arthur**, hence his nomination remained in name only. Bezobrazov simultaneously assumed command of the Vladivostok Squadron and personally led the **Vladivostok Independent Cruiser Squadron** in the **attack on the Tsushima Straits** on 15 June 1904. Comprising the cruisers ***Rossia***, ***Rurik***, and ***Gromoboi***, his task force sank three Japanese transports in a successful though controversial operation. In September 1904 Bezobrazov left for Kronstadt, where he was appointed commander-in-chief of the **Baltic Fleet**. In December 1904 he assumed the role of chief of the main naval staff and held it until July 1906.

BEZOBRAZOV CIRCLE. A group of proponents of Russian expansion to **Manchuria** and **Korea** before the Russo–Japanese War. It was formed early in 1898 and was active until late 1903, the time when the Circle attained its greatest influence. Most members of the group were aristocratic landowners and belonged to the tsarist court. The most vocal member of the Circle, and the one considered its leader, was **Aleksandr Bezobrazov**, for whom the group was named. It received its impetus from the **Treaty of Shimonoseki** of 1895, which made Korea independent and gave **Japan** control of the **Liaotung peninsula**. Since 1891, **Russia** had been building the **Trans-Siberian Railway** to increase Russian power in East Asia, particularly in Manchuria. After the **Three-Power Intervention,** which forced Japan to retreat from the Liaotung peninsula, Russia obtained a 25-year lease on the region, along with permission to build the **South Manchurian Railway** connecting Port Arthur and the **Chinese Eastern Railway** to the north. In 1896, **Kojong**, the king of Korea, was persuaded to grant Yulii Briner, a merchant from **Vladivostok** and an agent of Russian officials in Korea, the right to exploit timber resources along the **Yalu River** on Korea's northern border.

Behind this activity stood N. G. Matiunin, a diplomat responsible for the formation of the Circle around the Briner concession. A year later Briner wished to sell his concession in **St. Petersburg**, and Russia's Finance Minister **Sergei Witte** proposed it as the first major transaction of the new Russo–Korean Bank, a daughter of the Russo–Chinese Bank. Matiunin, who opposed Witte's plans, created a circle initially composed of major figures such as the Dowager Tsarina Maria Fedorovna, Princes Yusopov, Scherbatov, and Koslovskii, Mikhail V. Rodzianko (later chairman of the Fourth **Duma**), Admiral **Evgenii Alekseev**, Rear Admiral **Aleksei Abaza**, and **Aleksandr Bezobrazov**. Matiunin guided the imperial cabinet to buying the concession in May 1898, but due to international pressure the latter transferred it to an ostensibly private firm. Revenues from the concession were allotted to the construction of roads and telegraph facilities in northern Korea, and led ultimately to Russian annexation of the region.

Despite Witte's opposition, in June 1900 Tsar **Nicholas II** gave his consent to the scheme, which naturally was also intended to enrich its participants. Following a short interlude during the **Boxer Uprising**,

Russia negotiated with **China** and gained new concessions on the Manchurian side of the Yalu. At this stage Bezobrazov became the spokesman of the Circle. He dismissed the possibility of foreign reaction by suggesting continuous cooperation with **Germany** and **France** and ignoring Japan. After the signing of the **Anglo–Japanese Alliance**, the tsar revived the timber scheme and approached Bezobrazov, with whom he had close contacts at that time. In spring 1902 Witte set up the Manchurian Mining Association, which infuriated the Circle. With the appointment of **Viacheslav Plehve** as interior minister in mid-1902 and Witte's power waning, Bezobrazov was given a credit of 2 million rubles in state funds and established the enterprise known as the **Yalu River Timber Concessions**.

In May 1903 the tsar decided on a new Russian policy in East Asia and instructed Alekseev, now viceroy of the Far East, to discuss economic policies with Bezobrazov rather than with Witte. Subsequently the tsar ordered the formation of the "Russian Timber Producing Association in the Far East," comprising members of the Circle. At the same time, Bezobrazov arrived in Manchuria and mobilized the local population against Chinese military forces near the Yalu. The Chinese reaction served as a pretext for Russian troops to approach the region and take over several military strongholds, some of them on Korean territory. As the prospects of war with Japan rose, the tsar supported the Circle against more moderate elements who opposed confrontation with Japan. Following the dismissal of Witte as finance minister in August 1903, the Manchurian Mining Association was merged with the Russian Timber Producing Association of the Far East, under the direction of Bezobrazov and Balashev, but the whole scheme lost ground when the war broke out. Later, Soviet historians tended to argue that the Circle had been responsible for Witte's demise, but they disagreed on how far it had been responsible for the outbreak of the war.

BILDERLING, ALEKSANDR ALEKSANDROVICH (1846–1912). Russian army officer who served as commander of a corps and then commander of the **Third Manchurian Army** in the final stages of the Russo–Japanese War. He was born into an aristocratic family and carried the title of baron. He joined the **Imperial Russian Army** and took part in the Russo–Turkish War of 1877–1878. Bilderling was appointed

commander of the **Seventeenth European Army Corps** in May 1904 and arrived with it in **Manchuria** in summer 1904. The following year he assumed command of several large units and played a key role in the **Manchurian Army** in several battles. As a full general, he assumed command of the Eastern detachment at the **battle of Liaoyang** and of the Western detachment at the **battle of Sha-ho**. Following the **battle of Sandepu**, Bilderling was appointed commander of the Third Manchurian Army, replacing General **Aleksandr Kaulbars**, and took part in the **battle of Mukden**. Following the defeat, he was removed from his command in May 1905 and resumed the command of his corps until September that year.

BINHI SATSUGAI JIKEN. *See* MIN, ASSASSINATION OF QUEEN.

BIRILEV, ALEKSEI ALEKSEEVICH (1844–1915). Russian naval officer who served as the commander-in-chief of the **Pacific Fleet** in the final stages of the Russo–Japanese War. He joined the **Imperial Russian Navy** in 1859 and made two round-the-world voyages. From 1880 to 1894 he commanded a number of ships, and in 1894 he was appointed commander of the artillery training squadron of the **Baltic Fleet** and then the Mediterranean Squadron, a role he completed in 1901. In February 1904, Vice Admiral Birilev was appointed chief of staff of the **Kronstadt** naval base, military governor of Kronstadt, chief of staff of the **Baltic Fleet**, and director of the Baltic Sea region naval defenses. He was promoted to admiral in 1905, and in May that year he left for **Vladivostok**, where he officially assumed command of the Pacific Fleet, and was supposed to receive command of the incoming **Second Pacific Squadron** in the aftermath of its long voyage. Birilev heard about the fiasco in the **battle of Tsushima** while traveling on the **Trans-Siberian Railway** to Vladivostok. He immediately cabled the tsar a request to return to the capital, as the naval campaign had finished. The tsar granted his wish after merely two months of command over the sparse remnants of the First and Second Pacific Squadrons in Vladivostok. Birilev subsequently returned to **St. Petersburg** and was appointed navy minister instead of **Fedor Avelan** in July 1905. He held this position until January 1907, and during his tenure he sought with limited suc-

cess to rebuild the Imperial Russian Navy and restore its confidence in the aftermath of the Russo–Japanese War.

BJORKO, TREATY OF (1905). Agreement signed between **Russia** and **Germany** in the final stages of the Russo–Japanese War in an attempt to create an alliance between the two nations. It was signed on 24 July 1905 by German Kaiser **William II** and Russian Tsar **Nicholas II** during an exchange of courtesy visits to each other's yachts moored off Björkö, southern **Finland**. It was considered an abortive exercise in personal diplomacy on the part of William II following recent diplomatic developments in Europe, and a reflection of the tsar's weakness resulting from Russia's successive defeats, the conquest of Sakhalin, and the **Revolution of 1905**. The agreement aimed to create a Russo–German defensive alliance against attack by any other power in Europe. The agreement was opposed by German Chancellor Bernhard Bülow, as well as by Russian Foreign Minister **Vladimir Lamsdorf**. The latter did not want to alienate Russia's ally, **France**, on whose financial aid Russia depended.

BLACK DRAGON SOCIETY. *See* KOKURYÛKAI.

BLACK SEA FLEET. One of the three fleets of the **Imperial Russian Navy** at the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War. The Russians first reached the Black Sea in the ninth century, and on several occasions in the next two centuries used it as a sea route to attack Constantinople. In 1695, in the reign of Peter the Great, **Russia** began two centuries of naval struggle against the Ottoman empire that focused on the Black Sea. As Russia became more involved in European politics from the reign of Catherine II, any ruler who recognized the role of naval power also was forced to consider the importance of the Dardanelles, the sole outlet from the Black Sea to the Mediterranean. Control of the straits became a major factor of Russian policy, and during the Crimean War, Russia indeed advanced toward the straits.

Although Russia made use of its Black Sea Fleet only in the first stages of that war, the Treaty of Paris of 1856 denied it the right to maintain a fleet in the Black Sea, except for small coastguard vessels. Russia, however, renounced this provision in 1870 and recommenced naval activity in the Black Sea. During the Russo–Turkish War of

1877–1878, the Black Sea Fleet was used mainly for transporting troops, **mine** laying, and **torpedo** attacks despite its inferiority to the Turks. Thereafter the rebuilding of the fleet continued in earnest, first with small vessels but in the 1890s with **battleships**. During the Russo–Japanese War, **Turkey** did not allow the passage of Russian warships, thereby making this fleet irrelevant to the naval struggle with **Japan**. Its role, in fact, was rather detrimental to the Russian war effort as it was highly prominent in the **Revolution of 1905**, when a mutiny erupted on the ship *Pamiat' Azova* in the **Baltic Fleet**, followed by the notorious **Potemkin Mutiny**.

BLOCKADE OF PORT ARTHUR. *See* PORT ARTHUR, NAVAL BLOCKADE OF.

BLOODY SUNDAY [KROVAVOE VOSKRESENIE] (1905). Mass procession that took place in **St. Petersburg** on 22 January 1905 and turned into a massacre. It is considered one of the crucial events leading to the **Revolution of 1905** in **Russia** during the Russo–Japanese War. It began as a public demonstration prepared by the Assembly of Russian Factory and Mill Workers of St. Petersburg, a labor organization patronized by the authorities. It was led by an Orthodox priest, Father **Georgii Gapon**, for the purpose of seeking imperial intercession in a strike that paralyzed the capital. The strike stemmed from a local dispute precipitated by the dismissal of several members of the Assembly by the management of the Putilov works. Despite some pressure from the authorities, the Assembly voted to call a strike at the plant, and this was joined by several other plants. As the limited conflict developed into a general protest, Gapon proposed a mass religious procession on Sunday to present Tsar **Nicholas II** at the Winter Palace with a petition and gain his support for the workers. Fearing a violent reaction by the authorities, Gapon endeavored to organize as large a procession as possible, whereas the authorities, determined to prevent the event, rushed additional troops to the capital.

Singing and holding various religious symbols and portraits of Russian rulers, processions began to advance from different directions to the bridges across the Neva. At that stage, policemen often preceded the marchers and cleared traffic before them, but government forces halted four large processions. Frustrated and provoked

by revolutionary speeches, some demonstrators constructed a number of barricades; during skirmishes with the military, the first casualties fell. On Troitskaia Square the commanding officer of the military ordered his troops to open fire on the crowd, who consequently began to flee and were chased by charging cavalry. The largest procession was led by Gapon at the Narva Branch, but it too was blocked by government troops. Two volleys fired into the air failed to move the crowd, and then the demonstrators ran en masse at the line of infantry, who lowered their rifles and fired at them point blank.

In the panic that ensued Gapon was knocked down and many were hurt. Still, most of the crowd remained in the square, hoping to attract the attention of the tsar. Another unit fired two volleys into the crowd, and news of the events enraged the masses gathered in the streets. But at this stage the revolutionaries were still unprepared to take advantage of the situation. In the aftermath, official figures stated that the casualties included 130 dead and several hundred wounded, while some estimates cite 1,000 killed and 4,000 wounded. In the following days, news of the massacre of unarmed demonstrators caused a wave of strikes and disorder throughout Russia, and the Revolution of 1905 began to unfold.

BOER WAR. The first significant military conflict of the 20th century, preceding the Russo–Japanese War. It is the name given to the South African War fought in 1899–1902 between the British and the Boer descendants of Dutch settlers in southern Africa. The war was caused by the resentment of the Boers, under the leadership of Paul Kruger, at the colonial policy of Joseph Chamberlain, which they feared would deprive the Transvaal of its independence. Kruger hoped for sympathetic support in Europe, especially from **Germany**, but he failed to distinguish between encouragement and armed intervention. The war can be divided into three main phases. In the first phase, from October 1899 to January 1900, the Boers made a series of military gains on the borders of Cape Colony and Natal. In the second phase, from February to August 1900, the British mounted counter-offensives leading to the relief of the garrisons and the occupation of the Boer capital, Pretoria. The final stage, from September 1900 to May 1902, was characterized by guerrilla warfare. The war was ended by the Treaty of Vereeniging signed in May 1902. Although

this is often mentioned together with the Russo–Japanese War as the two wars of the early 20th century, or as two "colonial wars," there were very few similarities between the two campaigns.

BOGATYR. Russian protected **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was one of four ships of the *Bogatyr* class and served in the **Pacific Fleet** at the outbreak of the war. She suffered extensive damage and ran aground near **Vladivostok** on 15 May 1904. She was scrapped in 1922 to provide spare parts for another ship of its class, the *Kagul*.

Technical data: Builder: AG Vulkan, Stettin, Germany, 1898–1902; Displ.: 6,645t; LBD: 134.00×16.60×6.29m [440×54.5×21ft]; Machinery: 16 Normand boilers, 2-shaft VTE, 23,000ihp; Speed: 23kt; Fuel: 720/1,100t coal; Armament: 12×152mm/45 [6in.] (2×2, 8×1), 12×11pdr, 8×3pdr, 2×1pdr, 2×381mm [15in.] TT sub; Armor: deck: 76mm [3in.], CT: 152mm [6in.], casemates: 76mm [3in.]; Comp.: 576–589.

BOGDANOV, ALEKSEI FEDOROVICH (1868–1904). Russian army officer who served as civil administration official in **Manchuria** in charge of the military security of the railroads. He began service in the Imperial Guards regiment in **St. Petersburg** and graduated from the General Staff Academy in 1896. Following the Russian invasion of Manchuria in 1900, he was appointed military commissar of **Heilungkiang** Province and monitored Chinese military activities in northern Manchuria. Bogdanov opposed by force Chinese settlement of lands close to the Russian railroads. In one such skirmish near **Harbin** with Chinese insurgents during the Russo–Japanese War, he was killed, on 19 October 1904.

BORODINO. Russian **battleship** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was one of five ships of the newly built but ill-fated *Borodino* class, and like the ***Tsessarevich***, the ships of her class had their armor altered and reduced in places. At the outbreak of the war the *Borodino* served in the **Baltic Fleet**, taking part in the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet** as well as the **battle of Tsushima**, where she was hit by a 305-millimeter [12-inch] salvo from the Japanese battleship ***Fuji*** that detonated her magazines. She sank, and 830 crewmen perished.

Technical data: Builder: New Admiralty, St. Petersburg, Russia, 1899–1904; Displ.: 13,516t; LBD: 121.00×23.22×7.97m [397×76×26ft]; Machinery: 20 Belleville boilers, 2-shaft VTE, 16,300ihp; Speed: 17.8kt; Fuel: 1,520t coal; Armament: 4×305mm/40 [12in.] (2×2), 12×152mm/45 [6in.] (6×2), 20×11pdr, 20×3pdr, 4×381mm [15in.] TT (2AW 2sub); Armor: KC, belt: 152–191mm [6–7.5in.], belt ends: 102–146mm [4–5.75in.], turrets: 102–254mm [4–10in.], secondary turrets: 152mm [6in.], 11pdr battery: 76mm [3in.], CT: 203mm [8in.]; Comp.: 835–850.

BOT'YANOV, MIKHAIL IVANOVICH (1835–1916). Russian army officer who served as commander of the **Third Manchurian Army** in the final stages of the Russo–Japanese War. He graduated from the Navy College in 1852 and served with the **Black Sea Fleet**. He participated in the defense of Sevastopol during the Crimean War (1853–1856) and subsequently was transferred to the **Imperial Russian Army** and served in Finland and Zhitomir Regiments. He took part in the Caucasus War and in 1867 was promoted to colonel and appointed commander of the Kabardin Regiment. Bot'yanov was in charge of introducing rapid-fire weapons, such as **machine guns**, and new tactics to the army. In May 1905 he was appointed commander of the Third Manchurian Army, replacing General **Aleksandr Bilderling**, and took part in organizing a new line of defense near Hsipingkai [*Shiheigai*] in the aftermath of the retreat from **Mukden**. He retired in 1911.

BOXER UPRISING (1899–1900). Peasant uprising in northern **China**, which served as a catalyst for Russian expansion to **Manchuria** in the years preceding the Russo–Japanese War. Chinese resentment at growing European domination of China in the latter half of the 1890s led to the establishment of an anti-foreigner organization called "the Society of the Righteous Harmonious Fists," which was sarcastically nicknamed "Boxers" in the West. Once these rebelling peasants won the approval of the Ching [Qing] Dynasty and were allowed into the capital, Beijing, in June 1900, they pillaged it and laid siege to the foreign quarter after killing a Japanese legate and a German minister. Seven European powers joined forces to suppress the uprising. **Russia** advanced its forces to Manchuria on the pretext of protecting its

property, whereas **Japan** consented to dispatch military aid that matched the forces sent by all the other nations combined. The 18,000 strong force conquered Beijing and released the foreign quarter after 55 days of siege. Consequently the Manchu throne signed the Boxer Protocol in 1901, executing high officials responsible and paying reparations in the sum of $333 million. In the aftermath of the uprising, foreign embassies were henceforth allowed to use their own troops for protection, but Russia defied the protocol and refused to withdraw its forces from Manchuria. The indemnity paid delayed China's efforts at modernization, leaving it vulnerable to further territorial and financial exploitation during and after the Russo–Japanese War and leading to the fall of the Manchu dynasty in 1911.

BOYARIN*.** Russian protected **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was the only ship of the *Boyarin* class and considered among the best Russian cruisers. She served in the **Pacific Fleet** at the outbreak of the war, and on 12 February 1904 left **Port Arthur** to investigate the loss of the **minelayer *Enisei. Striking a **mine** laid earlier by the *Enisei* off **Dalny**, she was abandoned by her crew. Drifting during the night, *Boyarin* hit a second mine and sank the next day.

Technical data: Builder: Burmeister and Wain, Denmark, 1899–1902; Displ.: 3,200t; LBD: 105.16×12.50×4.88m [345×41×16ft]; Machinery: 16 Belleville boilers, 2-shaft VTE, 11,500ihp; Speed: 22kt; Fuel: 600t coal; Armament: 6×120mm/45 [4.7in.], 8×3pdr, 4×1pdr, 5×381mm [15in.] TT; Armor: deck: 32–76mm [1.25–3in.], CT: 76mm; Comp.: 266.

BRITAIN. *See* GREAT BRITAIN.

BRITISH ROYAL NAVY. *See* ROYAL NAVY, BRITISH.

BRUSILOV, ALEKSEI ALEKSEEVICH (1853–1927). Russian army officer who took part in the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading figure in the **Imperial Russian Army** during World War I. He was born in 1853 in Tiflis (Tbilisi), studied in the elite Corps of Pages, and served as a **cavalry** officer in the Russo–Turkish War of 1877–1878. During the Russo–Japanese War, Brusilov served in the **Manchurian**

Army, and in 1906 he was promoted to major general. In 1908 Brusilov was given command of the 24th Army Corps posted in the Warsaw Military District. Upon the outbreak of World War I, he was appointed commander of the Russian Eighth Army and led the successful invasion of Galicia in 1914 and the retreat of 1915. In 1916 he was appointed commander of the southwest Russian front, and in this capacity he launched his famous offensive, primarily against the Austrians, in which he captured a quarter of a million men, and indirectly encouraged Romania to enter the war on the Allied side. He was appointed as commander-in-chief of the Russian Armies by the provisional government in 1917 but soon was dismissed. Brusilov was appointed by the Soviet authorities as an advisor to the Red Army in 1920 during the Russo–Polish campaign and subsequently served as inspector of cavalry in 1923–1924. He is one of the few officers of the Imperial Russian Army who continued to enjoy a strong reputation for his combat ability well into the Soviet period.

BURNETT, CHARLES JOHN (1843–1915). British army officer who served as senior **military observer** during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in Australia and graduated from the Staff College in 1874. Burnett took part in the Ashanti War of 1873–1874 and the Afghan War of 1879–1880. After serving as assistant adjutant general in Bombay in 1880–1886, he was appointed commander of the Royal Irish Rifles in 1887, and assistant adjutant general at Aldershot in 1890. Burnett was then appointed assistant quartermaster general in the Headquarters War Office, where he served from 1893 to 1895. Following his promotion to major general in 1895, he became general officer commanding of the Eastern District, and quartermaster general of the Headquarters in 1898. He served as general officer commanding in Poona in 1898–1904 and was promoted to lieutenant general in 1905. During the Russo–Japanese War, he served as senior British representative with the **Imperial Japanese Army** in Manchuria from February to September 1905. Burnett was appointed general officer commanding of the Western District in 1906. He retired in 1910.

BUSHIDO [*BUSHIDÔ*]. The ethical code of the ruling samurai class that came into use during the Edo period (1600–1868) and had certain repercussions on the Japanese fighting spirit during the

Russo–Japanese War. Literally "the way of the warrior," bushido was suppressed by the elimination of the samurai class and the modernization and Westernization process during the 1870s, but the term came back into use in the 1880s as an embodiment of patriotism and devotion to the emperor. In the following decades it was kept alive by officers of the **Imperial Japanese Army** and the **Imperial Japanese Navy**. The term received some attention in the West with the publication of **Nitobe Inazô**'s book *Bushido: The Soul of Japan* in 1899. During the Russo–Japanese War, the book gained much popularity, especially in the **United States**, and some even considered bushido one of the reasons for **Japan**'s victory. It was often interpreted in simple terms, notably its emphasis that a soldier should aim to die rather than face capture, and that surrender is shameful. During the 1930s it was fully incorporated into the ethos of Japanese militarism, but after World War II it was negatively associated with imperialism and anti-democratic ideals.

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CASUALTIES. Losses of military personnel on active service through death, injury, sickness, or becoming **prisoners of war** or being missing in action, etc. While neither **Japan** nor **Russia** released entirely reliable information regarding the number of casualties in the Russo–Japanese War, the various estimates of the military fatalities in this conflict seem to coincide. While the total number of dead in the war seems to fluctuate slightly according to the various sources, it is often cited at around 130,000–150,000, of which the Japanese lost about 88,000. About 70 percent of the total number of casualties on both sides died in action or of wounds, while the remaining 30 percent died of disease.

The **Imperial Japanese Army** suffered the greatest losses in the war, which according to the Japanese Bureau of Military Statistics consisted of 87,484 fatalities: 49,013 killed in action, 14,427 who died of wounds sustained in action, 23,092 who died of disease, and 902 who died due to miscellaneous causes. Another Japanese source cites 81,280 dead, of whom 60,083 died in action (among them 1,926 officers) and 21,197 died of disease (among them 278 officers). An-

other intimation of total Japanese fatalities is the 88,131 spirits enshrined at the Yasukuni Shrine in a ceremony in 1906, of which 85,206 belonged to the **Imperial Japanese Army** and 2,925 to the **Imperial Japanese Navy**. The breakdown done by the Japanese Bureau of Military Statistics following the major military campaigns included 5,577 dead in the **battle of Liaoyang**, 4,096 in the **battle of Sha-ho**, 1,834 in the **battle of Sandepu**, 16,404 in the **battle of Mukden**, and 13,916 in the **siege of Port Arthur**; altogether 46,423 dead and 153,623 wounded in these campaigns alone.

As for Russia, German sources reported 43,300 dead, of whom 28,800 were killed in action, 5,200 died of wounds, and 9,300 died of disease. Another source (Gaedke) reported a total loss of 71,453 men, of whom 52,800 were killed or died of wounds, and 18,830 died of disease. Although massive, the casualties figures of the Russo–Japanese War seem minor in comparison with those of World War I, in which common estimates put military fatalities at about 9.8–12 million. The difference stems from the short span of the earlier war, the number of troops involved, and the character of the warfare.

CAVALRY. Combat troops mounted on horses. Their importance in the Russo–Japanese War was limited and often marginal. After a millennium in which mounted troops were considered the masters of offensive warfare, the Russo–Japanese War marks a turning point in the history of cavalry; thereafter this type of warfare was to disappear rapidly from the modern battlefield. In many respects the limited contribution of cavalry during the Russo–Japanese War presaged its demise during World War I. The European armies, however, did not learn this particular lesson, nor the general lesson regarding the leading role of defense in modern warfare. Consequently they started World War I with huge cavalry forces without any effective alternative until the invention of the tank. While both belligerents in the Russo–Japanese War used cavalry forces, the **Imperial Russian Army** employed about three times more cavalry units than the **Imperial Japanese Army**.

On the eve of war the Russian cavalry numbered more than 80,000 and comprised 25 cavalry divisions, including two Guards, 17 Army, and six **Cossack** cavalry detachments. The Russian cavalry in East Asia consisted mostly of Cossacks, with each cavalry division consisting of

3,400 dragoons trained in mounted and dismounted combat. Some divisions had their own **artillery** support, usually 12 horse-drawn artillery guns. The Russian cavalry forces in **Manchuria** were organized in December 1904 in one huge Cavalier Corps. They were commanded initially by Lieutenant General **Pavel Mishchenko** until February 1905, then briefly by Lieutenant General **Pavel Rennenkampf** during February, by Lieutenant General Vladimir Grekov until March, and then again by Mishchenko until September 1905. The tactics of the Russian cavalry were revised several times during the 50 years prior to the war, their equipment was modernized, switching from lances to **rifles** and **bayonets**, and dragoon training was instituted combining infantry training with cavalry tactics. Nevertheless, at the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, they were still guided by outdated notions of attack, with scant regard for the technological and tactical advances achieved during the 19th century. Foremost among these advances was the widespread implementation of **machine guns** in the battlefield, the much more extensive use of artillery as support during battle, and the change from close to dispersed infantry formations, which made the infantry an unsuitable target for formation cavalry attacks.

The Japanese cavalry was much smaller than its Russian foe. Its troops carried the **Arisaka Type 30 rifle**, a sword, and the **Type 26 revolver**. Each man carried 90 rounds of ammunition and was expected to fight on foot as well as on horseback. Each Japanese cavalry brigade had six **Hotchkiss machine guns** as close-fire support. Before the war, Japanese cavalry had been the butt of jokes and ridicule on the part of a number of foreign **military observers**, and even serious experts did not regard it as having any special qualities or as maintaining anything higher than mediocre standards. During the war, however, Japanese cavalry units, such as the one commanded by prince **Kan'in Kotohito**, performed rather well, usually being in close touch with their infantry units.

In the evolution of cavalry warfare, the Russo–Japanese War is noted for the absence of the lance and sword, which were replaced by the rifle. The few achievements of the Russian cavalry were made through the effect of firearms. However, the cavalry units of both armies had little significance for the overall outcome of the Russo–Japanese War, and their basic weaknesses were quickly demonstrated. The Russian cavalry often lacked fighting spirit, as

recorded by General **Aleksei Kuropatkin** in his memoirs: "Until cavalry is educated to feel that it should fight as obstinately as infantry, the money expended on our mounted arm is wasted." Still, spirit was not the only cause. Horses were costly to maintain and the transport and effectiveness of cavalry was insignificant in siege warfare, such as in the **siege of Port Arthur**, or **trench warfare,** like that which developed before the **battle of Mukden**.

The European nations failed to recognize the limited nature of the cavalry's accomplishments in the war, and at the start of World War I, they all disposed of large bodies of cavalry organized in separate divisions. Indeed, during World War I, only on two occasions did cavalry units have any decisive effect: in Palestine and in the **battle of Tannenberg**. Consequently only Germany recognized the twilight of cavalry and thereafter relied on tanks and armored cars.

CAVIGLIA, ENRICO (1862–1945). Italian army officer and statesman who served as a **military observer** during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in Finale Ligure, Savona Province, studied at the Military Academy of Turin, and began his service in the **artillery** in 1884. Caviglia served in Eritrea in 1888–1889 and again in 1896–1897 and was promoted to major in 1903. That year he was sent to **Japan** and was a military observer in **Manchuria** on the Japanese side. Caviglia remained in East Asia until 1911 and served as military attaché in **Tokyo** and Beijing. After returning to Italy, having crossed Asia on horseback, he fought in the Libyan campaign of 1912. During World War I, Caviglia became commander of a brigade in 1915, of a division in 1916, of a corps in 1917, and of an army in 1918. Two years later he was appointed minister of war for a short time. In 1920 he evicted the fascist prophet Gabriel D'annunzio from Fiume (present-day Rijeka), and in 1926 he was promoted to marshal of Italy. In this role he became a major military figure while remaining close to King Victor Emmanuel II. Caviglia was known for his anti-fascist sentiments and was involved in the coup against Benito Mussolini during World War II and in the Italian surrender in 1943.

CHEMULPO [INCHON, *JINSEN*]. Korean port city and a site of Japanese **landing operations** during the Russo–Japanese War. It is located in the Korean peninsula (in present-day South **Korea**) near

the mouth of the Han River, southwest of the nearby capital, **Seoul**. It had been a fishing port since the Yi dynasty and became one of three treaty ports that were opened to the West in 1883. It was consequently developed for international commercial purposes, and it hosted a variety of foreign warships that protected the interests of their respective nations. In 1900 Chemulpo became connected to Seoul by rail, the first line in Korea. On the eve of the Russo–Japanese War, the foreign presence in the port included two Russian warships and one Japanese. On 8 February 1904, Japanese troops of the **First Army** landed at Chemulpo, and throughout the next day it witnessed the dramatic naval engagement known as the **battle of Chemulpo**. Following the war, the port was modernized and rebuilt to handle tidal differences. United Nations troops landing in the port in 1950 crippled the North Korean military forces in Seoul, and following this conflict Chemulpo underwent rapid development. It currently enjoys the status of a special city with provincial administrative status.

CHEMULPO, BATTLE OF [*JINSENCHÛ KAISEN*] (1904). The opening naval engagement of the Russo–Japanese War. It was joined off the Korean port city of **Chemulpo** on 9 February 1904 and led to the Japanese takeover of the city and subsequently of all the Korean peninsula. The battle was part of a concerted attack by the **Imperial Japanese Navy** against the **Pacific Fleet**, sounding the opening flourish of the war. The Japanese naval task force sent to Chemulpo targeted the Russian **cruiser *Variag*** and the **gunvessel *Koreets***, which lay at anchor in the harbor and were the sum total of the Russian presence in **Korea**. The force, commanded by Rear Admiral **Uryû Sotokichi**, consisted initially of four cruisers from the **Second Fleet**. Aiming first to block the harbor, it stopped the *Koreets* on the afternoon of 8 February as she was leaving for **Port Arthur**. After she returned to the harbor, the *Koreets* reported that the cruiser ***Asama*** had fired three **torpedoes** at her and she admitted to firing two shots at the Japanese. It is unclear whether the *Koreets* was the first to fire, but this was certainly the first engagement in the war.

Chemulpo harbor was occupied at the time by warships of various nationalities, thus making it a neutral port. Under protest from HMS *Talbot*, along with the French cruiser *Pascal*, the Italian cruiser *Elba*,

the USS *Vicksburg*, and a U.S. Navy hospital ship, Uryû declared he would not fire on the Russians if they did not interfere with **landing operations** scheduled to start that night. The Russians virtually consented, and at 20:00 three Japanese transports began to disembark a force of 2,500 troops into the port. When the disembarkation was completed in the early hours of the next morning, the Japanese cruisers ***Chiyoda***, ***Takachiho***, and ***Akashi***, together with five **torpedo boats,** entered the port and took up positions around the two Russian warships. They delivered the Russians an ultimatum, ordering them to leave the port by noon. The ultimatum was circulated among the other vessels in the port and their respective consulates, warning them to stay clear of firing should the Russians stay. After a quick conference the HMS *Talbot* sailed out of the port to deliver Uryû a letter signed by the captains of all the ships in the port except the USS *Vicksburg*, condemning the imminent violation of the **neutrality** of the port.

The letter did not affect Uryû's actions, and his naval force, consisting of the *Asama*, ***Naniwa***, *Chiyoda*, *Takachiho*, *Akashi*, and ***Niitaka***, and the torpedo boats, took up positions about 15 kilometers [8 miles] out of the harbor. At 11:00 the Russian warships, outgunned and outnumbered, proceeded down the channel toward the Yellow Sea and out in the direction of their awaiting enemy. The Japanese squadron concentrated their fire on the *Variag* and wreaked havoc on her. She was hit 10 to 12 times, some of the strikes below the waterline, and she listed to port. Her masts and two of her four funnels were down, and her superstructure was largely damaged. Worse still, she was unable now to get past the blockading squadron; she therefore returned to her original anchorage together with the *Koreets*. While no Japanese casualties were reported, the *Variag* suffered 41 dead and 62 wounded out of a crew of close to 600. Many of the casualities were from the gun crews of the unshielded 152mm [6in.] deck guns of the ship.

Finding himself in a completely hopeless situation, blockaded by overwhelming Japanese power, the Russian commanding officer, Captain **Vsevolod Rudnev**, ordered his cruiser and the *Koreets* to be destroyed. On 9 February 1904, at 16:00, the *Koreets* was blown up, and in the following hours the *Variag* was scuttled. The two ships were sunk to the sound of *Elba*'s band playing the Russian anthem.

The crews were treated by the Japanese medical corps and were permitted to return to **Russia** as long as they undertook not to take part in the war. They were taken aboard the HMS *Talbot*, the French *Pascal*, and the Italian *Elba* anchored in the port. The Russian transport *Sungari*, which lay at anchor inside the harbor, was set on fire and burned; the next day she sank. The dramatic moments of the scuttling were commemorated in folksongs and popular prints (*lubki*) in Russia as a token of heroic patriotism.

CHINA. Country neighboring **Russia** and **Japan** and the site of most of the land battles during the Russo–Japanese War. The Qing dynasty, which had ruled China since 1644, was in a prolonged state of crisis that threatened its rule. This crisis, which had emerged in full force in the latter half of the 19th century, had arisen from internal and external causes. Internally, China suffered from a corrupt bureaucracy and overgrowth of its population of over 400 million. Externally, China was challenged by the imperial powers, especially **Great Britain**. In 1839–1842 China became involved in the Opium War, fought with Great Britain over trade rights and the importing of opium. Following its defeat, China was forced to sign a series of unequal treaties. These granted the British such rights as open ports and extraterritoriality, as well as control over the island of Hong Kong, and they opened the way to similar treaties with other European powers. In 1856 China lost another battle that was concluded in the Treaty of Tientsin [Tianjin]. This expanded European commercial rights and legalized opium. Between 1860 and 1894, the number of open ports and Catholic missionaries gradually increased, with occasional crises ending with new concessions for the Europeans.

In 1894–1895, Chinese forces were defeated by Japan in the **First Sino–Japanese War**, and consequently China witnessed the beginning of rapid change. **Korea** had long been in an ill-defined position of vassalage to China, but after the war the latter recognized the independence of the former, and ceded Taiwan [Formosa], the adjoining Pescadore Islands, and the **Liaotung peninsula** in **Manchuria** to Japan, as well as paying a high indemnity. The victory of Japan was the signal for a scramble among the powers for leases, concessions, and special privileges. Russian, French, British, and German bankers contested for shares in the loans with which China was to pay the

Japanese indemnity. In 1896 Russia secured China's consent to carry the **Trans-Siberian Railway** directly across Manchuria in what became the Chinese Eastern Railway. Other powers did not remain idle. **France** secured railway and mining privileges in China, Great Britain demanded and received concessions on the Burmese frontier, and German forces seized Tsingtao [Qingdao] on the Shantung [Shandong] peninsula in 1897. The following year Russia occupied **Port Arthur** and **Dalny** and leased a portion of the Liaotung peninsula for 25 years. Soon after, France leased Kwangchow Bay in Kwangtung while Great Britain acquired **Weihaiwei** and an additional portion of the Kowloon promontory opposite Hong Kong. In 1899 Russia and Great Britain agreed not to interfere in each other's preserves, while the **United States** declared its **Open-Door Policy**, to which all the powers assented, although Russia did so with slight reservations.

Chinese endeavors to save the nation from being taken over by foreign powers began with moderate reforms in 1898, but in September that year the dowager empress intervened in an attempt to return to the conservative status quo. At the same time peasants in Shantung [Shandong], who were members of secret societies, began a popular attempt to oust the foreigners. Their local violence soon turned into an international affair known as the **Boxer Uprising**. The powers sent an expedition to subdue the uprising and won a large indemnity of $330 million in September 1901. Late in 1900 an agreement between China and Russia promised the latter extensive control in southern Manchuria and was modified only under protest by the other powers.

During the Russo–Japanese War, China was merely a helpless spectator, and while both Russia and Japan promised to respect its **neutrality**, most of the war was fought on Chinese territory. In the aftermath of the war, Russia transferred to Japan its rights on the Liaotung peninsula, and ceded to it the southern section of the **South Manchurian Railway**, all, in fact, within Chinese territories. Both belligerents agreed to withdraw their troops from Manchuria, to use the railways in Manchuria, except those on the Liaotung peninsula, only for economic and industrial and not for strategic purposes, and not to obstruct the principles of the Open-Door Policy. In the **Treaty of Peking**, which Japan forced China to sign on 22 December 1905,

the latter confirmed the **Treaty of Portsmouth**, but in secret protocols attached to it, Japan sought later to close the door in Manchuria to other foreign railways. From the Chinese perspective the war merely substituted Japan for Russia in southern Manchuria. With the annexation of Korea in 1910, Japan moved its boundary to the southeastern edge of Manchuria and strengthened its interests in **Kirin** and **Liaoning**, the southern two of the three provinces.

The Japanese victory had several immediate internal repercussions for China as well, which made 1905 a turning point in Chinese history. First, the Qing dynasty approved the need for governmental reforms and allowed the study of foreign constitutions. Soon after came the decision to cancel the traditional examination system for government candidates, thereby eroding the whole Confucian political structure. The same year, **Sun Yixian** [Sun Yat-Sen] established the first modern political party. The reforms, however, were insufficient, and the following years were characterized by successive unsuccessful armed attacks against the regime, culminating in a declaration of independence of the southern and central provinces by the end of 1911. Thus, the war not only brought about the Revolution of 1911 but it carried the seeds of the crucial confrontation between China and Japan in the 1930s, which initially concerned Manchuria but evolved into a war across the entire territory of China in 1937–1945.

CHINCHOU [CHINHSIEN; *KINSHÛ*]. Chinese city in **Liaoning** Province, **Manchuria**, that was taken over by Japanese forces during the Russo–Japanese War. It is located on the Chinchou Bay, in the vicinity of **Nanshan** Hill, in a narrow area dividing the southern half of the **Liaotung peninsula** from the northern part of the **Kwantung peninsula**. At the outbreak of the war the city was occupied by a small garrison of Russian infantry. Early in the morning of 26 May 1904, the city was attacked by the **Japanese Second Army** under the command of General **Oku Yasukata**, who regarded the takeover of Chinchou as the first stage of the **battle of Nanshan**. Consisting of three divisions, his force attacked the city from the northeast at 05:00, but by noon they were repulsed. Oku resumed his attack at 14:00, and four hours later the remaining Russian defenders retreated southward. The Russian **casualties** were 1,403 men, whereas the Japanese lost 4,204 men.

CHINESE EASTERN RAILWAY. A shortcut in the **Trans-Siberian Railway** through northern **Manchuria** that enhanced Russian interests in the region before the Russo–Japanese War. In 1896 **Russia** secured from **China** the right to extend its Trans-Siberian Railway network all the way to **Vladivostok** through northern Manchuria, instead of completing the construction of the longer and more complicated all-Russian Amur section along the Amur and Ussuri Rivers. This right served as an impetus for growing Russian economic interests in Manchuria and interference in Chinese politics. The Chinese government provided the right of way to the Russians through a Russo–Chinese Bank which controlled the railroad. In 1897 construction plans for the Chinese Eastern Railway were finalized, and the line was completed under Russian supervision by late 1901. Regular service began in 1903.

In 1898 Chinese privileges granted to Russia were extended to include the construction of another line called the **South Manchurian Railway**, which was to connect the newly leased **Port Arthur** with the Chinese Eastern Railway. These railways allowed Russia to spread its influence further over Manchuria. Following the Russo–Japanese War, Russia realized that the line was vulnerable to surrounding Japanese forces and constructed the Amur section from 1908 to 1916. This substitute line allowed the Soviet government, in the aftermath of the Japanese conquest of Manchuria in 1931, to sell the Chinese Eastern Railway to Manchukuo, the Japanese puppet-state. Consequently it fell under the control of the South Manchurian Railway Company, but after the defeat of Japan in 1945, it was transferred eventually to Chinese hands.

CHINHSIEN. *See* CHINCHOU.

CHITOSE*.** Japanese protected **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was one of two ships of the *Chitose* class and almost identical externally to the ***Takasago class. She served in the 3rd Battle Division of the **First Fleet** at the outbreak of the war, and after taking part at the **battle of the Yellow Sea**, she joined in the chase and destruction of the Russian cruiser ***Novik***. Damaged in the **battle of Tsushima**, the *Chitose* was later disarmed and served for coastal defense. She was eventually discarded and sunk as a target vessel in 1931.

Technical data: Builder: Union Iron Works, San Francisco, United States, 1897–1899; Displ.: 4,760t; LBD: 114.90×15.00×5.37m [376.5×49×17.5ft]; Machinery: 2-shaft reciprocating VTE, 15,000ihp; Speed: 22.5kt; Fuel: 350/1,000t coal; Armament: 2×203mm [8in.] (2×1), 10×120mm [4.7in.] QF (10×1), 12×12pdr QF (12×1), 6×2.5pdr QF (6×1), 4×457mm [18in.] TT; Armor: deck: 63–112mm [2.5–4.5in.], gun shields: 203mm [8in.], 120mm [4.7in.]; Comp.: 434.

CHIYODA*.** Japanese armored **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. The only ship of the *Chiyoda* class, she was of an early armored-cruiser design intended for commerce raiding, and served in the 6th Division of the **Third Fleet** at the outbreak of the war. Earlier she had taken part in the **First Sino–Japanese War** and then was rerated as a third-class cruiser. Before the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, the *Chiyoda* anchored in **Chemulpo** for a 10-month sojourn, protecting Japanese interests in the vicinity of the Korean capital. On 7 February 1904, however, she slipped her moorings and joined the Japanese forces outside the port, and later took part in the **battle of Chemulpo**, engaging the Russian **gunvessel *Koreets. On 27 July 1904, she hit a **mine** in Takhe harbor but was towed to **Dalny**, repaired, and ultimately fought in the **battle of Tsushima**. In 1920 she was disarmed and used as a submarine depot ship, and scrapped in 1927.

Technical data: Builder: John Brown, Clydebank, Great Britain, 1888–1891; Displ.: 2,400t; LBD: 94.50×12.98×4.27m [310×42×14ft]; Machinery: 2-shaft VTE, 12 boilers, 5,600ihp; Speed: 21kt; Fuel: 420t coal; Range 6,000nm on 10kt; Armament: 10×120mm/40 [4.7in.], 14×47mm/40 QF, 3×356mm [14in.] TT; Armor: chrome nickel, belt: 114mm [4.5in.], deck: 25–37mm [1–1.5in.]; Comp.: 350.

COMBINED FLEET, JAPANESE. *See* FLEET, JAPANESE COMBINED.

COMMUNICATIONS. The years before the Russo–Japanese War were characterized by rapid development in military communications, especially in the naval arena. On the eve of the war, both navies

installed **radio** telegraph equipment in all ships larger than a **destroyer**. Representatives of the **Imperial Japanese Navy** observed the capabilities of radio telegraph in the **United States** in 1897 and sent an urgent memorandum to purchase the new technology. Since the Marconi wireless system, used at that time by the British **Royal Navy**, was considered too expensive, the Imperial Japanese Navy sought to develop its own system.

Japanese efforts succeeded in 1901 in producing a wireless system with a range of about 130 kilometers [70 miles], and in 1903 it was manufactured as Type 36 radio. During the war the Japanese wireless communications often proved much more effective. While the practical limit was usually about 330 kilometers [180 nautical miles], occasionally Japanese ships intercepted signals transmitted over a distance of as much as 925 kilometers [500 nautical miles]. To allow such reception, some of the Japanese **battleships** carried a very tall antenna, rising almost 43 meters [140 feet] above the deck. The **war correspondents** of the London *Times* also used radio, and transmitted the latest news of the war from a chartered vessel, the *Haimun*, to a station in **Weihaiwei**. The Imperial Japanese Navy did not rely on radio transmissions because of the range but also for fear of interception by the Russians. For this reason it laid an underwater cable from **Tsushima** to some of its naval bases overseas, such as Chinhae, Hakkô anchorage, and other locations on the west coast of **Korea**.

The Russians could not enjoy similar facilities since, at an early stage of the hostilities, the Japanese cut the underwater telegraph cable that connected **Port Arthur** with Chefoo [Zhifu]. At the time of the **battle of Tsushima**, both fleets were equipped with wireless systems and even basic jamming equipment, but the Russian naval force was condemned to silence because Vice Admiral **Zinovii Rozhestvenskii** believed that radio transmissions would reveal his location. Jamming was more successful, however, in the case of transmissions from Port Arthur, and the Japanese were able to prevent the Russian consulate in Chefoo from receiving any tangible messages from the fortress. Instead, the besieged Russians resorted to old and risky methods of smuggling coded messages with the help of Chinese junks. In the next decade, military communications evolved substantially and became ubiquitous in naval vessels as well as army headquarters and **artillery** units.

CONQUEST OF SAKHALIN. *See* SAKHALIN, CONQUEST OF.

CORPS, EIGHTH EUROPEAN ARMY. One of the major fighting units of the **Imperial Russian Army** engaged during the Russo–Japanese War. The corps was commanded by Lieutenant General Sergei Mylov from September 1904 to May 1905, and then by Lieutenant General Arkadii Skugarevskii until September 1905. It began to arrive in **Manchuria** in autumn 1904 and took part in the **battle of Mukden**.

CORPS, FIFTH SIBERIAN ARMY. One of the major fighting units of the **Imperial Russian Army** engaged during the Russo–Japanese War. It was commanded by Lieutenant General **Leonid Dembovskii** from June 1904 to September 1905 and comprised the 54th Infantry Division under Major General N. A. Orlov and the 71st Infantry Division under Major General Ekk. It took part in the **battle of Liaoyang** and the **battle of Mukden**.

CORPS, FIRST EUROPEAN ARMY. One of the major fighting units of the **Imperial Russian Army** engaged during the Russo–Japanese War. It arrived in **Manchuria** in mid-September 1904, whereas advanced elements of it arrived in **Mukden** prior to the **battle of Liaoyang**. The corps was commanded by General Baron Feofil Meyendorf from June 1904 to March 1905 and subsequently by General Mikhail von der Launits until September 1905. It was incorporated in the **Second Manchurian Army** and took part in the **battle of Mukden**.

CORPS, FIRST RIFLE ARMY. One of the major fighting units of the **Imperial Russian Army** established in the final stages of the Russo–Japanese War. The corps was commanded by Lieutenant General Nikolai Kutnevich from January to June 1905 and by Lieutenant General Nikolai Fleischer until September 1905 but did not take any significant part in any engagement during the war.

CORPS, FIRST SIBERIAN ARMY. One of the major fighting units of the **Imperial Russian Army** engaged during the Russo–Japanese War. It took part in most of the land engagements during the war but

failed to halt the Japanese advance from **Telissu** to **Mukden**. It was commanded by Lieutenant General Vladimir Sakharov from February to March 1904, by Lieutenant General **Georgii Stakelberg** from March to September, by Lieutenant General **Aleksandr Gerngross** from September to November, again by Stakelberg from November to February 1905, and then again by Gerngross from February to September 1905. This unit was one of the two most engaged Russian corps during the war and it consisted of the 1st East Siberian Rifle Division initially under Gerngross and the 9th East Siberian Rifle Division under Major General **Sergei Gershelman**. It took part in the **battle of Telissu**, the **battle of Tashihchiao**, the **battle of Liaoyang**, the **battle of Sandepu**, and the **battle of Mukden**.

CORPS, FOURTH EUROPEAN ARMY. One of the major fighting units of the **Imperial Russian Army** engaged during the Russo–Japanese War. The corps was commanded by General Ignatii Maslov from December 1904 to September 1905. It arrived in **Manchuria** during the final stage of the war and took part in the **battle of Mukden**.

CORPS, FOURTH SIBERIAN ARMY. One of the major fighting units of the **Imperial Russian Army** engaged during the Russo–Japanese War. It was commanded by Lieutenant General **Nikolai Zarubaev** from February 1904 to September 1905 and comprised the 2nd Siberian Infantry Division under Major General Levestam and the 3rd Siberian Infantry Division under Major General Kossovich. It took part in the **battle of Tashihchiao**, the **battle of Liaoyang**, and the **battle of Mukden**.

CORPS, NINETEENTH EUROPEAN ARMY. One of the major fighting units of the **Imperial Russian Army** established in the final stages of the Russo–Japanese War. The corps was commanded by Lieutenant General Leontii Gaponov from June to September 1905 and did not take part in any major engagement during the war.

CORPS, NINTH EUROPEAN ARMY. One of the major fighting units of the **Imperial Russian Army** established in the final stages of the Russo–Japanese War. The corps was commanded by Lieutenant

General Konstantin de Witte from June to September 1905 and did not take part in any major engagement during the war.

CORPS, SECOND RIFLE ARMY. One of the major fighting units of the **Imperial Russian Army** established in the final stages of the Russo–Japanese War. The corps was commanded by Lieutenant General Nikolai Glebov from May to August 1905 and by Lieutenant General Andrei Selivanov until September 1905 but was too late for any fighting in the war.

CORPS, SECOND SIBERIAN ARMY. One of the major fighting units of the **Imperial Russian Army** engaged during the Russo–Japanese War. It was commanded by Lieutenant General **Mikhail Zasulich** from February 1904 until September 1905 and comprised the 5th East Siberian Rifle Division under Lieutenant General Alekseev and the 1st Siberian Infantry Division under Major General Morozov. It took part in the **battle of Liaoyang** and the **battle of Mukden**.

CORPS, SEVENTEENTH EUROPEAN ARMY. One of the major fighting units of the **Imperial Russian Army** engaged during the Russo–Japanese War. The corps was commanded initially by General **Aleksandr Bilderling** from May to September 1904, then by Lieutenant General Vladimir Volkov until November 1904, again by Bilderling until February 1905, then by Lieutenant General Andrei Selivanov until May 1905, and eventually by Bilderling again until September 1905. It comprised the 3rd Infantry Division under Major General Yanjul, the 35th Infantry Division under Lieutenant General Dobrjinskii, and a corps reserve under Major General Glasko. It took part in the **battle of Liaoyang** and the **battle of Mukden**.

CORPS, SEVENTH SIBERIAN ARMY. One of the major fighting units of the **Imperial Russian Army** established in the final stages of the Russo–Japanese War. The corps was commanded by Lieutenant General **Pavel Rennenkampf** from July to September 1905 and did not take part in any major engagement during the war.

CORPS, SIXTEENTH EUROPEAN ARMY. One of the major fighting units of the **Imperial Russian Army** engaged during the

Russo–Japanese War. The corps was commanded by Lieutenant General Dmitrii Topornin from October 1904 to September 1905 and arrived in **Manchuria** during the final stage of the war, just in time to take part in the **battle of Mukden**.

CORPS, SIXTH SIBERIAN ARMY. One of the major fighting units of the **Imperial Russian Army** engaged during the Russo–Japanese War. It arrived in **Manchuria** in mid-September 1904 and was commanded by Lieutenant General Leonid Sobolev from June 1904 to September 1905. It was incorporated in the **Second Manchurian Army** and took part in the **battle of Mukden**.

CORPS, TENTH EUROPEAN ARMY. One of the major fighting units of the **Imperial Russian Army** engaged during the Russo–Japanese War. The corps was commanded by Lieutenant General Kapitan Sluchevskii from May to November 1904 and then by Lieutenant General Konstantin Tserpitskii until September 1905. It comprised the 9th Infantry Division under Major General Kondratovich and the 31st Infantry Division under Major General Vasiliev. It took part in the **battle of Liaoyang** and the **battle of Mukden**.

CORPS, THIRD SIBERIAN ARMY. One of the major fighting units of the Russian Manchurian Army engaged during the Russo–Japanese War. This unit was one of the two most-committed Russian corps during the war. It was commanded by Lieutenant General **Anatolii Stoessel** from February to May 1904, then by Lieutenant General **Fedor Keller** from May to July, by Lieutenant General **Nikolai Ivanov** from August 1904 to March 1905, and finally by Lieutenant General **Nikolai Kashtalinskii** from March to September 1905. The corps comprised the 3rd East Siberian Rifle Division under Lieutenant General Kashtalinskii and the 6th Siberian Infantry Division under Major General Denilov. It played a major part in the **battle of the Yalu**, in the engagements with the Japanese **First Army** en route to **Liaoyang** in June–July 1904, and in the subsequent **battle of Liaoyang** and the **battle of Mukden**.

COSSACKS. Russian nationals endowed traditionally with certain special privileges in return for military services; they constituted the majority of the Russian **cavalry** forces during the Russo–Japanese

War. All Cossacks were obliged to enter the army at the age of 18 and serve for 20 years under special conditions. They were organized in 10 to 11 *voiskas* (hosts), which were further divided into *stanitsas* (villages), which held their land as a commune. They were descendants of frontiersmen and fugitives who fled the central Russian regime during the 18th century and became an auxiliary mounted force for the tsarist regime. During the 19th century they were called upon to augment the regular cavalry forces mainly for reconnaissance and scouting missions. After the Crimean War and the onset of rapid modernization in **Russia**'s military machine, they were regarded as costly and anachronistic, and the government sought to limit their service and eventually abolish their special status. During the Franco–Prussian War, however, there seemed to be a need for cavalry operations, and the importance of the Cossacks was reconsidered; it was concluded that they were more cost effective than maintaining a large force of regular cavalry. According to the 1874 cavalry reform, Cossack units were to be incorporated into regular cavalry divisions, and pure Cossack formations were integrated into a rational national regime.

During the Russo–Japanese War, the Cossacks were the main cavalry force on the battlefield. Their initial force comprised the Independent Trans-Baikal Cossack Brigade under Lieutenant General **Pavel Mishchenko**. The 7,500-strong brigade was designated the forward detachment of the **Manchurian Army** and was dispatched to the north of **Korea** in January 1904. In the following months, further Cossack units were mobilized to **Manchuria**. They had a fearful reputation and were expected to be of great importance on the battlefield. They did not live up to this reputation due to their lack of training, poor marksmanship, and outdated fighting modes. In addition, their equipment was under their own responsibility, and reimbursements for battle damage were scarce, thereby making them less inclined to put their mounts or equipment in any sort of jeopardy. They were most ineffective in the slowly advancing **trench warfare**, as it emerged in the later stages of the war around **Mukden**. In World War I, the Cossack forces totaled about 200,000 men and they kept their reputation as the tsar's most loyal guards. Their prominence in the White armies after the revolution made the Soviet government limit their power substantially. Despite an interlude during 1936–1945, the

eventual passing of cavalry ended the existence of separate Cossack formations in the Soviet armed forces after World War II.

CRUISERS. Type of multipurpose principal warships smaller but faster than **battleships**. Cruisers came into existence from 1860 to 1905 and emerged as major warships during the Russo–Japanese War, of importance only less than the battleship. They evolved from war clippers and were used universally by all major naval powers to maintain their presence in colonial territories. While not intended to have a role in major engagements, armored cruisers were originally assigned a dual role: to reinforce light cruisers in the colonies and also to serve as scouting elements.

At the time of the Russo–Japanese War, cruisers had been already split into two major categories. The first was protected cruisers, with armor only on the deck with slopes descending to waterline level and medium armament, consisting usually of 152-millimeter [6-inch] guns as their main caliber. They were either scout cruisers, small, fast, and lightly armed, which were used as foresail ships attached to a battleship squadron, or larger and medium-armed commerce raiders. Notable cruisers of this type are the **Imperial Russian Navy**'s ***Askold*** and ***Variag*** classes, or the **Imperial Japanese Navy**'s ***Yoshino*** and ***Takasago*** classes. The second category consisted of armored cruisers, distinguished by the presence of belt armor and heavier armament, consisting of at least 152-millimeter [6-inch] guns, and often of 203-millimeter [8-inch] to 254-millimeter [10-inch] guns, as their main caliber. Notable cruisers of this type are the Imperial Russian Navy's ***Bayan*** and ***Admiral Nakhimov*** and ***Gromoboi*** classes, or the Imperial Japanese Navy's ***Asama*** and ***Kasuga*** classes. Armored cruisers serving in the **Royal Navy** and the Imperial Japanese Navy formed the fast wing of the main squadron, playing the role of the future **battlecruisers**, while losing some of their seagoing capabilities in favor of heavier armor and armament. The Russian doctrine, however, turned these ships into commerce raiders.

On the eve of the Russo–Japanese War, the Imperial Japanese Navy had seven armored cruisers (two additional armored cruisers arrived soon after) and 13 protected cruisers. The Imperial Russian Navy had 10 cruisers, of which four were in the **Pacific Fleet**, and 12 protected cruisers, of which eight were in the Pacific Fleet (four more

of this type were completed in 1904). Following the **battle of the Yellow Sea**, where the Japanese **Second Fleet** with its uniform armored cruiser squadron proved its effectiveness, the Imperial Japanese Navy began to design two new classes of armored cruisers, the *Ikoma* and *Ibuki*, with an armament similar to the wartime battleships. Soon, however, all the armored cruisers, and this class in particular, were rendered obsolete with the emergence of the battlecruiser; the subsequent development of the cruiser was largely concerned with fleet protection.

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DAI HON'EI. *See* IMPERIAL GENERAL HEADQUARTERS.

DAIREN. *See* DALNY.

DALIAN. *See* DALNY.

DALNY [DALIAN, TALIEN; DALNII; *DAIREN*]. Chinese port city on the **Kwantung peninsula** on the southern tip of the **Liaotung peninsula**, which became a theater of war during the Russo–Japanese War. Originally it was a fishing village called Ching-ni-wa, but when **Russia** was granted a renewable 25-year lease over **Port Arthur** and Dalny in 1898, it was built up into a major commercial port and renamed Dalny. The Russians connected it by the **Chinese Eastern Railway** to the newly established town of **Harbin** and began to build a large city as well as a harbor for modern ships. Dalny was to be the major commercial Russian port in East Asia, but at the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, only the first stage of its reconstruction was complete. On the night of 8 February 1904, the **Imperial Japanese Navy** attempted to carry out a simultaneous attack on Dalny and Port Arthur using five flotillas of **destroyers**, but only the **naval attack on Port Arthur** was eventually realized. On 30 May 1904, four days after its local population had been evacuated to **Port Arthur**, the city and the port facilities fell into the hands of the Japanese **3rd Division** of the **Second Army**. Subsequently Dalny became the main supply port of the **Third Army** during the **siege of Port Arthur**.

In the aftermath of the Russo–Japanese War and the Japanese occupation of the Liaotung peninsula, **Japan** completed the Russian project, including a dry dock, and renamed the city Dairen. By 1931 the port had become second only to Shanghai in importance, and the city had turned into a center of industry, as well as the railway headquarters, engaged in machinery production and shipbuilding. The Japanese authorities also developed chemical industries that supplied components for explosives and fertilizers. Soon after World War II, Dalny was taken over by the Soviets, who continued to develop it intensively in both the industrial and naval fields. In 1955 the Soviet Union returned the port to Chinese hands, and since then it has become one of the major ports in **China** and once again the administrative center of the area.

DANDONG. *See* ANTUNG.

DANILOV, VLADIMIR NIKOLAEVICH (1852–1914). Russian army officer who served as a brigade commander during the war and became an important figure in the **Imperial Russian Army** during World War I. He graduated from Konstantinovskii Military College and took part in the Serbo–Turkish War of 1876 and Russo–Turkish War of 1877–1878. Danilov was promoted to major general in 1903, and during the Russo–Japanese War he commanded an infantry brigade in the 6th East Siberian division. He took part in the **battle of Liaoyang** and the **battle of Sha-ho**. During the **battle of Mukden** he successfully repelled the Japanese attacks for nine days and became very popular among the soldiers for his active leadership. After the war he supervised the evacuation of Russian POWs from Japan. In 1906–1912, he served as commander of the 2nd Guard Infantry Division, then of the Guards Corps. In 1913 he was appointed commander-in-chief of the **St. Petersburg** district and was appointed commander of the 23rd Army Corps at the outbreak of World War I.

DELCASSÉ, THÉOPHILE (1852–1923). French statesman who served as foreign minister during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born at Pamiers and became a primary-school teacher until a rich marriage provided him with the backing to enter politics. Delcassé was elected in 1889 to the Chamber of Deputies, where he vigorously

supported French expansion to Africa; subsequently he served as colonial minister in 1893–1895. He became foreign minister in 1898 and held the office until June 1905, a longer term than any other minister in the Third Republic. At the turn of the century, Delcassé held the conviction that **France** could not be on bad terms simultaneously with **Great Britain** in Africa and with **Germany** in Europe. Therefore, he worked for rapprochement with Britain during the Russo–Japanese War. He played a part in concluding the **Anglo–French Entente** of 1904 and was instrumental in denying the Russian armada under Vice Admiral **Zinovii Rozhestvenskii** full shelter in French ports during the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet**.

Under German pressure, Delcassé was forced to resign during the **Moroccan crisis** of 1905, but as navy minister in 1911–1913, he continued to strengthen Anglo–French collaboration, especially in the Mediterranean. Delcassé returned as foreign minister in 1914–1915, following a stint as ambassador to **Russia**, and in this capacity he negotiated the Treaty of London, which brought Italy into World War I.

DELISI. *See* TELISSU.

DEMBOVSKII, LEONID MATVEEVICH (1838–1907). Russian army officer who served as commanding officer of the **Fifth Siberian Army Corps** during the Russo–Japanese War. He took part in the **battle of Liaoyang** and the **battle of Sha-ho**.

DENIKIN, ANTON IVANOVICH (1872–1947). Russian army officer who served as a middle-rank officer during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading anti-Bolshevik military figure after the Bolshevik Revolution. Denikin entered the **Imperial Russian Army** at the age of 15 and served as a major in the **Manchurian Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. During the early stages of World War I, 1914–1916, he became a senior staff officer, and as lieutenant general was appointed deputy chief of staff in early 1917. Under the provisional government he became commander of **Russia**'s western front in March 1917, moving to the southwestern front two months later. In June 1917, Denikin was appointed supreme commander-in-chief of the Russian armies. Following the Bolshevik Revolution, he assumed command of a White army and sought to establish a "United

Russia" in 1918–1920. Inflicting a severe defeat on the Bolsheviks in the Caucasus in early February 1919, he mounted a major offensive in the Ukraine in August, entering Kiev in September and advancing toward Moscow. A Red Army counter-attack in December 1919 led to the loss of Kharkov and to his eventual withdrawal to the Caucasus. Denikin's demise was accelerated by his attempt to make contact with Ukrainian and Polish anti-Bolshevik forces. In the spring of 1920, he escaped to Istanbul, settling later in **France**. He died in the **United States**.

DESTROYERS. Type of small-to-medium warships used in large numbers during the Russo–Japanese War. The birth of the destroyer is associated with the appearance in the late 19th century of the **torpedo**, a new naval weapon with tremendous devastating power. Although it was slow and had to be fired at close range, the torpedo could be carried by a very small vessel, and the tiny **torpedo boat**, carrying a number of torpedoes, became popular with weaker navies. The French Navy, in particular, launched a large series of torpedo boats as an answer to the British "double standard" of **battleships** (the maintenance of sufficient naval power to combat the next two greatest navies combined). To counter the torpedo boats, the **Royal Navy** developed ships called "destroyers." Their role of hunting down torpedo boats shaped their characteristics. They were somewhat larger than torpedo boats, faster, and carried the same or greater torpedo armament, as well as several light 57–76mm [2.2–3in.] guns.

Soon the British "30-knotters" became a world standard and widespread throughout the navies, assuming an essential role as defenders and the "long arm" of the battleship squadrons. On the eve of the Russo–Japanese War, the **Imperial Japanese Navy** had 20 destroyers, all less than six years old, whereas the **Imperial Russian Navy** had 49 destroyers, of which 25 were at **Port Arthur**. They were typically of 240–450 tons, with a speed of 27–29 knots and equipped with two torpedo tubes and several guns of 57–80 millimeters (in **Japan**) or 47–75 millimeters (in **Russia**). The war began with a night attack by five flotillas of Japanese destroyers on Port Arthur and **Dalny**, known as the **naval attack on Port Arthur**, and it virtually ended with the **battle of Tsushima**, in which Japanese destroyers searched for crippled Russian battleships and sank them by multiple

torpedo attacks. After 1910 the original torpedo-boat destroyers were used increasingly against **submarines** and grew in size to 1,000–2,000 tons. From the 1950s they became all-round ships of growing size, often 10 times larger than those of the Russo–Japanese era and equipped with a great variety of weapons.

DEWA, SHIGETO (1856–1930). Japanese naval officer who served as commander of a battle division and of the **Fourth Fleet** during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in the Aizu domain (now Fukushima Prefecture) and graduated from the fifth class of the Naval Academy in 1878. Dewa held a staff post as a junior officer and served in the **First Sino–Japanese War** as a staff officer of the Western Seas Fleet, a defensive force patrolling home waters. In the following decade, he held ship and staff commands; he was promoted to rear admiral in 1900 and to vice admiral in 1904. During the Russo–Japanese War, Dewa took part in the initial **naval attack on Port Arthur** and the **battle of the Yellow Sea**, where he commanded the 3rd Battle Division of the **Second Fleet** aboard the cruiser ***Yakumo***. In the **battle of Tsushima**, he commanded the same division, comprising four cruisers, aboard the cruiser ***Kasagi***. In June 1904, he became commander of the Fourth Fleet for a short time. Dewa was made a baron in 1907 and promoted to admiral in 1912. Because of his reputation for integrity, he was made chairman of the navy committee investigating in 1914 the Siemens–Vickers navy armament scandal. In this capacity, he set up a court-martial that convicted high-ranking navy officers, thereby contributing to the fall of Admiral **Yamamoto Gonnoyhoe**'s cabinet the same year. In 1920 he entered the second reserve and died a decade later.

DIANA*.** Russian protected **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was one of three ships of the newly built ***Pallada class and served in the **Pacific Fleet** at the outbreak of the war under the command of Captain **Vladimir Semenov**. During the **battle of the Yellow Sea**, the *Diana*, under the command of Captain **Aleksandr Lieven**, was damaged and had 10 crew killed and 17 wounded. In the aftermath of the battle, she managed to escape to the German port of Kiaochou [Jiaozhou] on Shantung [Shandong] peninsula. After coaling, she began a long journey, reaching the French-held Vietnamese

port of Saigon. *Diana* was interned there until the end of the war and subsequently returned to **Russia**.

Technical data: Builder: Galernii Island, St. Petersburg, Russia, 1895–1902; Displ.: 6,657t; LBD: 126.69×16.76×6.35–6.55m [415.6×55×21.5ft]; Machinery: 24 Belleville boilers, 3-shaft VTE, 13,000ihp; Speed: 19kt; Fuel: 1,430t coal; Armament: 8×152mm/45 [6in.], 24×11pdr, 8×1pdr, 3×381mm [15in.] TT (1AW 2sub); Armor: deck: 38–63.5mm, CT: 35.5mm; Comp.: 571–581.

DIVISION, IMPERIAL GUARDS. Major fighting unit in the **Imperial Japanese Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. Its divisional headquarters and main recruiting area were located in **Tokyo**, and throughout the Russo–Japanese War it belonged to the **First Army**. It was under the command of Lieutenant General **Hasegawa Yoshimichi** from 1898 to September 1904 and Lieutenant General Asada Nobuhiro until July 1906. It began the war by **landing operations** in Chinnampo in late March 1904, and its main engagements included the **battle of the Yalu**, the **battle of Liaoyang**, and the **battle of Mukden**.

DIVISION, JAPANESE ARMY 1st. Major fighting unit in the **Imperial Japanese Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. Its divisional headquarters and main recruiting area were located in **Tokyo**, and throughout the Russo–Japanese War it belonged to the **Second Army** and the **Third Army**. It was under the command of Lieutenant General **Fushimi Sadanaru** from 1901 to July 1904, under Lieutenant General Matsumura Mohan until February 1905, and under Lieutenant General Iida Shunsuke until February 1906. It began the war as part of the Second Army; after seeing combat in the **battle of Nanshan**, it joined the Third Army and took part in the **siege of Port Arthur** and the **battle of Mukden**.

DIVISION, JAPANESE ARMY 2nd. Major fighting unit in the **Imperial Japanese Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. Its divisional headquarters and main recruiting area were located in Sendai, and throughout the Russo–Japanese War it belonged to the **First Army**. It was under Lieutenant General **Nishi Kanjirô** from 1896 to September 1904 and Lieutenant General Nishimura Sukeyoshi until

July 1906. Part of the division began the war by **landing operations** in **Chemulpo** on 8 February 1904, while the rest of it landed in Chinnampo in late March. Its main engagements during the war included the **battle of the Yalu**, the **battle of Liaoyang**, and the **battle of Mukden**.

DIVISION, JAPANESE ARMY 3rd. Major fighting unit in the **Imperial Japanese Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. Its divisional headquarters and main recruiting area were located in Nagoya, and throughout the Russo–Japanese War it belonged to the **Second Army**. It was under the command of Lieutenant General **Ôshima Yoshimasa** from 1898 until October 1905. The division began the war by **landing operations** in **Pitzuwo** in early May 1904, and it occupied **Dalny** on 30 May. Its main engagements during the war included the **battle of Nanshan**, the **battle of Telissu**, the **battle of Tashihchiao**, the **battle of Liaoyang**, and the **battle of Mukden**.

DIVISION, JAPANESE ARMY 4th. Major fighting unit in the **Imperial Japanese Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. Its divisional headquarters and main recruiting area were located in Osaka, and during the Russo–Japanese War it belonged to the **Second Army**. It was under the command of Lieutenant General **Ogawa Mataji** from 1897 until September 1904 and under Lieutenant General **Tsukamoto Katsuyoshi** until July 1906. The division began the war by **landing operations** in **Pitzuwo**, and it joined the Fourth Army in July 1904. It returned to the Second Army in January 1905. Its main engagements during the war included the **battle of Nanshan**, the **battle of Telissu**, the **battle of Liaoyang**, the **battle of Sha-ho**, and the **battle of Mukden**.

DIVISION, JAPANESE ARMY 5th. Major fighting unit in the **Imperial Japanese Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. Its divisional headquarters and main recruiting area were located in **Hiroshima**, and during the Russo–Japanese War it belonged to the **Second Army** and the **Fourth Army**. It was under the command of Lieutenant General **Ueda Arisawa** of the **Second Army** from May to November 1904, and then under Lieutenant General **Kideshi Yasutsuna**. The division began the war by **landing operations** in **Pitzuwo** during

early May 1904 as part of the Second Army. It joined the Fourth Army in July 1904 and in January 1905 returned to the Second Army. Its main engagements during the war included the **battle of Telissu**, the **battle of Tashihchiao**, the **battle of Hsimucheng**, the **battle of Liaoyang**, the **battle of Sha-ho**, and the **battle of Mukden**.

DIVISION, JAPANESE ARMY 6th. Major fighting unit in the **Imperial Japanese Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. Its divisional headquarters and main recruiting area were located in Kumamoto, and during the Russo–Japanese War it belonged to the **Third Army**, the **Fourth Army**, and the **Second Army**. It was under the command of Lieutenant General **Ôkubo Haruno** from 1902 to July 1906. The division began the war by **landing operations** in Dalny in June 1904 as part of the Third Army. A month later it joined the Fourth Army and in January 1905 was transferred to the Second Army. Its main engagements during the war included the **battle of Tashihchiao**, the **battle of Liaoyang**, the **battle of Sha-ho**, and the **battle of Mukden**.

DIVISION, JAPANESE ARMY 7th. Major fighting unit in the **Imperial Japanese Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. Its divisional headquarters and main recruiting area were located in Asahikawa, Hokkaido, and during the Russo–Japanese War it belonged to the **Third Army**. It was under the command of General **Ôsako Naotoshi** from 1900 to July 1906, and it joined the army in late 1904. It took part only in the final stages of the **siege of Port Arthur** and the **battle of Mukden**.

DIVISION, JAPANESE ARMY 8th. Major fighting unit in the **Imperial Japanese Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. Its divisional headquarters and main recruiting area were located in Hirosaki, Aomori Prefecture, and during the Russo–Japanese War it belonged to the **Second Army**. It was under the command of Lieutenant General **Tatsumi Naobumi**. The division joined the army only in January 1905 and saw action in the **battle of Sandepu** and the **battle of Mukden**.

DIVISION, JAPANESE ARMY 9th. Major fighting unit in the **Imperial Japanese Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. Its divisional

headquarters and main recruiting area were located in Kanazawa, and throughout the Russo–Japanese War it belonged to the **Third Army**. It was under the command of Lieutenant General **Ôshima Hisano** from 1898 until July 1906. It took part in the **siege of Port Arthur** and the **battle of Mukden**.

DIVISION, JAPANESE ARMY 10th. Major fighting unit in the **Imperial Japanese Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. Its divisional headquarters and main recruiting area were located in Himeji, and throughout the Russo–Japanese War it belonged to the **Fourth Army**. It was under the command of Lieutenant General **Kawamura Kageaki** from 1901 to January 1905 and Lieutenant General **Andô Sadayoshi** until 1910. The division began the war by **landing operations** in Nanchientszu at the tip of Korea Bay and later in Takushan [Dagushan, Gushan] on 19 May 1904. Its main engagements during the war included the **battle of Hsimucheng**, the **battle of Liaoyang**, and the **battle of Mukden**.

DIVISION, JAPANESE ARMY 11th. Major fighting unit in the **Imperial Japanese Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. Its divisional headquarters and main recruiting area were located in Zentsuji, Kagawa Prefecture, and during the Russo–Japanese War it belonged initially to the **Third Army**, but early in 1905 it was transferred to form the core of the **Fifth Army**. It was under the command of Lieutenant **Tsuchiya Mitsuharu** from 1902 until December 1904 and subsequently under Lieutenant General **Samejima Shigeo**. It took part in the **siege of Port Arthur** and the **battle of Mukden**.

DIVISION, JAPANESE ARMY 12th. Major fighting unit in the **Imperial Japanese Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. Its divisional headquarters and main recruiting area were located in Kurume, Fukuoka Prefecture, and throughout the Russo–Japanese War it belonged to the **First Army**. It was under the command of Lieutenant General **Inoue Hikaru** from 1897 to July 1906. The division began the war by **landing operations** in Chemulpo on 8 February 1904, and its main engagements during the war included the occupation of **Pyongyang**, the **battle of the Yalu**, the **battle of Liaoyang**, and the **battle of Mukden**.

DIVISION, JAPANESE ARMY 13th. Major fighting unit in the **Imperial Japanese Army** formed during the final stages of the Russo–Japanese War. Its divisional headquarters and main recruiting area were located in Takada, Niigata Prefecture, and it was under the command of Lieutenant General Haraguchi Kanezane. The division's major mission during the war was the **conquest of Sakhalin**.

DIVISION, JAPANESE ARMY 14th. Major fighting unit in the **Imperial Japanese Army** formed during the final stages of the Russo–Japanese War. Its divisional headquarters and main recruiting area were located in Utsunomiya, Tochigi Prefecture, and it was under the command of Lieutenant General **Tsuchiya Mitsuharu**.

DIVISION, JAPANESE ARMY 15th. Major fighting unit in the **Imperial Japanese Army** formed during the final stages of the Russo–Japanese War. Its divisional headquarters and main recruiting area were located in Toyohashi, Aichi Prefecture, and it was under the command of Lieutenant General Okihara M.

DIVISION, JAPANESE ARMY 16th. Major fighting unit in the **Imperial Japanese Army** formed during the final stages of the Russo–Japanese War. Its divisional headquarters and main recruiting area were located in Kyoto, and it was under the command of Lieutenant General Yamada Nobuyoshi.

***DMITRII DONSKOI*.** Russian armored **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was the only ship of the old *Dmitrii Donskoi* class and considered to be poorly subdivided and in danger of sinking if the engine room was flooded. She was consequently modernized in 1895 and served in the **Baltic Fleet**. In November 1903, *Dmitrii Donskoi* was sent hastily, together with a detachment under the command of Rear Admiral A. Virenius, to reinforce the squadron in **Port Arthur** but was recalled after reaching the Red Sea. She eventually took part in the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet** and survived an attack by a Japanese destroyer on the night of 28 May 1905, as well as an engagement with six Japanese cruisers during the final stages of the **battle of Tsushima**. Badly damaged, she was scuttled by her crew the next morning.

Technical data: Builder: New Admiralty, St. Petersburg, Russia, 1881–1885; Displ.: 6,200t; LBD: 90.43×15.85×7.85m [296.5×52×26ft]; Machinery: 6 cylinder boilers, 1-shaft VC (two engines), 7,000ihp; Speed: 16.5kt; Fuel: 800t coal; Armament: 6×152mm/45 [6in.], 10×120mm/45 [4.7in.], 6×3pdr, 10×1pdr, 14×1pdr revolvers, 5×381mm [15in.] TT AW; Armor: compound, belt: 114–152mm [4.5–6in.]; Comp.: 507.

DMOWSKI, ROMAN (1864–1939). Polish statesman who led the struggle for national liberation and was an anti-tsarist activist during the Russo–Japanese War. Born in Kamionek, he studied natural sciences at the University of Warsaw. Dmowski was soon involved with the movement for Polish liberation and became leader of the National Democratic Party (Endeks) from its establishment. Dmowski believed that **Poland** could become semi-independent through loyalty to **Russia**, but during the early stages of the Russo–Japanese War, he considered collaboration with **Japan**. Although reluctant to engage in full-fledged collaboration, in March 1904 he met in Krakow Colonel **Akashi Motojirô**, the Japanese military attaché in Stockholm, and proposed to him that Polish soldiers in **Manchuria** might surrender to the **Imperial Japanese Army**. To carry out the plan, he arrived in **Tokyo**. There, however, he met his rival **Jozef Pilsudski**, who had more radical plans regarding anti-Russian activities. Dmowski believed that even at the height of the war in **Manchuria**, the greatest part of the **Imperial Russian Army** was still stationed in Europe, and any rebellion in Poland would be summarily crushed, leaving no hope of future independence. For this, but also for personal reasons, he actively opposed the plans of Pilsudski and other revolutionaries to reach an agreement with Japan supporting national insurrection.

After the war Dmowski focused his energy on Polish anti-German nationalist agitation, which culminated in his 1908 book *The Germans, Russia and the Polish Question*. He maintained his policy of cooperation with Russia until 1912, but during World War I he turned to the Western powers for support. In 1919 Dmowski was appointed by Pilsudski to represent the new Polish government at the Paris Peace Conference and signed the treaty of Versailles. He subsequently was a member of the Polish national assembly and opposed Pilsudski again. In 1923 Dmowski briefly served as foreign minister but afterward remained aloof from political activity.

DOGGER BANK. An extensive shoal in the North Sea that became the site of an international incident during the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet**. It is located about 100 kilometers [60 miles] east of the coast of Northumberland, **Great Britain**. The depth of water in some parts is only 10 meters, although in most places it is about 18–36 meters. It is well known as a fishing ground, although it was chosen as a site for several naval engagements. Off the south end of the bank, an engagement took place between the English and the Dutch fleets in 1781. An engagement known as the **Dogger Bank Incident** took place in this area between the Russian **Baltic Fleet** and a few British trawlers during the Russo–Japanese War.

DOGGER BANK INCIDENT (1904). An incident during the Russo–Japanese War in which Russian warships mistakenly attacked British trawlers while passing **Dogger Bank**. During the night of 21–22 October 1904, when the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet** had just begun, the **Second Pacific Squadron** encountered vessels which, due to faulty intelligence reports, its commanding officer, Vice Admiral **Zinovii Rozhestvenskii**, believed to be Japanese **torpedo boats**. These vessels were actually trawlers from Hull. The Russians opened fire and sank the *Crane* and killed two of her crew. Indignation in **Great Britain** was so intense that the two countries were almost plunged into war. While British Prime Minister **Arthur Balfour** and Foreign Minister **Henry Lansdowne** did much to hush the public outcry, abroad it was mainly French diplomatic intervention that induced the Russians to capitulate. Under orders from the tsar, Rozhestvenskii dispatched at the Spanish port of Vigo the "responsible officers," among them Captain **Nikolai Klado**, to await international arbitration, while the rest of the armada resumed its voyage.

The affair was settled by an international commission, which first convened in Paris on 22 December 1904. The commission published its report on 26 February 1905, concluding that the Russian fire was unjustified. Although it found some excuses for Rozhestvenskii's decision, the commission disapproved of the manner in which the English fishermen were abandoned. The commission concluded its report with a call for reparations of £65,000, which were made by the Russian ambassador in London on 9 March 1905. The incident as a whole marked the nadir in Anglo–Russian relations, but **Russia**'s acceptance of claims for compensation, together with genuine expressions of regret

in **St. Petersburg**, eased the tension between the two nations. Two years later, this settlement facilitated indirectly the making of the **Anglo–Russian Entente**.

DONGBEI. *See* MANCHURIA.

DREADNOUGHT. A novel mighty class of **battleship** emerging in the aftermath of the Russo–Japanese War. It was defined initially by having no intermediate caliber guns and more than six main gun barrels. The "all-big-gun" concept of a battleship was known from ancient times, but during the period of rapid development of steam-powered battleships in the late 19th century, the balance between the ballistic characteristics of the heavy guns and fire direction systems was broken in favor of the guns. The typical battleship built in 1890–1905 was armed with inaccurate heavy guns, slow to turn and slow to reload, that could not be effectively carried and used in quantities. The solution at that time was a variant of four heavy guns per ship, with an attempt at an increase in firepower by adding more 152-, 203-, or even 254-millimeter [6-, 8-, or 10-inch] secondary guns. During the Russo–Japanese War, however, British **naval observers** became convinced that larger-caliber guns were more effective, even in lesser numbers, than smaller ones. For example, a single 254-millimeter gun aboard the Japanese cruiser ***Kasuga*** inflicted more damage than the four 203-millimeter guns of her sister ship ***Nisshin*** in the **battle of Tsushima**.

The idea of arming a battleship with a large number of heavy guns and thereby reducing or even canceling the secondary battery began to form even prior to the battle of Tsushima. Already in 1903 the **Royal Navy** conducted several firing experiments. Naval experts such as Edward Harding claimed that further improvement in the control and firing speed of the heavy guns would, in several years' time, put engagement between battleships beyond the range of small-caliber guns and would even keep them out of the efficient range of **torpedoes** as well. Another reason for the need of an efficient and drastic solution to the problem of firepower was the wide variety of firing systems that had been created over the years. This variety prevented the possibility of controlling, and complicated necessary uniformity. For example, the last class constructed by the Royal Navy before the war, the *King Edward VII*, was armed with the standard

four 305-millimeter [12-inch] guns, but also with four 234-millimeter [9.2-inch] guns, and 10 152-millimeter guns. The last but not least important reason, at least from the perspective of the Royal Navy, was economic, namely to reduce the number of its vessels without losing its advantage in firepower.

The first dreadnought to be constructed was the HMS *Dreadnought*, designed by Admiral **John Fisher** and constructed in 1905–1906. It was a battleship of 18,000 tons and 21 knots, which mounted 10 305-millimeter guns in five double turrets. It was also the first heavy warship to be powered by a steam turbine. The construction and later commissioning of HMS *Dreadnought* had an immediate effect on the major fleets of the world. The **Imperial Japanese Navy**, for example, laid down in March–April 1905 two battleships that were to replace the battleships ***Yashima*** and ***Hatsuse***, lost to **mines** near **Port Arthur**. They were to carry 12 305-millimeter guns, but due to shortage of funds they were replaced by four 305-millimeter and 12 254-millimeter [10-inch] guns. The **United States** had also planned battleships of the *North Carolina* class, which first had their turrets superimposed, but all of them entered service only after 1907, clearly giving an advantage to **Great Britain**. The emergence of the dreadnought design in fact made obsolete all the battleships created before, signaling the start of a new naval arms race, which eventually would ironically lead to the demise of British naval power. In offensive power, protection, and speed, this type of battleship eclipsed any fighting ship that had ever been built, and thereby marked a new epoch in warship construction.

DUMA. An elective legislative assembly instituted by Tsar **Nicholas II** in response to the political demands and popular unrest during the **Revolution of 1905**. The first Duma was elected on a broad suffrage and functioned during the final stages of the Russo–Japanese War (10 May to 21 July 1906). Its meetings were mainly concerned with securing recognition of rights, especially over finance, and with limiting Nicholas II's power to legislate by decree; the session ended in deadlock. The second Duma (5 March to 16 June 1907) seemed to the tsar so radical that he was determined to dissolve it. In all, the first dumas were hard pressed to work with the tsar and his administration, who refused to yield

much power. This situation was aggravated when Nicholas II changed the election law and made the selection of duma candidates even less democratic, as the new electoral decree increased the representation of the middle classes.

On this basis the third Duma (1907–1912) was elected. It legislated reforms in the local administration of justice as well as a health insurance scheme for workers. The fourth Duma (1912–1917) was the least effective, because of the international crisis and World War I. It completed, however, a series of educational reforms. During the war the tsar suspended the Duma for much of the time, following its criticism of the regime. In February 1917 the Duma ignored an imperial decree ordering its dissolution and established a provisional government. Three days later it accepted the emperor's abdication, but it disintegrated soon after.

– E –

EIGHTH EUROPEAN ARMY CORPS. *See* CORPS, EIGHTH EUROPEAN ARMY.

EIGHTH SIBERIAN ARMY CORPS. *See* CORPS, EIGHTH SIBERIAN ARMY.

EIKÔ. *See* NIUCHUANG.

EMPEROR MEIJI. *See* MEIJI, EMPEROR.

EMPEROR NICHOLAS II. *See* NICHOLAS II, TSAR.

EMPEROR WILLIAM II. *See* WILLIAM II, EMPEROR.

ENISEI* [*YENISEI*].** Russian **minelayer** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was the first of two ships of the **Imperial Russian Navy** carrying this name and one of two ships of the ***Amur class. She served in the **Pacific Fleet** at the outbreak of the war but was sunk by one of her own mines on 11 February 1904 in an early attempt to mine the approaches of the harbor against further Japan-

ese intrusion following the **naval attack on Port Arthur** three days earlier. With the ship were lost also the charts of the minefields laid earlier, and one of those mines struck the **cruiser *Boyarin*** a short time later.

Technical data: Builder: Baltic Works, St. Petersburg, Russia, 1898–1899; Displ.: 3,010t; LBD: 91.44×12.50×5.49m [300×41×18ft]; Machinery: Belleville boilers, 2-shaft VTE, 4,700ihp; Speed: 18kt; Fuel: 400t coal; Armament: 5×11pdr, 7×3pdr, 1×381mm [15in.] TT, 500 MN; Comp.: 317.

ENKVIST [ENQUIST], OSKAR ADOLFOVICH (1849?–19?). Russian naval officer who served as one of two junior flag officers of the **Second Pacific Squadron**. He graduated from the Naval Academy in 1869 and served on the eve of the Russo–Japanese War in the **Baltic Fleet**. During the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet** and the subsequent **battle of Tsushima**, Rear Admiral Enkvist served as commander of the **cruiser** detachment of the Second Pacific Squadron. He was a relative of the navy minister **Fedor Avelan** but was underestimated by the commander-in-chief of the squadron, Vice Admiral **Zinovii Rozhestvenskii**. Consequently he was not entrusted with an independent command as originally planned and instead took part in the long route of the voyage around Africa and in the subsequent battle of Tsushima. In the early morning of 28 May 1905, in the aftermath of the first day of the battle of Tsushima, Enkvist announced to his officers that he had decided to turn south and flee the Japanese forces rather than continue to fight or head north to **Vladivostok**. In the evening, after long deliberations and protests of his officers, he turned south and led his three surviving cruisers, the ***Oleg***, ***Aurora***, and ***Zhemchug,*** into internment in Manila. He stayed there until the end of the war and then made the voyage back to Libau.

ENTENTE CORDIALE. *See* ANGLO–FRENCH ENTENTE.

ESSEN, NIKOLAI OTTOVICH (1860–1915). Russian naval officer who served as commanding officer of an illustrious **battleship** during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading figure in the **Imperial Russian Navy** after the war. The son of a deputy justice

minister, Essen was born in **St. Petersburg** and received his basic education at a military school. After graduating in 1880, he went on a foreign cruise for two years, and on his return he entered the Nikolaevsk Naval Academy, specializing in mechanical engineering from 1883 to 1886 and later in artillery. He was commissioned as a lieutenant in 1891 and served in the **Pacific Fleet** in 1892–1896, after which he returned to European **Russia** to join the Mediterranean Fleet in 1897. Subsequently, Essen became commanding officer of a **torpedo boat** and of a **gunvessel**. With promotion to the rank of commander, he was appointed commander of a torpedo boat detachment. He taught mechanical engineering briefly at the Naval Corps, then in 1902 he was appointed commanding officer of the ***Novik***, a new **cruiser** assigned to the Pacific Fleet in **Port Arthur**.

Following the arrival of Vice Admiral **Stepan Makarov**, Essen was assigned to command the battleship ***Sevastopol***, a most unusual appointment for his rank. After the fiasco of the **battle of the Yellow Sea**, he was in addition appointed commanding officer of the defense of Tiger peninsula, protecting the entrance to Port Arthur. Under the bombardment of Japanese 280-millimeter [11-inch] **howitzers**, during the late stages of the **siege of Port Arthur**, he decided to bring the *Sevastopol* out of the inner harbor and defended it valiantly against repeated Japanese attacks. Following the order of capitulation, he ordered the sinking of the battleship in deep water, thus making it the only battleship in Port Arthur the **Imperial Japanese Navy** could not raise and repair after the war. After surrender, he was sent to a **prisoner camp** in **Japan**, but in less than two months he and a few other officers were paroled and returned to St. Petersburg. Essen emerged from the Russo–Japanese War a hero and was awarded the order of St. George and soon promoted to captain. In the following years he was assigned to the **Baltic Fleet**. In 1906 he was appointed commanding officer of the First Mine Division and was promoted to rear admiral in 1908. A year later Essen was promoted to vice admiral and appointed commander-in-chief of the Baltic Fleet, a post he held until his premature death of pneumonia in 1915.

EXPENDITURES. *See* WAR EXPENDITURES.

– F –

FELKERZAM [FELKERSAM, FÖLKERSAM], DMITRII GUSTAVOVICH VON (1846–1905). Russian naval officer who served as one of two junior flag officers of the **Second Pacific Squadron**. He was born to a family of Baltic barons, graduated from the Naval Academy in 1867, and in 1895 served as a commanding officer of the battleship ***Imperator Nikolai I*** in the **Pacific Fleet**, in the same squadron as then Captain **Zinovii Rozhestvenskii**. In 1899 he was promoted to rear admiral and in 1901 was appointed as vice commander of the **Baltic Fleet**. The paths of the two officers crossed again in the Artillery Practice Unit, where Felkerzam replaced Rozhestvenskii in 1902 as its commander. In 1904 Felkerzam, now a rear admiral, joined the Second Pacific Squadron under Vice Admiral Rozhestvenskii as a junior flag officer. During the first stage of the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet**, Felkerzam commanded its 2nd Battleship Division. At Tangier, apparently suffering from cancer, Felkerzam was assigned the independent command of a small detachment of five old warships and several transports. Instead of sailing south to Africa with the rest of the fleet, the detachment passed down the **Suez Canal** and rejoined the main fleet a few months later at Nossi Bé in Madagascar. Felkerzam did not live to witness the fate of his squadron. He died of a brain hemorrhage only three days before his ships were annihilated in the **battle of Tsushima**.

FENGTIAN. *See* MUKDEN.

FIFTH JAPANESE ARMY. *See* ARMY, JAPANESE FIFTH.

FIFTH SIBERIAN ARMY CORPS. *See* CORPS, FIFTH SIBERIAN ARMY.

FINANCES. *See* WAR EXPENDITURES.

FINLAND. Grand duchy of the Russian empire, until declaring independence in 1917, and involved in anti-Russian activities during the Russo–Japanese War. Although the promise of Finnish legislative au-

tonomy remained unfulfilled for the first 50 years of Finland's presence in the Russian empire, the Russian government did encourage the economic development of the grand duchy. In 1863 the Helsinki Dagblad suggested that Finland declare **neutrality** in the event of war between **Russia** and other European powers. One month later, Alexander agreed to convoke the Diet. Alexander II thus responded to the threat of disloyalty in a strategic area just as Alexander I had. He pursued a policy of concession to prevent betrayal. During the reign of Tsar Alexander II, Finland prospered and its Diet continued to meet at regular intervals. In 1869 the tsar confirmed a statute requiring it to assemble at least once every five years. In 1901 Tsar **Nicholas II** agreed to a new Service Law, one that effectively abolished the Finnish army rather than increasing Finland's military contribution to the empire. War Minister **Aleksei Kuropatkin** also withdrew his support, perceiving that Finland would at best play a passive role in Russian military planning as a result of the Service Law of 1901. At least temporarily the Russian government abandoned the endeavor to curtail Finnish autonomy through Governor-General Bobrikov. Even with extraordinary powers granted in 1903 that enabled him to rule almost by martial law, he had been unable to contain Finnish protests.

The Russo–Japanese War provided the next opportunity to promote Finnish autonomy. Finnish dissidents, notably **Konrad Zilliacus**, strove to organize an anti-tsarist uprising, and in the socialist conferences in Europe he won recognition of Finland as an autonomous constitutional state. During the **Revolution of 1905**, Nicholas II capitulated further to the revolutionary mood in Finland by accepting the transformation of the Diet into a unicameral legislature and extending suffrage to all men and women older than 24 years. The stage was set for a conflict between the reformed Finnish Diet and the legislative institutions of the empire. In July 1906 the president of the Council of Ministers, Petr Stolypin, took particular exception to the Finnish Diet. Not only were its pretensions "excessive," but it harbored revolutionary sentiment.

FIRST EUROPEAN ARMY CORPS. *See* CORPS, FIRST EUROPEAN ARMY.

FIRST FLEET, JAPANESE. *See* FLEET, JAPANESE FIRST.

FIRST JAPANESE ARMY. *See* ARMY, JAPANESE FIRST.

FIRST MANCHURIAN ARMY. *See* MANCHURIAN ARMY, FIRST.

FIRST SIBERIAN ARMY CORPS. *See* CORPS, FIRST SIBERIAN ARMY.

FIRST SINO–JAPANESE WAR. *See* SINO–JAPANESE WAR, FIRST.

FISHER, JOHN ARBUTHNOT (1841–1920). British naval officer who served as the first lord of the Admiralty during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in 1841 in Ceylon and entered the **Royal Navy** as a midshipman. As a youth Fisher saw action in the Crimean War, and he subsequently took part in the capture of Canton and the attacks on Taku forts during the Second Opium War. Specializing in gunnery and armaments, he played a major role in the revision of the Gunnery Manual. As a captain he commanded a **battleship** during the bombardment of Alexandria in the Egyptian War. Fisher was then appointed director of naval ordnance and **torpedoes**. Following his promotion to rear admiral he served as superintendent of the Portsmouth dockyard. He was appointed to the Board of Admiralty as third sea lord and became commander of the North American and West Indies stations. He also represented the interests of the Royal Navy at the **Hague Peace Conference** of 1899 and subsequently commanded the Mediterranean fleet.

In 1904 Fisher returned to the Board of Admiralty. As the first sea lord, he worked relentlessly to prepare the British navy for technical developments of the 20th century, notably engaging in an arms race with **Germany**. By reducing deployment overseas and scrapping obsolete ships in favor of innovative vessels, Fisher won recognition as one of the greatest admirals of the Royal Navy. Above all, he is associated with the development and deployment of both the acclaimed **dreadnoughts** and the less-successful **battlecruisers**. After his retirement he was recalled to his post by Winston Churchill during World War I. But his support for an amphibious cooperative Anglo–Russian strike in contrast to the Dardanelles operation led to a

breach with Churchill. The failure of the attack resulted in his resignation.

FLEET, BALTIC. *See* BALTIC FLEET.

FLEET, BLACK SEA. *See* BLACK SEA FLEET.

FLEET, JAPANESE COMBINED [*RENGÔ KANTAI*]. The main battle force of the **Imperial Japanese Navy** during the Russo–Japanese War. It was established in its contemporary form on 28 December 1903 and was commanded by Admiral **Tôgô Heihachirô** from that date until 20 December 1905. The fleet consisted of the **First Fleet**, under the command of Tôgô himself, and the **Second Fleet**, under the command of Vice Admiral **Kamimura Hikonojo**. From that time until the Pacific War in 1941, the Imperial Japanese Navy followed the principle of combat organization in two main units, one of heavily gunned warships and the other of lighter and faster warships.

FLEET, JAPANESE FIRST. The major principal unit of the **Combined Fleet** and the **Imperial Japanese Navy** during the Russo–Japanese War. Established in its contemporary form on 28 December 1902, it served as the backbone of the Combined Fleet a year later and of the navy as a whole. This fleet was commanded by Admiral **Tôgô Heihachirô** from its establishment until 20 December 1905. On the eve of the Russo–Japanese War it comprised two battle divisions with six **battleships** (***Mikasa***, ***Shikishima***, ***Asahi***, ***Fuji***, ***Hatsuse***, ***Yashima***) and four protected **cruisers** (***Kasagi***, ***Chitose***, ***Otowa***, ***Niitaka***), as well as two divisions of **destroyers** and two divisions of **torpedo boats**.

The fleet's 1st Battle Division, which at the **battle of Tsushima** consisted of the *Mikasa*, *Shikishima*, *Asahi*, and *Fuji*, as well as the armored cruisers ***Kasuga*** and ***Nisshin***, was under the command of Rear Admiral **Nashiwa Tokioki** from December 1903 to January 1905 and of Vice Admiral **Misu Sôtarô** until November 1905. The 3rd Battle Division, which at the battle of Tsushima consisted of the cruisers *Kasagi*, *Chitose*, *Otowa*, and *Niitaka*, was under the command of Vice Admiral **Dewa Shigeto** from December 1903 to June

1905 and of Rear Admiral **Ogura Byoichirô** until November 1905. The fleet took part in all the major naval engagements of the war and was dismantled on 25 February 1944.

FLEET, JAPANESE FOURTH. A minor principal unit of the **Imperial Japanese Navy** during the Russo–Japanese War. It was established on 14 June 1905 during the Russo–Japanese War and was commanded by Vice Admiral **Dewa Shigeto** until 20 December 1905. It comprised lesser and obsolete warships of the 7th Division that originally belonged to the **Third Fleet** under the command of Rear Admiral **Yamada Hikohachi**. Dismantled on 1 December 1921, this fleet was recommissioned a year later and was finally demobilized on 20 April 1945.

FLEET, JAPANESE SECOND. The secondary principal unit of the **Imperial Japanese Navy** during the Russo–Japanese War. It was established in its contemporary form on 27 October 1903 and was commanded by Vice Admiral **Kamimura Hikonojo** from its establishment until 20 December 1905. On the eve of the Russo–Japanese War this fleet comprised two battle divisions with the remaining six armored **cruisers** of the Imperial Japanese Navy as well as four protected cruisers, three divisions of **destroyers**, and one division of **torpedo boats**. Due to the rising fears of the **Vladivostok Independent Cruiser Squadron**, the Second Fleet was assigned to deal with the Russian threat to the supply lines to the mainland, instead of the **Third Fleet**. Following its success in the **battle of the Korea Straits**, the fleet returned to its initial task and took part later in the **battle of Tsushima**.

The fleet's 2nd Battle Division, which at the battle of Tsushima consisted of the cruisers ***Izumo***, ***Azuma***, ***Yakumo***, ***Asama***, and ***Iwate***, was under the command of Vice Admiral **Misu Sôtarô** from December 1903 to January 1905 and of Rear Admiral **Shimamura Hayao** until December 1905. The 4th Battle Division, which at the battle of Tsushima consisted of the cruisers ***Naniwa***, ***Takachiho***, ***Akashi***, and ***Tsushima***, was under the command of Vice Admiral **Uryû Sotokichi** from December 1903 to December 1905. The fleet was dismantled in December 1921, recommissioned a year later, and finally dismantled on 20 April 1945.

FLEET, JAPANESE THIRD. A minor principal unit of the **Imperial Japanese Navy** during the Russo–Japanese War. It was established in December 1903 as a separate unit from the **Combined Fleet** and was commanded by Vice Admiral **Kataoka Shichirô** from its establishment until 20 December 1905. It comprised three divisions with a collection of lesser and obsolete warships, as well as five divisions of **torpedo boats**. On the eve of the Russo–Japanese War this fleet was designated to guard the **Korea Straits** against the **Vladivostok Independent Cruiser Squadron**. Due to the growing fears of the Russian threat, the **Imperial General Headquarters** decided in late February 1904 to transfer the Third Fleet from its original task and placed it instead under the command of Admiral **Tôgô Heihachirô**'s **Combined Fleet** in the Yellow Sea.

The fleet's 5th Division, which at the **battle of Tsushima** consisted of the **cruisers** ***Itsukushima***, ***Matsushima***, ***Hashidate***, and ***Sai Yen***, was under the command of Vice Admiral Kataoka from December 1903 until June 1904, of Rear Admiral **Yamada Hikohachi** until January 1905, and of Rear Admiral **Taketomi Kunikane** until June 1905. The 6th Division, which at the battle of Tsushima consisted of the cruisers ***Suma***, ***Chiyoda***, ***Akitsushima***, and ***Izumi***, was under the command of Rear Admiral **Tôgô Masaji** from December 1903 to November 1905. The 7th Division, which during the battle of Tsushima consisted of the ironclad *Fuso*, and the third-class cruisers and **gunvessels** *Tsukushi*, *Takao, Akagi, Maya, Chokai, Uji*, and *Yaeyama*, was under the command of Rear Admiral **Hosoya Sukeuji** from December 1903 to January 1905 and of Rear Admiral Yamada Hikohachi until after the war. In mid-June 1905 the 7th Division was used to form the **Fourth Fleet**.

FLEET, PACIFIC. *See* PACIFIC FLEET.

FLEET, RUSSIAN VOLUNTEER. A fleet of Russian merchant ships located in the Black Sea that partly joined Russian war efforts during the Russo–Japanese War. It was established in 1878 during the Russo–Turkish War, and it raised donations for purchasing **cruisers**. Although the fleet consisted mainly of merchant ships, its crews were considered naval personnel. Nevertheless, due to the non-military character of this fleet, **Turkey** allowed the passage of a limited num-

ber of its ships through the Bosphorus and the Dardanelles during the Russo–Japanese War, on condition they hoisted a commercial flag and carried no armaments or troops. In July 1904 two vessels of the fleet, the *Petersburg* and the *Smolensk*, passed through the straits and participated in the seizure of a British merchant ship in the Red Sea. In November 1904 another seven vessels of the fleet left the Black Sea and united with Rear Admiral **Dmitrii von Felkerzam**'s detachment in Suda Bay, Crete. They thereby joined the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet**. Although **Russia** did not mobilize the **Black Sea Fleet** for the war, this passage slightly violated the conditions set by the Ottoman authorities.

FOK [FOCK], ALEKSANDR VIKTOROVICH (1843–?). Russian army officer who served as commander of a division as well as commander of the land-based defenses of **Port Arthur** in the last stages of the **siege of Port Arthur**. After graduating from a military academy, Fok served in the gendarmes in 1871–1876 and saw action in the Russo–Turkish War of 1877–1878. Holding various military commands in Siberia, he was appointed commanding officer of the 4th East Siberian infantry brigade in 1900 and joined the international coalition forces during the **Boxer Uprising**. He was promoted to lieutenant general in 1904 and commanded the 4th East Siberian Infantry Division in Port Arthur during the early stages of the Russo–Japanese War.

Fok took part in the **battle of Nanshan** and held much responsibility for the Russian defeat. On 21 August 1904 he was dismissed by Lieutenant General **Konstantin Smirnov** for refusing to comply with the order to send reserves forward during the relentless fighting for the forts of East and West Panlung near Port Arthur. He was subsequently attached to the staff of Lieutenant General **Anatolii Stoessel**, who appointed him, following the death of Lieutenant General **Roman Kondratenko** in December 1904, commanding officer of land-based defenses. Together with Stoessel, Fok was involved in the surrender of the fort, for which he faced court-martial in **St. Petersburg** during the winter of 1906. Released from prison in 1908, he retired from service, but when the First Balkan War broke out in 1912, he volunteered for service as a private soldier in the Bulgarian army. His subsequent whereabouts as well as the date and circumstances of his death are unknown.

FOURTH EUROPEAN ARMY CORPS. *See* CORPS, FOURTH EUROPEAN ARMY.

FOURTH FLEET, JAPANESE. *See* FLEET, JAPANESE FOURTH.

FOURTH JAPANESE ARMY. *See* ARMY, JAPANESE FOURTH.

FOURTH SIBERIAN ARMY CORPS. *See* CORPS, FOURTH SIBERIAN ARMY.

FRANCE. A neutral European power siding with **Russia** during the Russo–Japanese War. Half a century before the Russo–Japanese conflict, France fought alongside **Great Britain** against Russia in the Crimean War. This victory propelled Emperor Napoleon III to wage more wars against Austria and claim territories that he then ceded to various Italian factions without political gain. A military expedition to Mexico in hope of placing his brother Maximilian on the Mexican throne left the French emperor bereft of soldiers and funds to use in the defense of Austria when France was ousted from **Germany** by the Prussians. Isolated in the political arena, France in 1870 found itself declaring war on Prussia. It ended in defeat and the ceding of territories to Prussia, as well as accepting German occupation until an indemnity was paid. In the following decades French international politics were characterized by the quest for alliances against the growing threat of Germany within Europe and colonial competition with the British empire overseas. In 1893 France finalized an alliance with Russia, ensuring that French security would not depend solely on German goodwill.

At the same time, France maintained its colonial interests in Southeast Asia. From 1858, when Emperor Napoleon III sent a military expedition to Indochina, France steadily encroached over the whole region. It occupied what is now Cambodia in 1863, Tonkin (northern Vietnam) in 1874, and Annam (central Vietnam) in 1884, and set up protectorates in these regions. During the late 1880s, French forces occupied Laos and seized Cochin China. In 1895 France took part in the **Three-Power Intervention**, which forced **Japan** to relinquish its territorial gains in **Manchuria,** and **Port Arthur** in particular, in 1895 following the **First Sino–Japanese War**. In 1897 France se-

cured railway and mining privileges in **China** and subsequently leased Kwangchow Bay in Kwangtung. At the turn of the century only Great Britain had a larger overseas empire than France.

During the Russo–Japanese War, France inclined more than ever toward Great Britain. The signing of the **Anglo–French Entente** in 1904 allowed France a free hand in Morocco, which it immediately went after, invoking the wrath of Germany. Uncertain of its newly established British support, the French parliament took a defensive stance and offered a settlement during the **Moroccan Crisis**. Germany pushed for a better position but was repelled by an international vote, allowing France complete domination of the Moroccan market. This success resulted in nationalist fervor that demanded a still-more-aggressive foreign policy and even the restoration of the monarchy. As for Russia, its ally before the war, France wanted it to cease its military activities in East Asia and concentrate its power in Europe as a counter to Germany's evidently burgeoning aspirations. For this reason, and because of its strengthened ties with Great Britain, France was in a most difficult position during the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet**. When French officials learned of the intended destination of the voyage, they urged the Russian government to route it via Cape Horn, thereby avoiding French possessions.

In the event, France hesitated to provide coal and shelter to the Russian armada and withstood Russian pressure, but it also parried Japanese diplomatic protests and anti-French demonstrations regarding its **neutrality**, particularly when the Russian squadron prolonged its stay off the coast of Indochina. Eventually, the French government allowed the Russian armada to anchor, but only briefly, and to coal at French colonies en route to Asia. After the war France, which was heavily involved in investments in various projects in Russia, provided the latter with much needed loans in 1906. A year later it entered into the unofficial **Triple Entente** with Russia and Great Britain, thereby balancing German preponderance. In 1907 France signed the **Franco–Japanese agreement**, which settled the mutual interests of these two states in China and Indochina. In 1912 France consolidated its control over Morocco and terminated that country's independence. On the eve of World War I, France was the intended target of the main German attack, but it was stronger politically and militarily than it had been on the eve of

the Russo–Japanese War, and therefore might perhaps have withstood the German aggression.

FRANCO–JAPANESE AGREEMENT (1907). Treaty signed between **Japan** and **France** in the aftermath of the Russo–Japanese War. Signed on 10 June 1907 in Paris, the agreement concerned the mutual interests of these two states in **China** and Indochina. Both parties declared their commitment to the independence and territorial integrity of China as well as their support of the **Open-Door Policy**. This diplomatic development between Japan and **Russia**'s past ally served as a stimulus for the conclusion, seven weeks later, of the **Russo–Japanese agreement** of 1907, and to enhance relations between Japan and the **Triple Entente** regarding **Germany**.

FUJI*.** Japanese **battleship** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was one of two ships of the *Fuji* class. As the first of modern Japanese **pre-dreadnoughts**, she was of an improved British *Royal Sovereign* design, distinguished by elongated barbettes, which required returning the guns to zero position to reload. The main weakness of the *Fuji* class was that only four of its 10 152-millimeter [6-inch] guns were in casemates. At the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, the *Fuji* served in the 1st Battle Division of the **First Fleet** and was under the command of Captain **Matsumoto Kazu**. The *Fuji* took part in the bombardment of **Port Arthur** on 9 February 1904 and received two hits causing light damage. On 22 March 1904 she was hit by a 305-millimeter [12-inch] shell from a Russian ship inside the harbor of Port Arthur and was sent back to **Sasebo** for repairs. Subsequently the *Fuji* participated in the **battle of the Yellow Sea** and the **battle of Tsushima**, where she sank the Russian battleship ***Borodino. In 1910 she was rerated first-class coast defense ship, and in 1922 she was disarmed and immobilized under the terms of the Washington Treaty. In the following two decades the *Fuji* served as a training ship in Yokosuka but capsized in 1945 and was scrapped three years later.

Technical data: Builder: Thames Iron Works, Poplar, Great Britain, 1894–1897; Displ.: 12,649t; LBD: 122.60×22.40×8.03m [415×73.5×26ft]; Machinery: 2-shaft VTE, 14 boilers, 13,500ihp; Speed: 18kt; Fuel: 1,200t coal; Range 4,000nm on 10kt; Armament: 4×305mm/40 [12in.], 10×152mm/40 [6in.], 24×76mm [3in.] QF, 5×457mm [18in.]

TT; Armor: compound, belt: 356–457mm [14–18in.], barbettes: 229–356mm [9–14in.], turrets: 356mm [14in.], casemates: 152mm [6in.], CT: 356mm [14in.], deck: 63mm; Comp.: 652.

FUJII, KOICHI (1858–1926). Japanese naval officer who served as chief of staff of the **Second Fleet** during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading figure in the **Imperial Japanese Navy** in later years. Fujii was born in Okayama and graduated from the seventh class of the Naval Academy. He served in various positions on the navy's general staff and on missions to **Russia**, Siam, and Italy. At the outbreak of the **First Sino–Japanese War**, he served on the navy's general staff, and later served on the captured Chinese **gunvessel** *Soko*, the gunvessel *Ôshima*, and the **cruiser** *Musashi*. In 1899 Fujii was promoted to captain and soon appointed commanding officer of a cruiser. As part of his broad spectrum of assignments, he then served on the staff of Taiwan's governor-general, at the Japanese embassy in Berlin, and again on the navy's general staff.

During the first year of the Russo–Japanese War, Fujii commanded the cruiser ***Azuma*** and took part in the **battle of the Korea Straits**. In January 1905 he was appointed chief of staff of the **Second Fleet** and was promoted to rear admiral in November that year. After the war he served in various high staff, fleet, and base posts. He was promoted to vice admiral in 1909 and admiral in 1916, and he served briefly as commander of the **First Fleet** in 1915. Toward the end of his career, Fujii became commander of the Yokosuka Naval District Force and naval councilor in 1916. He retired in 1920 and died six years later.

FUKUSHIMA, YASUMASA (1852–1919). Japanese army officer who provided important **military intelligence** about **Russia** prior to the Russo–Japanese War. He was born to a samurai family in the Matsumoto domain (today part of Nagano Prefecture) and joined the army. Fukushima took part in suppressing the Satsuma Rebellion of 1877, and in 1888 was sent to **Germany** as military attaché. On his way back to **Japan**, Fukushima, by then major, led the first Japanese reconnaissance mission in Siberia, Mongolia, and **Manchuria** during 1892–1893. Traveling alone on horseback from Berlin to **Vladivostok**, he gathered information about European armies upon instructions from the Japanese general staff. In 1895–1897 he went on another intelligence-gathering

mission in the Middle East, central Asia, and **India**. During the Russo–Japanese War, Fukushima, by then major general, served as a staff officer of the **Manchurian Army**. In 1907 he was made a baron and in 1914 was promoted to general and soon retired.

FUSHIMI, SADANARU [FUSHIMI NO MIYA SADANARU SHIN'NÔ] (1848–1923). Japanese army officer and imperial prince who served as commanding officer of a division during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading figure in the **Imperial Japanese Army** in later years. He was born in Kyoto as a Fushimi scion, entered the army, and took part in suppressing the Satsuma Rebellion of 1877 and in the **First Sino–Japanese War**. In 1901 he was promoted to lieutenant general and was appointed commanding officer of the **1st Division**. During the Russo–Japanese War he commanded this division as part of the **Third Army** and took part in the **battle of Nanshan** and the first stages of the **siege of Port Arthur**. In June 1904 he was promoted to general and subsequently was assigned to the **United States** to represent **Japan**. After the war he became a leading figure in the army and was promoted to field marshal in 1915.

– G –

GAPON, GEORGII APOLLONOVICH (1870–1906). Russian orthodox priest and organizer of the workingman's movement involved in the **Bloody Sunday** massacre in **St. Petersburg** during the Russo–Japanese War. Gapon graduated from the ecclesiastical seminary in Poltava in 1893 and studied at the St. Petersburg Ecclesiastical Academy between 1898 and 1903. In 1902 he began to create a number of workingmen's organizations and kept close contacts with S. V. Zubatov, the creator of Police Socialism. In 1903 he founded the Assembly of the Russian Factory and Mill Workers of the City of St. Petersburg. As one of the initiators of a petition to be sent to Tsar **Nicholas II**, Gapon led the workers' demonstration to the Winter Palace on 22 January 1905. In the subsequent events, known as Bloody Sunday, he was knocked down during the shooting that stopped the demonstrators and was removed to a safe place. Fearing

arrest by the police, he fled to Paris, where he wrote his memoirs and collaborated with various Russian revolutionary bodies. Gapon remained there until the amnesty of October 1905, after which he eventually returned to **Russia**. There he was ordered by the police to restore the controllable Worker Assembly. He allegedly agreed to serve as an agent for the Russian secret police and was exposed as a spy by P. Rutenberg, a member of the Russian Social Revolutionary Party. On 28 March 1906 a revolutionary council meeting condemned him to death and the next day he was hanged.

GENERAL ADMIRAL GRAF APRAKSIN*.** Russian coastal defense **battleship** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was one of three ships of the ***Admiral Ushakov class but differed from the other two by having a one-gun after-turret, a modification made to compensate for overweight as a result of low-quality project implementation. At the outbreak of the war she served in the **Baltic Fleet** and was later attached to the **Third Pacific Squadron**. She subsequently left with her squadron under the command of Rear Admiral **Nikolai Nebogatov** for the shortened course of the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet** via the **Suez Canal**. After her surrender in the **battle of Tsushima**, the **Imperial Japanese Navy** recommissioned her as the *Okinoshima*. She was removed from the fleet list in 1926.

Technical data: Builder: New Admiralty, St. Petersburg, Russia, 1894–1899; Displacement: 4,971t; LBD: 87.32×15.85×5.94m [286.6×52×19.5ft]; Machinery: 8 cylinder boilers, 2-shaft VTE, 5,750ihp; Speed: 16kt; Fuel: 300/450t coal; Armament: 3×254mm/45 [10in.], 4×120mm/45 [4.7in.] (2×2), 6×3pdr, 10×1pdr, 6×1pdr revolvers, 4×381mm [15in.] TT; Armor: Harvey, belt: 102–254mm [4–10in.], CT: 203mm [8in.], turret: 203mm [8in.]; Comp.: 404.

GENRO [*GENRÔ*]. Japanese "elder statesmen" who virtually ruled **Japan** during the latter part of the Meiji era and were leading figures in Japanese politics during the Russo–Japanese War. Literally "the original elders," this unofficial designation referred to the men known today as the founding fathers of the modern Japanese state. This term was linked at times with the official *Genrôin*, or legislative Chamber of Elders. Those so titled were chosen for their services and awarded

the title *Genkun* and the position of imperial advisors with the right to select and recommend prime ministers for the emperor to appoint. They dealt, and sometimes meddled, in long-term politics and crucial decision-making. During the Russo–Japanese War, all were samurai of the ex-feudal domains of Chôshû (now Yamaguchi Prefecture) and Satsuma (now Kagoshima Prefecture), which dominated the Meiji Restoration. The first two to be given the title were **Itô Hirobumi** and Kuroda Kiyotaka, followed by **Matsukata Masayoshi**, **Ôyama Iwao**, Saigô Tsugumichi, **Yamagata Aritomo**, and **Inoue Kaoru**. All of them were *sangi* (imperial councilors) who remained in this capacity when the title was abolished in 1885. In 1901, for the first time, the genro failed to solve a political crisis by making one of their members prime minister. When Itô stepped down, Yamagata installed his protégé, **Katsura Tarô**, who a few years later joined the genro ranks. During the Russo–Japanese War, five men bore the title, with an average age of 66: Itô, Matsukata, Ôyama, Yamagata, and Inoue.

GERARD, MONTAGUE GILBERT (1843–1905). British army officer who served as senior **military observer** during the Russo–Japanese War. He was educated at Stonyhurst, Upshaw College, Durham, and entered the Royal Artillery in 1864. Subsequently he served in the Abyssinian Expedition of 1867–1868 and in **India** in 1870–1895. He was promoted to captain in 1876. He also took part in the Afghan War of 1878–1881 and was engaged in Secret Service work in **Iran** [Persia] in 1881–1882. Gerard was promoted to major in 1884 and returned to Secret Service work in Iran in 1885. After organizing the tour of the Russian crown prince Nicholas (later Tsar **Nicholas II**) in India in 1890–1891, Gerard was in 1896 promoted to temporary brigadier general, general officer commanding, Hyderabad, and to major general in 1897. During the **Boer War** he was especially employed in the purchase of remounts in Europe. During the Russo–Japanese War he headed, as a major general of the Royal Artillery, the British military mission to the **Imperial Russian Army** in **Manchuria** from March 1904 to July 1905. On his return journey he died in Irkutsk, and many of his possessions were stolen.

GERMANY. A neutral European power siding with **Russia** during the Russo–Japanese War. Germany was not directly involved in the war,

but its position in European politics and military balance was affected by it. In the 40 years that preceded the war, Germany's position in Europe was on the rise. Under the guidance of Bismarck, a dispute between Austria and Prussia over control of the Danish duchies of Schleswig and Holstein led to a war between the two countries in 1866, with Prussia securing both Italian help and the **neutrality** of **France**. France's demands for south German territories were used by Bismarck to secure the cooperation of those territories, and a dispute over the Spanish succession escalated into a war between France and Prussia in 1870–1871. Subsequently Bismarck established peaceful relations with Russia, Italy, and **Austro–Hungary**, and even swayed **Great Britain** to deprive the rearming France of allies and ensure the peace that would allow the German empire to grow. Confrontation between Russia and Austria led Germany to an Austro–German defensive alliance against Russia in 1879. Two years later a new treaty was signed between the emperors of the three countries, supporting each other against other powers and settling the Balkan problem. By the mid-1880s Germany had acquired some African territories, but only under the rule of Emperor **William II** did German territorial ambitions began to collide with those of Great Britain and France.

In the aftermath of the **First Sino–Japanese War**, Germany joined Russia and France in the **Three-Power Intervention** in an attempt to win favor with Russia. The three nations forced **Japan** to surrender its territorial gains in **Manchuria**. During that war William II coined the phrase "the **Yellow Peril**," referring to the threat posed by an Asian invasion to Western civilization. But more than fearful, he was fascinated by the commercial potential of the region. Russian gratitude for German assistance proved short-lived as Germany sought to win control over the port of Kiaochou [Jiaozhou] from the Chinese. It eventually leased from China a part of the Shantung [Shandong] peninsula in 1898. British endeavors at that time to secure a mutual defense alliance with Germany met with procrastination, which eventually led instead to the **Anglo–Japanese Alliance** in 1902. At the turn of the century, Germany was evidently the strongest land power in Europe, counter-balanced only by the British **Royal Navy**. Continuing with Bismarck's paternalist principle of social welfare, Germany prospered internally, although its commercial expansion turned into sharpening rivalry with Great Britain. William

II's ambitions exacerbated international tension by setting in motion a naval construction plan that was supposed to counter the British naval advantage in 17 years. This period was shortened, however, by the launching of the HMS *Dreadnought*, which leveled the playing field by cutting Britain's vast numerical advantage in **pre-dreadnought** classes.

During the Russo–Japanese War, William II supported Tsar **Nicholas II** in words but was unwilling to substantially aid the Russian war effort in general or the Russian navy, the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet** in particular. The rise of Germany caused Britain to sign the **Anglo–French Entente** in 1904, and William II responded with an exercise in personal diplomacy: a year later he signed the **Treaty of Bjorko** with Tsar **Nicholas II**. The best evidence for the failure of this attempt to create a Russo–German defensive alliance is the signing of the **Anglo–Russian Entente** in 1907. Now, Great Britain, France, and Russia effectively encircled Germany with potentially hostile forces. Another negative effect on Germany's foreign relations was exerted by the **Moroccan Crisis** during the last stages of the Russo–Japanese War. The direct move of France in Morocco, where Germany hoped to achieve an open-door policy, resulted in a clash between the two powers. Expecting France to cave in and for Great Britain to desert it, Germany was unpleasantly surprised when all the participants with the exception of Austro–Hungary voted against the German proposal.

In sum, during the Russo–Japanese War and its aftermath, Germany's foreign relations and geopolitical situation deteriorated considerably, compared with a decade earlier. Not only were Great Britain and France aware of the threat Germany posed and collaborated explicitly against it, but the defeated Russia rebounded to meddle more intensively in European politics, the Balkans in particular, while joining Germany's rivals in attempts to encircle it. Furthermore, the Royal Navy began in earnest to challenge any German endeavors to balance British naval superiority. The German sense of growing isolation, together with its expanding economy in those years, was one factor in the outbreak of World War I a decade later.

GERNGROSS [GERNGROS], ALEKSANDR ALEKSEEVICH (1851–1925). Russian army officer who served as commanding offi-

cer of a division and a corps during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading figure in the **Imperial Russian Army** after the war. Lieutenant General Gerngross began the war as the commanding officer of the 1st East Siberian Rifle Division of the **First Siberian Army Corps** and took part in the **battle of Telissu**. He subsequently became the commander of his corps and with it fought in the **battle of Liaoyang**. During the **battle of Sha-ho** he commanded the ad hoc reserve formed from the Eastern Detachment, and on 16 October 1905 he successfully commanded the recapture of the Putilov and One Tree Hills south of the Sha River. After a short break, in February 1905 he was reinstated as commander of the First Siberian Army Corps, which he led in the **battle of Mukden**. During this final land battle of the war, Gerngross engaged the Japanese **Third Army**, but despite his tenacity he did not receive assistance from the reserve and had to retreat. After the war he won much praise for his military performance on the Manchurian battleground, and in 1911 he was appointed chief of the general staff of the army, a position he held until March 1914.

GERSHELMAN, SERGEI KONSTANTINOVICH (1853–1910). Russian army officer who served as commanding officer of a division during the Russo–Japanese War. He graduated from the elite Corps of Pages in 1872 and from the Nikolaev General Staff Academy in 1881, and he took part in the Russo–Turkish War of 1877–1878. In the Russo–Japanese War he commanded the 9th East Siberian Rifle Division of the **First Siberian Army Corps** and this unit in the **battle of Liaoyang**. After the war he was appointed commander of the Moscow Military District in 1906, and for the next three years he directed military operations there to suppress revolutionary disturbances. From 1909 until his death a year later he commanded the Vilno Military District. Gershelman was promoted to general in 1910 and toward the end of his career wrote on military psychology.

GINZBURG, MOISEI AKIMOVICH (1851–1936). Russian businessman who became the main supplier of the **Baltic Fleet** during the Russo–Japanese War and logistic architect of the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet**. Ginzburg was born into a destitute Jewish family, and at the age of 15 he left for western Europe in search of work. He

sailed to New York and eventually arrived in Yokohama. In 1877 he began his business in **Japan**, supplying ships of the **Imperial Russian Navy** stationed at Nagasaki and Yokohama, and soon became their exclusive supplier. With the establishment of **Port Arthur** as the Russian naval base in East Asia, he established his supply lines there as well. In 1903 Ginzburg purchased and delivered to **Port Arthur** large amounts of coal, provisions, machinery, and medical supplies, partly by order of the Viceroy **Evgenii Alekseev**, partly at his own initiative.

Soon after the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, Ginzburg was sent by Vice Admiral **Stepan Makarov** to **St. Petersburg**, where he was entrusted with supplying the Baltic Fleet and coordination of Pacific routes. Subsequently Ginzburg was ordered to deliver coal and supplies to the **Second Pacific Squadron**, which he coordinated throughout the voyage to Asia. For this assignment he was awarded the 4th-grade Order of St. Vladimir and a high rank of the civil service. Ginzburg remained the exclusive supplier of the Imperial Russian Navy during World War I. After the Bolshevik Revolution he moved to Paris, helping Russian officers in exile until his death.

GORBATOVSKII, VLADIMIR NIKOLAEVICH (1851–1924). Russian army officer who took part in the defense of **Port Arthur** during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading figure in the **Imperial Russian Army** during World War I. He graduated from the Pavlovskii military college and took part in the Russo–Turkish War of 1877–1878. In 1893 Gorbatovskii served as a commanding officer of a battalion, and subsequently of a regiment. In early 1904 he was stationed in Port Arthur as commander of the 1st Rifle Brigade of the 7th East Siberian Rifle Division under the command of Lieutenant General **Roman Kondratenko**. During the early stages of the **siege of Port Arthur**, he successfully commanded the eastern line of the Russian defense, notably the forts of Wantai [Eagle's Nest] and the Chinese Wall. Gorbatovskii supported the idea of defending the fortress to the last man, and in his actions he realized this stance. On 20 December 1904 he disobeyed the order of Major General **Aleksandr Fok** to evacuate the Chinese Wall, but less than two weeks later he surrendered together with the remaining defenders. He returned to **Russia**, and after the war commanded the Alekseevskii military col-

lege and was promoted to lieutenant general. During World War I, he commanded the 12th Army Corps, was promoted to general, and then commanded the Sixth and the Tenth Armies. He left Russia following the Bolshevik Revolution and died seven years later.

GREAT BRITAIN. A neutral European power siding with **Japan** during the Russo–Japanese War. British involvement in East Asia was matched only by **Russia**'s advance to the south of Siberia. Britain's victory in the First Opium War against **China** set the scene for Britain's wars in the second half of the 19th century. These were mostly colonial wars fought against inferior forces far from the British Isles, in Burma, **India**, New Zealand, and the Near East. Twice it cooperated with **France**: during the Crimean War against Russia in 1853–1856, supporting the Turks, and during the second Opium War with China (1856–1860), which ended with the **Treaty of Peking** [Beijing], earning Britain indemnities and concessions on Chinese soil. Nevertheless, throughout this entire time, Great Britain kept to itself in "Splendid Isolation" and signed no alliances, growing and expanding its control to nearly a quarter of the world's lands and population. Having engaged in the **Boer War** at the end of the 19th century, Britain found itself antagonized and isolated in the global arena.

The turn of the century marked the beginning of an evident decline of the British empire. The naval race during the 1890s placed a mighty burden on its budget. Realizing that the **Royal Navy** would not be able to sustain its hegemony, pronounced in the "Two Power Standard Plus," Britain chose to abandon its diplomatic isolation. It also determined priorities for the defense of the empire, which rendered East Asia of relatively minor importance. The death of Queen Victoria in 1901 after a 63-year reign was perceived as bringing the empire's glory to a close, and the old Prime Minister Lord Salisbury resigned after three terms in office. Prior to his resignation, in 1902 he concluded the **Anglo–Japanese Alliance**, which allowed Britain to concentrate more warships in the European arena, while backing Japan's effort to prevent Russia from taking over **Manchuria** and **Korea**. Still, while apprehensive of the Russian territorial appetite in Asia, in Europe the British were more concerned by German military and economic might. In 1904 newly elected Prime Minister **Arthur Balfour,**

with the support of King Edward VII, went ahead and signed the **Anglo–French Entente**, which drew Britain still further from Russia.

Although Great Britain announced its neutrality soon after the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War and officially did not display any particular favor for Japan, it assisted Japan in various ways. Not only did it deter any third power that might have intervened for Russia, but it supplied vital munitions to Japan before and during the war. Furthermore, it informed the Japanese of movements of Russian ships and was instrumental in pressuring Turkey to prevent the Russian **Black Sea Fleet** from sailing through the Bosphorus. In British eyes the war only enhanced the importance of Japan, and on 12 August 1905 the two nations extended their alliance for another five years, although the treaty was still in effect. The growing importance of Japan was also reflected in the elevation of the post of minister in **Tokyo** to ambassadorial level soon after the end of the war, a step to be followed by all the other leading powers.

Following the Russo–Japanese War, Britain no longer considered Russia a threat and with the encouragement of France concluded the **Anglo–Russian Entente** in 1907. Consequently the three countries could effectively balance the alliance among **Germany**, **Austro–Hungary**, and Italy, and split Europe into two armed camps that would clash in World War I. During the decade after the Russo–Japanese War, Britain was further engaged in a naval race with the Imperial German Navy. The latter enjoyed great superiority in **pre-dreadnought battleships**, but Britain drew more or less level when it introduced the **dreadnought**. Despite the alliance with Japan, the victory of this rising Asian power caused certain fears in London for the safety of British interests in Asia. Thereafter British policy in East Asia sought to contain and appease Japan, thereby also avoiding unnecessary military expenditure. The two nations still cooperated in 1914 in taking over German territories in East Asia, but during the 1920s the rift between them grew substantially, leading to the ultimate demise of their 21-year-old alliance.

GRIGOROVICH, IVAN KONSTANTINOVICH (1835–1930). Russian naval officer who served as senior officer of the **Pacific Fleet** during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading figure in the **Imperial Russian Navy** after the war. At the outbreak of the

Russo–Japanese War he served as commanding officer of the **battleship *Tsessarevich***, and in March 1904 he was appointed commanding officer of the harbor of **Port Arthur**. Following the Russian surrender of the fort, he chose to return to **Russia** and was appointed chief of staff of the **Black Sea Fleet** and the ports of the Black Sea region. Grigorovich was appointed commanding officer of the naval base of Libau [present-day Liepaja in Latvia] in 1906 and became the commander of the naval base of **Kronstadt** in 1908. He was appointed assistant to the navy minister in 1909 and promoted to admiral in 1911.

Grigorovich served as navy minister from 1911 to March 1917 and was in charge of the Imperial Russian Navy during most of World War I. Politically he became sympathetic to the objectives of the Octoberist Party and was even nominated by that party as candidate for the position of prime minister in 1916. His nomination was rejected, however, by the dowager tsarina because of his reputation for liberalism. After the Bolshevik Revolution, Grigorovich served on the Historical Commission, which asked him to write his memoirs. In 1923 he received permission to emigrate to **France**, where he lived until his death seven years later.

GRIPPENBERG, OSKAR FERDINAND KASIMIROVITCH (1838–1915). Russian army officer who served as commander of the **Second Manchurian Army**. He took part in the Crimean War of 1853–1856, in subduing the Polish uprising of 1863, in various central Asian campaigns, and the Russo–Turkish War of 1877–1878. In 1902 he was promoted to general, although he had never commanded a unit larger than a battalion before the Russo–Japanese War. During the early stage of the Russo–Japanese War, he served as aide-de-camp to Tsar **Nicholas II**. In September 1904 he was appointed commander of the Second Manchurian Army and led the Russian forces during the **battle of Sandepu**. Following the debacle of this battle, on 30 January 1905 Grippenberg requested from General **Aleksei Kuropatkin** to be relieved of his command. He was replaced by General **Aleksandr Kaulbars**. In June 1905 he was appointed chief **infantry** inspector and retired in May 1906.

GRISCOM, LLOYD CARPENTER (1872–1959). American diplomat who served as minister in **Tokyo** during the Russo–Japanese

War. He was born in Riverton, New Jersey, studied law, and became a member of the Republican Party. Griscom served in the army during the Spanish–American War and was later appointed minister to **Iran** [Persia] and to **Japan** in the years before and after the Russo–Japanese War. In his capacity as minister he brought about some contacts with U.S. President **Theodore Roosevelt** that led to the **Portsmouth Peace Conference**. Back from Japan, Griscom was appointed ambassador to Brazil and Italy and was later nominated a delegate to the Republican National Convention from New York.

GROMOBOI*.** Russian armored **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. The only ship of the *Gromoboi* class, she was an improved model of commerce-raiding cruisers. Similar to the earlier cruiser ***Rossia, she was fitted with normal 3-shaft machinery, and the forward and midship gun received encasement. At the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War she belonged to the **Vladivostok Independent Cruiser Squadron** as part of the **Pacific Fleet**. She participated in the exploits of her cruiser squadron, including the **attack on the Tsushima Straits**, and survived an engagement with Japanese cruisers in the **battle of the Korea Straits** although she sustained heavy damage and casualties. *Gromoboi* was repaired but hit a **mine** off **Vladivostok** on 23 May 1905. She was repaired again after the war and rearmed in 1906. She was operational in the **Baltic Fleet** during World War I and was eventually scrapped in 1922.

Technical data: Builder: Baltic Works, St. Petersburg, Russia, 1897–1900; Displ.: 13,220t; LBD: 146.60×20.88×8.48m [480×68.5×28ft]; Machinery: 32 Belleville boilers, 3-shaft VTE, 15,500ihp; Speed: 20kt; Fuel: 1,720t coal; Armament: 4×203mm/45 [8in.] (4×1), 16×152mm/45 [6in.], 24×11pdr, 4×3pdr, 4×1pdr, 4×381mm [15in.] TT sub; Armor: KC, belt: 152mm [6in.], casemates: 51–127mm [2–5in.], CT: 305mm [12in.]; Comp.: 877.

GUANDONG PENINSULA. *See* KWANTUNG PENINSULA.

GUNBOATS. *See* GUNVESSELS.

***GUNSHIN* [WAR GOD].** Title accorded to extremely heroic figures who perished in the Russo–Japanese War and afterward. Literally

"war god," this title was mentioned for the first time in a newspaper article on 30 March 1904, following an announcement by the Japanese **Imperial General Headquarters**. It referred to Lieutenant Commander **Hirose Takeo** of the **Imperial Japanese Navy**, who had sacrificed his life during the second attempt at the **naval blockade of Port Arthur** four days earlier. The title was awarded only once more during the war: to Major **Tachibana Shûta** of the **Imperial Japanese Army**, who died in the **battle of Liaoyang**. These extreme models of heroism of each branch of the Japanese military remained a symbol of self-sacrifice until **Japan**'s defeat in 1945. The title *gunshin* was given again at the outbreak of World War II, to the fallen skippers of the mini-submarines employed at the onset of the attack on Pearl Harbor. Later it was awarded to the *kamikaze* [*tokkotai*] pilots.

GUNSHIPS. *See* GUNVESSELS.

GUNVESSELS [GUNBOATS, GUNSHIPS]. A type of small-to-medium warship used in the Russo–Japanese War for guarding colonial ports, patrolling, and assisting land forces in coastal operations. This broad definition covered any vessel under 1,500 tons that was not used as a **cruiser** or a **destroyer**, and was armed with small- to medium-caliber guns. After the war, the sinking of the Russian gunvessel ***Koreets*** at **Chemulpo** was used by the **Royal Navy** as an example of how **military intelligence** and the concentration of enemy forces could turn such obsolete vessels into sitting ducks, and therefore the Admiralty decided to reduce their numbers. Nevertheless, the assistance of two British gunvessels during the riots in Shanghai in December 1905 demonstrated that the British decision was right perhaps in times of war; but in times of peace and when used in colonial ports these vessels still performed some indispensable roles.

GURKO, VASILII OSIPOVICH (1864–1937). Russian army officer who served as commanding officer of a **Cossack** brigade during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading figure in the **Imperial Russian Army** during World War I. Gurko graduated from the elite Corps of Pages in 1885 and from the General Staff Academy in 1892, and he served as an attaché to the Boer army during the **Boer War** in 1899–1900. During the Russo–Japanese War he held headquarters

assignments and commanded a Cossack brigade. Between 1906 and 1911 he served as a chair of the commission that investigated and studied the Russo–Japanese War. In 1911–1914 he was commanding officer of the 1st Cavalry Division, and in 1915–1916 he commanded the Fifth Army Corps. Subsequently he commanded the Special Army on the Southwestern Front from August 1916. From October that year to February 1917, he held the duties of the chief of staff of the supreme commander-in-chief, replacing the ailing General **Mikhail Alekseev**. In March 1917, Gurko was appointed commander of the Western front, but two months later he was demoted by the Russian provisional government to the position of divisional commander because of his support for the tsarist regime. In September 1917 he was exiled, and died abroad two decades later.

– H –

HAGUE PEACE CONFERENCE (1899). The largest diplomatic conference prior to the Russo–Japanese War since the Congress of Vienna. It was initiated by Tsar **Nicholas II** and was held at the Dutch seat of government. It was attended by representatives of 26 governments and focused on the limitation of armaments. The conference also considered laws of war on land, extension of the 1864 Geneva Convention to the sea, and international arbitration. Although the Russian delegates proposed bans on new firearms, **submarines**, and ships with rams, as well as prohibitions against firing projectiles or explosives from **balloons** or "similar means," the German delegates opposed limits on armies and the British on navies; the American delegate, **Alfred Mahan**, opposed any limitation. Avoiding the issue of new firearms or submarines, the conference negotiated declarations against expanding ("dumdum") bullets, poison gas, and the aerial use of explosives from balloons. The conference also made significant progress in codification of the laws of land warfare, which proved its merit during the **Boer War** and the Russo–Japanese War. It also adopted the Russians' proposal and extended to the sea the 1864 Geneva Convention on the protection of victims of war on land.

HAGUE PEACE CONFERENCE (1907). The largest diplomatic conference after the Russo–Japanese War and before World War I. It was

initiated by U.S. President **Theodore Roosevelt**, called officially by Tsar **Nicholas II**, and held in the Dutch capital. The conference was attended by 44 governments and focused on naval warfare at sea, as the Russo–Japanese War had presented neutral countries with numerous maritime dilemmas. The conference resulted in a new convention about the Geneva rules at sea. The issue of blockades and contraband was discussed at a second conference, which resulted in the Declaration of London of 1909. That conference revised the convention concluded in the first, regarding the need for a formal declaration before beginning hostilities. Furious over the surprise Japanese **naval attack on Port Arthur**, the Russians pressed for agreement on this convention, although the Japanese flouted it again in 1941. Major achievements of the two Hague conferences were international arbitration agreements. Although a third conference scheduled for 1915 was canceled, much of its legacy survived, as the League of Nations in 1920 adopted a world court statute based on the 1907 court project.

HAICHENG [*KAIJÔ*]. Chinese town in south **Manchuria** taken by Japanese forces during the Russo–Japanese War. It is located on the route connecting **Port Arthur** with **Liaoyang**, about 60 kilometers [38 miles] southwest of the latter (40° 56' north 122° 51' east), and its surrounding area was much fortified by the **Imperial Russian Army** in the early stages of the war. Nevertheless, on 3 August 1904 it fell to the Japanese with very little opposition. Haicheng became the convergence site of the **Second Army** and the **Fourth Army**, which found most of the Russian supplies there intact.

HALDANE, JAMES AYLMER LOWTHORPE (1862–1950). British army officer who served as **military observer** during the Russo–Japanese War. Educated at Edinburgh Academy and Sandhurst, he joined the Gordon Highlanders in 1882. A decade later Haldane was promoted to captain and took part in the **Boer War**. In 1901 he was appointed staff captain in the Intelligence Section and was promoted to lieutenant colonel a year later. As a deputy assistant quartermaster general in the same section, he was attached to the **Imperial Japanese Army** in **Manchuria** from July 1904 to September 1905. After the war, Haldane was promoted to colonel and served as assistant director of military operations and intelligence in 1906–1909. He was promoted to brigadier general and became general officer commanding of

the 10th Brigade in 1912 and general officer commanding of the 3rd Division and the Sixth Corps in World War I. During the war he was promoted to major general and lieutenant general; he was promoted to general in 1925 and retired a year later.

HAMILTON, IAN STANDISH MONTEITH (1853–1947). British army officer who served as senior **military observer** during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading military figure during World War I. Hamilton was born in Corfu, graduated from Wellington, and joined the army. He was transferred to the 92nd Highlanders for the duration of the Second Afghan War and came to the notice of General Frederick Roberts. Sent to South Africa, Hamilton fought under General Colley in Majuba Hill and was wounded, captured, and left disabled in his left wrist. He also served in Wolseley's expedition down the Nile and in the Third Burmese War. As colonel he was in command of a brigade on the northwest frontier of the Tirah campaign. Returning to South Africa as chief of staff to General George White's Natal force, he commanded an infantry brigade at Elandslagate during the **Boer War**. Despite the losses he suffered, Hamilton was promoted to lieutenant general and given command of a division. He took part in the last major battle of the war.

Hamilton returned to **Great Britain** to serve as quartermaster general but soon was appointed commander of the observer mission with the **Imperial Japanese Army** in **Manchuria** during the Russo–Japanese War. On his return he published his famous book *A Staff Officer's Scrap-Book during the Russo–Japanese War*, about his experiences there. He later was head of Southern Command and adjutant general, and played a major role in opposing Lord Roberts's conscription plans. During World War I he was appointed commander-in-chief in the Mediterranean and later served several months as commander-in-chief of the British Home Defense Army. Hamilton then returned to the Mediterranean as expedition commander and directed the **landing operations** in Gallipoli. He was hampered by many logistic issues and human errors, and his refusal to withdraw earned him dismissal and recall. Thereafter he held no more military positions but took an interest in the welfare of ex-servicemen.

HARBIN [HAERBIN; *HARUBIN*]. Major Chinese city in central **Manchuria** and major Russian stronghold during the Russo–

Japanese War. It is situated on the south bank of the Sungari River in the northeastern Chinese province of **Heilungkiang**, about 350 kilometers [220 miles] north of **Mukden** and 400 kilometers [250 miles] west of **Vladivostok** (45° 30' north and 126° 40' east). Harbin was founded in 1897 as a Russian railroad construction settlement at the **Chinese Eastern Railway** junction between **Dalny** and Vladivostok, and it soon became the economic hub of all northern Manchuria and the provincial capital. Due to its location, it served during the Russo–Japanese War as a Russian supply base and headquarters of the Manchurian armies in the latter part of the war. Subsequently, the city remained under notable foreign influence due to the Russian heritage and the long Japanese presence. This was largely economic in nature during the 1920s, and became dominant in the early 1930s with **Japan**'s takeover of Manchuria. The Japanese Kwantung Army [Guandong Army; *Kantôgun*] used it as a base for **military intelligence** operations against the Soviet Union, and it remained there until its demise in 1945. Harbin was occupied by the Soviets in 1945 and returned to communist **China** a year later. It was merely a local wheat market at the end of the 19th century but experienced phenomenal growth; at the beginning of the 21st century, it boasts a population of more than 3 million (metropolitan population of nearly 10 million).

HASEGAWA, YOSHIMICHI (1850–1924). Japanese army officer who served as commanding officer of the **Imperial Guards Division** during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading figure in the **Imperial Japanese Army** in later years. Born in the Chôshû domain (now Yamaguchi Prefecture), Hasegawa served with the clan forces during the Boshin War against the shogunal forces during the Meiji Restoration. He subsequently joined the new government army and participated in pacifying the Satsuma Rebellion of 1877. Hasegawa later traveled for studies to **France** and on his return to **Japan** was promoted to major general. He took part in the **First Sino–Japanese War**, winning distinction for valor for himself and his unit in combat. Soon after the war he was made a baron and then promoted to lieutenant general. In 1898 Hasegawa was appointed commanding officer of the Imperial Guards Division; during the early stages of the Russo–Japanese War, he led this unit, as part of General **Kuroki Tametomo**'s **First Army**. He distinguished himself in the **battle of**

the Yalu and took part in all subsequent campaigns of the First Army, including the **battle of Liaoyang**. In June 1904 Hasegawa was promoted to general and in September received command of the **Korea** garrison army, a position he held until 1908. He later became army chief of staff. His military success was fully recognized as in 1907 he was made a viscount and in 1916 a count. In 1915 Hasegawa was promoted to field marshal and his last assignment was as governor-general of Korea in 1916–1919.

HASHIDATE*.** Japanese protected **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was the last of the three ships of the ***Matsushima class and was the first protected cruiser built in **Japan**. Her design was French, like that of ***Itsukushima***, and her armament was imported from **France**. At the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, *Hashidate* belonged to the 5th Division of the **Third Fleet** and served in supporting roles. She took part in the **battle of Tsushima** as the flagship of Rear Admiral **Taketomi Kunikane**. Relegated to a training role in 1906, she was scrapped in 1927.

Technical data: Builder: Yokosuka Navy Yard, Japan, 1888–1894; Displ.: 4,492t; LBD: 91.81×15.59×6.05m [301×51.3×20ft]; Machinery: 2-shaft VTE, 8 boilers, 5,400ihp; Speed: 16kt; Fuel: 680t coal; Range 5,500nm on 10kt; Armament: 1×320mm/38 [12.6in.], 11×120mm/38 [4.7in.], 6×57mm/43 QF, 12×37mm/23 [1.5in.] QF, 4×356mm [14in.] TT; Armor: steel, barbettes: 102–305mm [4–12in.], casemates: 110mm [4.33in.], CT: 25–102mm [1–4in.], deck: 37mm [1.5in.]; Comp.: 355.

HATSUSE*.** Japanese **battleship** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was one of two ships of the newly built ***Shikishima class, an improved British *Majestic* design, and when completed she was among the most powerful afloat. She was considered a great improvement on the ***Fuji*** class in armor and armament. *Hatsuse* served in the 1st Battle Division of the **First Fleet** at the outbreak of the war as the flagship of Rear Admiral **Nashiwa Tokioki**. She took part in the bombardment of **Port Arthur** on 9 February 1904 and suffered two hits causing the loss of seven killed. While on patrol on 15 May 1904, *Hatsuse* was hit by two **mines** laid by the Russian **minelayer** ***Amur***. After the first explosion she was taken in tow by the ***Asahi*** but hit a second mine, which

ignited her magazines. She sank off Port Arthur within two minutes with the loss of 493 lives the same day as the ***Yashima***.

Technical data: Builder: Armstrong Whitworth, Elswick, Great Britain, 1898–1901; Displ.: 15,255t; LBD: 133.50×23.00×8.29m [438×75×27ft]; Machinery: 2-shaft VTE, 25 boilers, 14,667ihp; Speed: 18kt; Fuel: 1,900t coal; Range 5,000nm on 10kt; Armament: 4×305mm/40 [12in.], 14×152mm/45 [6in.], 20×76mm [3in.] QF, 12×47mm, 4×457mm [18in.] TT; Armor: Harvey nickel steel, belt: 102–229mm [4–9in.], barbettes: 152–356mm [6–14in.], turrets: 203–254mm [8–10in.], casemates: 152mm [6in.], CT: 76–356mm [3–14in.], deck: 51–102mm [2–4in.]; Comp.: 741.

HAY, JOHN MILTON (1838–1905). American statesman and diplomat who served as secretary of state during the Russo–Japanese War. He was the initiator of America's **Open-Door Policy** in **China** and was involved in the preparations for the **Portsmouth Peace Conference**. Hay was born in Salem, Indiana, and practiced law in Springfield. He then worked as a personal secretary to Abraham Lincoln and later published a biography of his life. Hay became a diplomat and served in a minor position in Europe. He was then appointed assistant secretary of state and ambassador to **Great Britain**. Eventually he served as secretary of state under presidents William McKinley and **Theodore Roosevelt**. In 1899 he began pursuing the Open-Door Policy, which aimed to protect U.S. commercial interests in China. Hay was also involved in the construction of the Panama Canal and closely associated with improving Anglo–American relations at the turn of the twentieth century. He died in 1905 while preparing the ground for the Portsmouth Peace Conference that concluded the Russo–Japanese War.

HAYASHI, SENJÛRÔ (1876–1943). Japanese army officer and statesman who served as a junior officer during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading figure in the Japanese military and politics in later years. Hayashi was born in Ishikawa and graduated from the Army Academy and War College. During the Russo–Japanese War he participated in the **siege of Port Arthur** as part of the **Third Army**. After the war he advanced rapidly and served as the head of the Army War College and commanding officer of the **Imperial Guards Divi-**

sion. During the Manchurian Incident of 1931, he sent his troops without authorization to assist the Kwantung Army [Guandong Army; *Kantôgun*] in taking over **Manchuria**. Nonetheless, he was promoted to general in 1932 and appointed army minister two years later. In 1935 he dismissed the extremist general **Mazaki Jinzaburô**, thereby aggravating factional rivalry within the army. Following the abortive coup d'état in February 1936 he retired from military service, and in early 1937 he became prime minister. Hayashi formed a government without party representation and dissolved the Diet, but in April that year the major parties won the election and he was forced to resign.

HAYASHI, TADASU (1850–1913). Japanese diplomat who was involved in concluding a number of diplomatic agreements before and after the Russo–Japanese War. Hayashi was born in the Shimosa domain (now Chiba Prefecture) and studied in **Great Britain** in 1866–1868. After the Meiji Restoration he fled to Hokkaido with a group of loyalists to the old regime, was captured, and was released in 1870. Despite his youthful misdeeds, he joined the Iwakura Mission in 1871; after his return in 1873 he served in the Ministry of Public Works. Hayashi was appointed minister to Great Britain in 1900 and took part in concluding the **Anglo–Japanese Alliance** in 1902. During the Russo–Japanese War, Hayashi became the first ambassador to Great Britain. In 1906 he was appointed foreign minister, and he was involved in the **Franco–Japanese agreement** of 1907 and the **Russo–Japanese agreements** of 1907 and 1910. Hayashi was made a count in 1909 and served as minister of communications in 1911–1912.

HEIJÔ. *See* PYONGYANG.

HEILUNGKIANG [HEILONGJIANG]. The largest of the three provinces of **Manchuria**, **China**, which was virtually under Russian control during the Russo–Japanese War. It borders on **Russia** to the north and east, on Inner Mongolia to the west, and on the provinces of **Kirin** and **Liaoning** to the south. It covers over half of the Manchurian plain and is girded by mountains on three sides. It has long, severe winters and rainy summers. The population is largely

Chinese but consists also of numerous smaller ethnic groups such as Manchu, Koreans, Muslims, and Mongolians. Until the 19th century it was an undeveloped steppe and forest region, roamed by nomadic tribes. The Russians built a fortress on the Amur River, annexed additional areas, and maintained control of the province in the beginning of the 20th century. Under Russian control, railways were constructed, the capital city of **Harbin** serving as the hub with connections to the **Trans-Siberian Railway**, **Korea**, and other Russian holdings such as **Port Arthur**. In the aftermath of the Russo–Japanese War, Russian forces evacuated Heilungkiang and it remained in Chinese hands until the Japanese occupation in 1931. It was retaken by the Soviets during World War II and returned to China.

HEIMINSHA [SOCIETY OF COMMONERS]. Socialist organization founded to protest Japanese pro-war sentiment on the eve of the Russo–Japanese War. It was founded by the political activist **Kôtoku Shûsui** and the journalist **Sakai Toshihiko** in October 1903, and it became the center of socialist activity in **Japan** in the early 20th century. The Heiminsha published a weekly newspaper *Heimin Shimbun* (Commoner's News) with the help of other writers such as **Kinoshita Naoe** and **Uchimura Kanzô**. During the Russo–Japanese War the newspaper issued the first Japanese translation of the *Communist Manifesto* in November 1904, an act followed by its suspension by the government. Internal dissent and financial difficulties broke the group up soon after, and the revival of the group and their newspaper in January 1907 was suppressed by still more dissent and government intervention.

HIBIYA RIOTS [HIBIYA INCENDIARY INCIDENT; *HIBIYA YAKIUCHI JIKEN*] (1905). Large-scale riots in **Tokyo** at the conclusion of the Russo–Japanese War. The disturbances began on 5 September 1905, on the day of the signing of the **Treaty of Portsmouth**, when a large crowd gathered in front of Hibiya Park in Tokyo in response to the peace terms in the treaty. Although the **Imperial Japanese Army** at that stage was losing ground in **Manchuria** due to the difficulties in recruiting new soldiers and further funding for the long campaign, the Japanese public was unaware of the actual situation and believed in the invincibility of **Japan**'s

armed forces. For this reason Japan's apparent compromise at the **Portsmouth Peace Conference**, and the treaty in particular, seemed humiliating. Despite the official ban on rallies in the park, some 30,000 people massed before its gates. The crowd began pushing against the ring of close to 350 policemen.

After two hours of struggle the rallying crowd succeeded in breaking through the police cordon and swarmed into the park. After the rally there, a crowd of about 2,000 people started marching toward the Imperial Palace and clashed with the police there. The violence unleashed by the police to disperse the crowd led to an escalation in the violence and riots that continued through the following two days. Over 200 small police stations were burnt, churches were wrecked, 17 people were killed, and over 1,000 civilians and policemen were wounded. The riots spread to the port cities of Yokohama and Kobe and carried a xenophobic character even though there was no violence toward foreigners. The army was called in to quell the riots, and martial law was declared in the capital the day after the signing of the treaty at Portsmouth.

HIROSE, TAKEO (1868–1904). Japanese naval officer who became a symbol of naval heroism during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in Oita Prefecture and graduated from the 15th class of the Naval Academy in 1889. Hirose served on the ironclad *Fuso* during the **First Sino–Japanese War** and saw action at the **battle of the Yalu** in 1894. He was then sent to study in **Russia** in 1897–1899 and subsequently served as an attaché with the legation in **St. Petersburg** until 1902. During the Russo–Japanese War, Hirose served as a **torpedo** officer on the **battleship** ***Asahi***. As part of the efforts to accomplish the **naval blockade of Port Arthur**, he took part in the second attempt to block the entrance to the harbor on 26 March 1904. Commanding the blockship *Fukui Maru* and another smaller craft, he faced the heavy fire of Russian coastal **artillery**. As his ship was about to anchor in the channel, she was hit by a torpedo and blew up. Saved, Hirose looked for survivors but was hit by a shell as he boarded a lifeboat. He was promoted to commander posthumously and soon became one of the renowned heroes of the **Imperial Japanese Navy**. Revered as ***gunshin*** (war god), Hirose remained a symbol of self-sacrifice for the naval officer corps until **Japan**'s

defeat in 1945. The Hirose Shrine was established in his memory at his home prefecture.

HIROSHIMA. Major Japanese city that served as a military center during the Russo–Japanese War. It is located on the western coast of Honshu (34° 30' north and 132° 30' east) and is the capital of Hiroshima Prefecture. Hiroshima traces its origins to Mori Terumoto, who built his castle on the shores of Hiroshima Bay in 1589. After the Meiji Restoration it became the seventh largest city in **Japan** and an important military center. In 1874 a garrison was established in the city and in 1888 it became the headquarters of the **5th Division**. Six years later it was connected to the main railway line to **Tokyo**, and when the **First Sino–Japanese War** broke out that same year, the **Imperial General Headquarters** were moved to the city. Ten years later, with the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, Hiroshima maintained its position as a major concentration site and dispatch terminal for army troops. In the aftermath of the war the concentration of military installations, shipyards, and industry made it a prosperous city and point of attraction for internal migration. The cutbacks in armaments during the 1920s did not affect the city, and its population passed the 200,000 mark during that decade. On 6 August 1945, Hiroshima was subjected to the world's first atomic bombing, which destroyed 90 percent of the city and left more than 200,000 dead. Completely rebuilt after World War II, it has reemerged as one of the major cities of Japan.

HITACHI MARU*.** Japanese transport ship whose sinking during the Russo–Japanese War was a major sensation in **Japan**. When carrying a battalion of the First Reserve Regiment of the **Imperial Guards Division** bound for **Manchuria**, she was attacked west of Pusan by the Russian **cruiser *Gromoboi. The attack occurred on 15 June 1904 as part of the Russian **attack on the Tsushima Straits**, which aimed at assailing Japanese supply lines to the mainland. Approaching in daylight, the *Gromoboi* fired on the *Hitachi Maru* with all her guns, killing the officer of the deck and the British chief engineer, and wounding the British captain, John Campbell. As she caught fire and her decks were a shambles, Colonel Suchi, the commanding officer of the troops on board, realized escape was impossible. He then destroyed the colors and committed suicide, reportedly with "a smile on

his face." Eventually the ship sank and 631 sailors and soldiers on board were lost.

Technical data: Built: 1898; Displ.: 6,175grt; Speed: 14kt; Requisitioned: 1904.

HOAD, JOHN CHARLES (1856–1911). Australian army officer who served as **military observer** during the Russo–Japanese War. He entered the army in 1884 and was promoted to captain in 1887, major in 1889, lieutenant colonel in 1895, and colonel in 1899. Hoad served as the commanding officer of the 1st Australian Regiment and later was assistant adjutant general to the Mounted Infantry in 1899–1900. In 1902 he was appointed aide-de-camp to the governor-general of the Commonwealth of Australia, and soon after deputy adjutant-general and chief of staff, Commonwealth Military Force. During the Russo–Japanese War he was attached to the Japanese **Second Army** in **Manchuria** from July to September 1904. After the war he was promoted to brigadier general in 1906 and major general in 1907; he died four years later while still in service.

HOFFMANN, CARL ADOLF MAXIMILIAN (1869–1927). German army officer who served as a **military observer** during the Russo–Japanese War. Hoffmann was born at Homberg and was commissioned into the 4th Thuringian Infantry Regiment. After three years at the Berlin War Academy he joined the Russian section of the general staff and was promoted to captain. During the Russo–Japanese War, Hoffmann served as a military observer with the Japanese **First Army**. In the following years he was promoted to colonel and became a general staff officer of the German 8th Army in 1914. During the early stages of World War I he assisted in dealing the Russians a decisive defeat at the **battle of Tannenberg**, arguably due partly to his acquaintance with the Russian commanders at **Manchuria** a decade earlier. He was promoted to major general and in 1916 succeeded Erich Ludendorff as chief of the general staff in the East, under Prince Leopold of Bavaria. In December 1917 Hoffmann conducted the negotiations with the Russians at Brest-Litovsk, and in February 1918 he signed the treaty with the Ukraine. Retiring after the war, he wrote several military history books denouncing his superiors and Bolshevism.

HONJÔ, SHIGERU (1876–1945). Japanese army officer who served as junior officer during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading military figure in the **Imperial Japanese Army** after the war. Honjô was born in Hyogo Prefecture and graduated from the Military Academy. During the Russo–Japanese War he saw action in **Manchuria** as a junior officer and at the end of the war he attended the Army Staff College. Upon graduation Honjô was put on detached duty with the army general staff in Beijing and Shanghai; he was promoted to major and served as chief of the **China** section of the army general staff intelligence division. He later served in the Siberian expedition of 1918 as colonel and regimental commanding officer; he was promoted to major general while serving as military advisor to the Manchurian warlord Zhang Tsolin. He served in succession as infantry brigade commanding officer and military attaché to China, and was promoted to lieutenant general and divisional commanding officer before being placed in command of the Kwantung Army [Guandong Army; *Kantôgun*]. In this capacity he presided over the conquest of Manchuria in 1931. Consequently Honjô was promoted to general, made a baron, and despite political disagreements served as aide-de-camp to Emperor Hirohito for several years before being placed on the reserve list. He committed suicide after **Japan**'s surrender at the end of the World War II.

HOSOYA, SUKEUJI (1855?–1944). Japanese naval officer who served as commanding officer of a battle division during the Russo–Japanese War. Hosoya was born in Edo (present-day Tokyo) and graduated from the fifth class of the Naval Academy in 1878. He subsequently held a variety of staff and sea assignments during the early stages of his career, and served as the superintendent of the Naval Academy. Misu was promoted to lieutenant in 1886, and to captain in 1895. In 1895–1897 he assumed command of the screw corvette *Tsukuba* and the large **gunvessel** *Hei Yen* and then was sent on a short sojourn as a naval attaché in **Great Britain**. During 1899–1901 he assumed command of the **cruisers *Itsukushima***, ***Chitose***, and ***Asama***. Hosoya was promoted to rear admiral in July 1903, and in December he assumed command of the 7th Division of the **Third Fleet**. In January 1905 he was appointed commander of a special task force but in June of that year he was dismissed for unclear reasons and suspended in November.

HOTCHKISS MACHINE GUN. Main **machine gun** used by the **Imperial Japanese Army** in the Russo–Japanese War. It was designed by the Hotchkiss company of **France** in 1900. The Japanese previously purchased a number of American-made **Maxim machine guns** in 1895 but a year later decided on the French weapon, which used the same ammunition as their rifles. By mid-1904 the **infantry** divisions had received 10 Hotchkiss machine guns each, and in March 1905 four more were added. The machine guns were divided into two batteries of six guns each and one battery of two guns. A decade after the war **Japan** started manufacturing its own 6.5-millimeter [.256-inch] version of the 1900 Hotchkiss model under license and designated it Type 3 Kikanhô [third year of the Taishô era, or 1914], which two years later was adopted by the navy also. It had a slightly modified ejector mechanism and additional cooling fins on the barrel.

Technical data: Water-cooled 4 liters; Caliber: 6.5mm; Rate of fire: 500–600r/min.

HÔTEN. *See* MUKDEN.

HÔTEN KAISEN. *See* MUKDEN, BATTLE OF.

HOWITZERS. Low-velocity guns fired at a high angle of elevation and used in increasing numbers during the Russo–Japanese War. Compared with an ordinary gun of the beginning of the 20th century, which was a relatively high-velocity piece with a flat trajectory, the howitzer conveyed the shell to the target with a much smaller propelling charge, and consequently its barrel lasted much longer before it wore out. At that time, the range **artillery** corps required of howitzers was short, and barrels of 12 calibers were the norm. In the following two decades, and especially during World War I, their caliber was enlarged to 25 and over, and they could fire much heavier charges, while ordinary guns were mounted so as to fire at higher angles of elevation, in order to attain their maximal range.

Already during the Russo–Japanese War, in fact, the distinction between guns and howitzers gradually disappeared. Whereas the **Imperial Russian Army** used a small number of 117-millimeter [4.6-inch] Krupp howitzers, the **Imperial Japanese Army** fully exploited the advantages of this gun. After the loss of an early shipment of guns,

which was sunk by the **Vladivostok Independent Cruiser Squadron**, the Japanese began on 1 October 1904 to put into action six, and within two weeks 18, huge Krupp howitzers of 280-millimeter [11-inch] caliber around **Port Arthur**. Having a maximum range of 10,000 meters, these mammoth guns of the day weighed 15.8 tons each and fired altogether 35,000 shells of 250 kilograms [550 pounds] each, which demolished the Russian fortifications and sank several warships of the **Pacific Fleet** in the harbor. So well concealed and protected were they that never once were they put out of action throughout the siege. Following the significant contributions of howitzer guns at the **siege of Port Arthur**, they were also used in the battles around **Mukden,** as well as in later siege campaigns and in **trench warfare** a decade later during World War I.

HSIMUCHENG, BATTLE OF [*TOCHIGIJÔ NO TATAKAI*] (1904). Minor land engagement during the Japanese northward advance toward **Liaoyang** in the first stage of the Russo–Japanese War. It was fought on 30–31 July 1904 near Hsimucheng, about 20 kilometers [13 miles] southeast of **Haicheng**. On the Japanese side were the **5th** and the **10th Divisions** of the Japanese **Fourth Army** under General **Nozu Michitsura** as well as a detachment of the **Second Army**. On the Russian side was the **Second Siberian Army Corps** under Lieutenant General **Mikhail Zasulich**, supported by **cavalry** units under Lieutenant General **Pavel Mishchenko**. Although Zasulich's main force held its ground against superior forces, he received an order from General **Aleksei Kuropatkin** to withdraw to Haicheng. The **casualties** were 836 Japanese, 1,550 Russians.

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IDZUMI. *See IZUMI.*

IESSEN [JESSEN], KARL PETROVICH (1852–1918). Russian naval officer who served as commander of the **Vladivostok Squadron** intermittently during much of the Russo–Japanese War. In 1898 Captain Iessen was appointed commanding officer of the **cruiser *Gromoboi*** and sailed her to the Pacific theater. Early in

1904 he was promoted to rear admiral and in March was appointed deputy commander of the squadron in **Port Arthur**, raising his ensign over the battleship ***Sevastopol***. Two weeks later, however, he was reassigned by the new commander of the **Pacific Fleet**, Vice Admiral **Stepan Makarov**, as commanding officer of the Vladivostok Squadron, and made the armored cruiser ***Rossia*** his flagship. On 12 June he was replaced by Vice Admiral **Petr Bezobrazov** and on 13 August 1904 led the three cruisers of the **Vladivostok Independent Cruiser Squadron** to the **battle of the Korea Straits**. He was consequently rewarded with the order of St. George of the 4th grade. In 15 October 1904 he was reappointed commander of the Vladivostok Squadron and the following month was appointed also commander of the **First Pacific Squadron**, but this appointment remained in name only as he stayed in **Vladivostok**. After the war Iessen led the cruisers *Rossia*, *Gromoboi*, and ***Bogatyr*** back to **Kronstadt**. They set sail in November 1905 and arrived in April 1906. He retired from service in 1908.

IGUCHI, SHÔGO (1855–1932). Japanese army officer who was in charge of the prewar operational planning of the army and served as a senior staff officer during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in Shizuoka and graduated from the Army Academy. Subsequently Iguchi traveled to **Germany** for studies, and during the **First Sino–Japanese War** he served as lieutenant colonel on the staff of the **Second Army**. In the following years he was in charge of the planning of the combat operations of the **Imperial Japanese Army** in case of a war with **Russia**, and he presented the army's final plan at the conference of the **Imperial General Headquarters** in June 1903. During the Russo–Japanese War, Major General Iguchi served as staff officer of the **Manchurian Army**, assisting General **Kodama Gentarô**. He was promoted to general in 1915 and retired in 1920.

IJICHI, HIKOJIRÔ (1859–1912). Japanese naval officer who served as commanding officer of the **battleship *Mikasa*** during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in the Satsuma domain (now Kagoshima Prefecture) and entered the seventh class of the Naval Academy in 1874. Ijichi studied later in **France** and served in

1891–1894 as naval attaché in Italy. Through alternating sea and shore duties he was promoted to captain in 1900 and appointed commanding officer of the **cruiser** ***Matsushima*** in 1901. A year later Ijichi became the commanding officer of the battleship *Mikasa*, which served as Admiral **Tôgô Heihachirô**'s flagship during the **siege of Port Arthur** as well as in the **battle of the Yellow Sea** and the **battle of Tsushima**. After the mysterious sinking of his ship through an ammunition explosion, he was assigned to the Navy Ministry. He was nonetheless promoted to rear admiral in 1906 and to vice admiral in 1909; he died prematurely three years later.

IJÛIN, GORÔ (1852–1921). Japanese naval officer who served as vice chief of the naval general staff during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading figure in the **Imperial Japanese Navy** after the war. Ijûin was born in the Satsuma domain (now Kagoshima Prefecture) and served as a samurai footman for his clan in the Boshin War against the shogunal forces during the Meiji Restoration of 1868. With the establishment of a new government, he took part as a cadet in the Taiwan expedition in 1874, the opening of Korea in 1876, and the suppression of his own clan during the Satsuma Rebellion of 1877. After graduating from the fifth class of the Naval Academy in 1878, Ijûin was sent to study in **Great Britain**, was made an ensign, and graduated from Greenwich Naval College in 1883. On his return to **Japan** he was assigned to the naval general staff for the following three years. He served for a short period as deputy commanding officer of the **cruiser** ***Chiyoda*** in 1890–1891, but his greater contribution at that stage was the invention of the "Ijûin fuse," which caused a shell to explode upon contact and was mainly used in heavy shells during the Russo–Japanese War.

Ijûin was promoted to captain in 1894, rear admiral in 1899, and vice admiral in 1903. In 1902 he was appointed commander of the Readiness Fleet and in the following year was appointed deputy chief of the naval general staff, the post he held throughout the Russo–Japanese War until December 1905. He was subsequently appointed commander of the **Second Fleet** until 1906, commander of the **First Fleet** in 1908, and chief of the naval general staff in 1909. Ijûin was promoted to admiral in 1910 and fleet admiral in 1917 despite never having commanded a ship during his entire career.

IMMIGRATION LAWS. Laws limiting immigration to the **United States**. American measures against Japanese immigration were intensified following the Russo–Japanese War. At first welcomed, Chinese and Japanese immigrants met with opposition in the late 19th century from white labor, especially in California. In part with the acquiescence of **China**, the United States suspended for set periods the immigration of laborers, but after 1900 that suspension was made permanent. **Japan**'s victory in the Russo–Japanese War intensified fears of a growing **Yellow Peril** and demands to curtail immigration. In October 1906 the Board of Education in San Francisco ordered that all Japanese, Chinese, and Korean children move to segregated schools. Following Japanese protests, President **Theodore Roosevelt** offered the so-called Gentlemen's Agreement of 1907, in which the segregation order was to be rescinded in return for a Japanese promise to strictly limit the number of Japanese immigrants to the United States. The agreement is regarded as the initial phase in the deterioration of Japanese–American relations from 1905 to 1945.

IMPERATOR ALEKSANDR III*.** Russian **battleship** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was one of five ships of the newly built but ill-fated ***Borodino class and served in the **Baltic Fleet** at the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War. *Imperator Aleksandr III* took part in the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet** as part of the **Second Pacific Squadron** but was sunk along with 840 of her crew in the **battle of Tsushima**.

Technical data: Builder: Baltic Works, St. Petersburg, Russia, 1899–1903; Displ.: 13,516t; LBD: 121.00×23.22×7.97m [397×76×26ft]; Machinery: 20 Belleville boilers, 2-shaft VTE, 16,300ihp; Speed: 17.8kt; Fuel: 800/1,520t coal; Armament: 4×305mm/40 [12in.] (2×2), 12×152mm/45 [6in.] (6×2), 20×11pdr, 20×3pdr, 4×381mm [15in.] TT (2AW 2sub); Armor: KC, belt: 152–191mm [6–7.5in.], belt ends: 102–146mm [4–5.75in.], turrets: 102–254mm [4–10in.], secondary turrets: 152mm [6in.], 11pdr battery: 76mm [3in.], CT: 203mm [8in.]; Comp.: 835–850.

***IMPERATOR NIKOLAI I*.** Russian **battleship** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. One of two ships of the *Imperator Aleksandr II* class, in 1900 she was refitted with 16 Belleville boilers and 3-

pounder guns replacing the revolvers. At the outbreak of the war she served in the **Baltic Fleet** and was attached to the **Third Pacific Squadron**. She subsequently left with her squadron as the flagship of Rear Admiral **Nikolai Nebogatov** for a shortened version of the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet** via the **Suez Canal**. *Imperator Nikolai I* took part in the **battle of Tsushima** and surrendered the next day. She was repaired by the **Imperial Japanese Navy** and recommissioned as the *Iki*. After serving more than a decade as a gunnery training ship and a first-class coast defense ship, she was removed from service in 1918 and scrapped four years later.

Technical data: Builder: Galernii Island, St. Petersburg, Russia, 1885–1891; Displ.: 9,672t; LBD: 101.65×20.42×7.87m [333.6×67×25.10ft]; Machinery: 2-shaft HTE, 8,500ihp; Speed: 15.3kt; Fuel: 1,200t coal; Armament: 2×305mm/30 (1×2), 4×229mm/35, 8×152mm/35, 16×3pdr, 6×381mm [15in.] TT; Armor: Compound, belt: 152–406mm [6–16in.], CT: 203mm [8in.], turrets: 254mm [10in.], secondary guns: 76–152mm [3–6in.]; Comp.: 611.

IMPERIAL COUNCIL [*SUMICHU IN*]. An advisory organ set up in **Japan** before the Russo–Japanese War to determine the ultimate decisions for war and peace. This extra-constitutional organ sought final imperial approval on matters of grave national importance and was shielded from reckless governmental decisions. It convened for the first time in 1894 and ended its activity in 1945. During the Russo–Japanese War it comprised, besides the **Emperor Meiji**, 13 leading politicians, bureaucrats, and military personnel, all of samurai origin: the five **genro** members, Prime Minister **Katsura Tarô**, four of his ministers (Foreign Minister **Komura Jutarô**, Army Minister **Terauchi Masatake**, Navy Minister **Yamamoto Gonnohyôe**, and Finance Minister **Sone Arasuke**), the chiefs of staff of the army and the navy, and their deputies. Before and during the Russo–Japanese War the Imperial Council held four meetings, known as imperial conferences [*gozen kaigi*], first on 23 June 1903 and then on 12 January 1904 to discuss the Russian counter-proposal, on 4 February 1904 to discuss the outbreak of hostilities, and on 28 August 1905 to discuss instructions to Foreign Minister Komura a week before the conclusion of the **Treaty of Portsmouth**.

IMPERIAL GENERAL HEADQUARTERS [*DAI HON'EI*]. A consultative body created by the Japanese government at the outset of the Russo–Japanese War to coordinate the overall activities of the war. The guidelines of the Imperial General Headquarters were formulated in 1893, and it met for the first time during the **First Sino–Japanese War**. This body met again on 11 February 1904 and formally ended its activity on 20 December 1905. It was made up of representatives from the **Imperial Japanese Navy** and the **Imperial Japanese Army**, ministers, deputy ministers, the chiefs and deputy chiefs of staff of both branches, as well as the foreign minister, all under the nominal command of the emperor. While the members of the Imperial General Headquarters worked during the war in harmony unparalleled to other periods, especially compared with future conflicts, it exercised significant independence, as seen in the decision to launch the war only with the navy's approval. Whereas in the First Sino–Japanese War Prime Minister **Itô Hirobumi** attended its meeting at the order of **Emperor Meiji**, during the Russo–Japanese War Prime Minister **Katsura Tarô**, despite his military background, never attended its meetings.

IMPERIAL GUARDS DIVISION. *See* DIVISION, IMPERIAL GUARDS.

IMPERIAL JAPANESE ARMY. *See* ARMY, IMPERIAL JAPANESE.

IMPERIAL JAPANESE NAVY. *See* NAVY, IMPERIAL JAPANESE.

IMPERIAL RUSSIAN ARMY. *See* ARMY, IMPERIAL RUSSIAN.

IMPERIAL RUSSIAN NAVY. *See* NAVY, IMPERIAL RUSSIAN.

INCHON. *See* CHEMULPO.

INDEPENDENT CRUISER SQUADRON. *See* VLADIVOSTOK INDEPENDENT CRUISER SQUADRON.

INDIA [INDIAN SUB-CONTINENT]. Sub-continent that was under the colonial rule of **Great Britain** and was affected internally and ex-

ternally by the Russo–Japanese War. In 1858, following the suppression of the Indian rebellion, the British government decided to govern India directly. In the latter half of the 19th century, Britain was involved in several wars in the periphery of India, in which it employed Indian troops. While Britain established India's boundary with **Afghanistan** during the Second Afghan War (1878–1881) and also made Burma (present-day Myanmar) a province of India in 1885, it entered into growing conflict with **Russia** over the northern boundaries of the sub-continent. In 1885 the Indian National Congress was formed, with the aim of achieving political and economic reforms as well as equal status through constitutional means. In the following two decades it failed to make any significant impact on the British policy and was ignored by the British rulers, particularly the viceroy, Lord Curzon, who ruled India in 1899–1905.

The Russo–Japanese War is considered a turning point for the Indian nationalist movement, as Indian indignation toward the British found solace and a source of pride in the Japanese victories over Russia. Intellectuals and the masses alike were excited by the defeat of a European power by an Asian nation. The nationalist press hailed **Japan** and stated that an "Asiatic race has broken the pride of the greatest power in Europe." Thirty years later, Jawaharlal Nehru, the first Prime Minister of independent India, recalled in his memoirs the excitement he felt at the Japanese victories. Even in far off South Africa, Mohandas K. Gandhi, who 15 years later would become the leader of the Indian independence movement, was immensely impressed by Japan and the lessons it provided for India.

In 1905 the British divided the state of Bengal into separate Hindu and Muslim sections, leading to Indian protests, with a boycott of British and foreign goods, excluding Japanese goods, and a series of bombings and shootings. Japan's victory gave rise that year to the emergence of a new group of leaders, such as B. G. Tilak, who advocated more aggressive methods for achieving freedom. Some Indian revolutionaries chose to go to Japan to seek help in their fight for liberation, and these contacts were maintained until Japan's defeat in 1945. Following the rise of nationalism during the Russo–Japanese War, several Muslim leaders, encouraged by the British, formed in 1906 the All-India Muslim League. In an effort to stop the violence, the British introduced the Morley–Minto Reforms of 1909,

which enlarged the viceroy's executive council to include an Indian. They also allowed Indians to elect representatives to the provincial legislative councils, but eventually the British reunited Bengal in 1911.

Externally, however, the war stabilized British rule over India. The sub-continent became a focal point of the negations between Great Britain and Japan before the renewal of the **Anglo–Japanese Alliance** of 1905. While Britain recognized the paramount position of Japan in **Korea**, it demanded extension of the alliance to India as well. Japan was committed henceforth to assist militarily in case of conflict with Russia, reflecting British anxiety over its position in India regarding both Russia and Japan. Nonetheless, the defeat of Russia in the war reduced the fears British officials in India felt toward Russian imperial expansion southward. In 1907 Great Britain and Russia signed the **Anglo–Russian Entente**, which defined spheres of influence of the two countries in **Tibet** and Afghanistan, thus ending decades of antagonism between these two powers.

INFANTRY. The main branch of the land forces of both armies during the Russo–Japanese War. The two sides used large numbers of infantrymen, who were more important by far than **cavalry** or even **artillery** units in deciding land engagements during the war. The war was characterized by the deployment of ever larger infantry units, reaching a peak in the **battle of Mukden**. Furthermore, the dramatic increase of firepower during the war changed the fighting of the infantry into a more sedentary mode and heralded the **trench warfare** that reached maturity a decade later during World War I.

Russian infantry corps in **Manchuria** numbered by most estimates about 95,000 men and consisted mainly of peasants, considered hardy, obedient, brave, and used to the extreme conditions of the region. They won the admiration of **military observers** though they were still trained in outdated tactics. They were conditioned to volley fire on command and used the **bayonet** more often than required. These practices largely constricted their individual marksmanship abilities. They also often suffered from lack of motivation; during the conflict in Manchuria most of the second-line reservists resented being called up for duty in this remote area. The main weapon used by the Russian infantry was the **Mosin M-1891 rifle**, and infantry units

also increasingly used **Maxim machine guns** as close fire support for the troops. The individual's personal kit weighed about 32 kilograms [70 pounds] and consisted of two and a half days' worth of rations in a watertight kitbag, a greatcoat, a tent sheet, and a shovel. The infantryman carried between 120 and 300 rounds of ammunition in clips of five.

The Japanese infantry corps numbered 257,000 men and were divided at the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War into 13 **divisions**, which during the war increased to 17. Like their rivals, the majority of the Japanese infantrymen were peasants, who were sturdy, brave, and with intense patriotic spirit acquired through some limited but obligatory education in the principles of **bushido**. They carried the carbine version of the **Arisaka Type 30 rifle** and a bayonet, and during the war some were provided with the improved **Arisaka Type 38 rifle**. Each man carried 210 rounds, of which 120 were in five bullet clips in pouches. Thirty more were in clips in his knapsack and 60 more were in the unit's transport. Attached to his knapsack, the Japanese infantryman carried a greatcoat and a shelter tent. Inside the knapsack he carried two days' rations, and some carried trenching tools. An open-ended drill sack was filled with reserve rations and ammunition and was tied across the chest. The winter uniform was a blue tunic and trousers, both with red piping, and a dark-blue peaked cap with a yellow band (neither side used helmets yet). The summer uniform was usually khaki or white and often mixed with elements of the winter uniform. During the war, infantry divisions received additional **Hotchkiss machine guns**.

Japanese **tactics** dictated that a rapid advance was to be made with no firing to between 2,000 meters and 1,000 meters from the enemy; short advances with covering fire were then to be made down to about 500 meters. Then the enemy was to be charged with the bayonet. The Japanese infantry used dispersed formations while advancing, causing the Russian defenders to divide their fire. It thus lost its effectiveness in repelling the Japanese attacks. The resulting confusion hindered the Russian reserves in taking decisive action at the right time. Observing the effect of these tactics, the principal European armies adopted them quickly. In 1905 the German Emperor **William II** himself called for a more dispersed formation in infantry maneuvers after seeing the amount of destruction inflicted on the

Russian troops during the mass assaults in Manchuria compared with the high survival rate of the assaulting Japanese. In all, the Japanese infantry were considered of good quality in fighting ability and morale. On the other hand, some consider the emphasis put by the Japanese infantry tactics on the use of the bayonet somewhat excessive.

INOUE [INOUYE], HIKARU (1851–1908). Japanese army officer who served as commanding officer of a division during the Russo–Japanese War. His military career began in the Meiji Restoration when he served his clan forces during the Boshin War against the shogunal forces. Subsequently he joined the new government army and participated in pacifying the Satsuma Rebellion of 1877. His first substantial command was during the **First Sino–Japanese War**. During the Russo–Japanese War, Inoue was in command of the **12th Division** of the **First Army** and took part in most of the major engagements of the war from the **battle of the Yalu** to the **battle of Mukden**.

INOUE [INOUYE], KAORU (1836–1915). Japanese statesman and one of the five **genro** during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born to a samurai family in the Chôshû domain (now Yamaguchi Prefecture) and took part in the anti-foreign *sonnô-joi* movement in the decade before the Meiji Restoration. Inoue was a childhood friend of his clansman **Itô Hirobumi**, and the two visited **Great Britain** together in 1863, serving as ordinary seamen for the voyage. During the Meiji Restoration he emerged as one of the leaders of his clan in the struggle against the shogunal regime. As foreign minister he was involved in the long and futile negotiations for treaty revision between 1883 and 1886, and in 1885 he was ennobled with the title of count. Prior to his retirement from office in 1898, Inoue held the portfolios of foreign affairs, finance, home affairs, and agriculture and commerce. Subsequently he was appointed genro and attended all the important state councils throughout the Russo–Japanese War. In 1907 he was made a marquis and died eight years later.

INOUE [INOUYE], YOSHIKA (1845–1929). Japanese naval officer who served as naval councilor during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in the Satsuma domain (now Kagoshima Prefecture) and

served in the newly created Imperial Japanese Navy soon after the Meiji Restoration. Inoue served as commanding officer of several warships from 1872 to 1886 and was promoted to lieutenant in 1871, lieutenant commander in 1872, commander in 1876, and captain in 1882. During the next decade Inoue directed the Naval College and commanded all the major naval bases. He was promoted to rear admiral in 1886 and vice admiral in 1892. During the **First Sino–Japanese War** he served as commander-in-chief of Yokosuka Naval Base and commander-in-chief of the West Fleet. He was promoted to admiral in 1901, became naval councilor in 1904, and at the same time served as commander of the Yokosuka naval base; he performed these roles throughout the Russo–Japanese War. He was made a viscount in 1907 and was promoted to admiral of the fleet in 1911.

INTELLIGENCE, MILITARY. *See* MILITARY INTELLIGENCE.

IRAN [PERSIA]. A monarchy subject to the competing imperial ambitions of **Russia** and **Great Britain**. It was affected internally and externally by the Russo–Japanese War, notably the constitutional revolution of 1906. Eighty years earlier, Russia had invaded Iran in an attempt to gain access to the Persian Gulf, and in 1828 the two nations signed the Treaty of Turkomanchai, by which Iran ceded some of its northern territory. In 1856 Iran fought British forces after a British abortive attempt at a takeover of disputed territory in northwestern **Afghanistan**. In the latter half of the 19th century, Russia and Great Britain were increasingly involved in Iran, especially since the discovery of rich oil fields within its borders. At the turn of the century, Iran was ruled by the weak and corrupted shah, Muzaffar al Din (reigned 1896–1907), whose extravagance and the concessions he gave to European powers caused much public indignation.

The defeat of a European power without a constitution (Russia) by an Asian state with a constitution (**Japan**) during the Russo–Japanese War prompted Iranian intellectuals and urban merchants to continue pressing their earlier demands for a constitution, in the hope that it would prevent corruption and curb foreign penetration. Following mass protests, on 5 August 1906 the shah was forced to issue a decree regarding a constitution and the creation of an elected parliament (*Majlis*). Thirteen days later, the first legislative assembly

was inaugurated in the capital, Teheran. In January 1907 the shah died. His successor, Mohammad Ali Shah, was a determined opponent of the constitution and did his best to stymie it.

In August 1907 Great Britain and Russia signed the **Anglo–Russian Entente**, which dealt with their respective interests in Iran and other areas of conflict in central Asia. The two powers exploited the internal conflict and effectively divided Iran into two spheres of influence. Russia was given the freedom to pursue its interests in the north, Britain in the south. When the pact became known a month later, it united the various factions in Iran. But in June 1908 the shah used his Persian Cossack Brigade under Russian command to bomb the parliament building and disband the assembly. A year later, however, opposition forces marched into Teheran and reestablished the constitution; the deposed shah went into exile in Russia. Throughout the following decades Iran remained unstable internally and externally, and despite its **neutrality** it was a theater of war in the two world wars.

IRMAN, VLADIMIR ALEKSANDROVICH (1852–?). Russian army officer who took part in the defense of **Port Arthur** in the Russo–Japanese War. After the war he became an important figure in the **Imperial Russian Army**. Irman graduated from the Aleksandrovskii Military College, joined the 134th Feodosian Regiment in 1870, and then transferred to the **artillery**. He took part in the Russo–Turkish War of 1877–1878 and the suppression of the **Boxer Uprising** of 1900. At the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, Colonel Irman served as commander of the 4th East-Siberian artillery brigade stationed in Port Arthur. He was wounded during the defense of 174-Meter Hill and **203-Meter Hill** and was promoted to major general. He opposed the surrender of the fort, and at a meeting on 16 December 1904 he declared: "We should defend the fortress until the last man. We have now eight thousand; should we remain four thousand, two thousand, and finally five hundred men, we shall stand. If the ammunition runs out, we shall fight with **bayonets**, to the last house in the city." After the surrender of the fortress, Irman asked Lieutenant General **Anatolii Stoessel** for permission to cross the Japanese lines and return to the **Manchurian Army** but was denied. In 1906 he was appointed commander of the **Vladivostok** fortress, and two years later was promoted to lieutenant

general. In 1912 he was appointed commander of the Third Caucasian Corps and took part in World War I.

ITÔ, HIROBUMI [HAKUBUN] (1841–1909). A foremost Japanese statesman throughout the modernization period, one of the five **genro** during the Russo–Japanese War, and resident-general of **Korea** after the war. Born in the Chôshû domain (now Yamaguchi Prefecture) to a low-ranking samurai family, he took part in the anti-foreign *sonnô-joi* movement in the decade before the Meiji Restoration. After that event he served in the Ministries of Foreign Affairs, Finance, and Industry. Itô was a member of the Iwakura mission sent abroad in 1871 to revise the unequal treaties with the Western powers and to study Western technology. He established a cabinet in 1885 and a privy council in 1888, which were headed by him. He supervised the drafting of the constitution from 1883 to 1889 and was granted the title of *genkun*, becoming an intimate advisor of **Emperor Meiji**. In 1885 he negotiated the Li–Itô convention, which postponed war with **China** over Korea. As prime minister from 1892 to 1896, he supported the **First Sino–Japanese War** and negotiated the **Treaty of Shimonoseki** with China. In the aftermath of that war he became a supporter of party government, opposing **Yamagata Aritomo**, and became the first president of the Rikken Seiyûkai (Friends of Constitutional Government Party).

As prime minister in 1898 and in 1900–1901, Itô tried to negotiate a peaceful settlement with **Russia**, but failing to do so he was forced to increase military appropriations, and he later resigned from his post. Returning to politics as head of the privy council in 1903, he exerted influence during the Russo–Japanese War mainly through being one of the five genro. In 1905 he presented the Korean cabinet with the **Protectorate Agreement**, which gave **Japan** control over Korea's foreign relations. The next year he returned to Korea as the first Japanese resident-general. In 1907 he forced the Korean emperor **Kojong** to abdicate and established a full Japanese protectorate over Korea. This act, together with his assassination during a tour of **Manchuria** in 1909, led to the annexation of Korea by Japan in 1910.

ITÔ, SUKEYUKI [YÛKÔ] (1843–1914). Japanese naval officer who served as chief of the naval general staff during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in the Satsuma domain (now Kagoshima Prefecture)

and saw action in the Satsuma engagement against the **Royal Navy** in the early 1860s. Itô entered the **Imperial Japanese Navy** after the Meiji Restoration, and from 1871 to 1884 served as commanding officer of several warships. Itô was promoted to lieutenant in 1871, lieutenant commander in 1872, commander in 1876, and captain in 1882. After directing the Yokosuka shipyard and visiting **Great Britain**, he was promoted to rear admiral in 1886 and vice admiral in 1892. During the **First Sino–Japanese War** he served as commander-in-chief of the **Combined Fleet** and led the victorious assault on the Peiyang Fleet. Soon after the conclusion of the war he was made a viscount and became chief of the naval general staff, a position he maintained throughout the Russo–Japanese War until December 1905. Itô was promoted to admiral in 1898 and navy councilor in 1900. In 1906 he was promoted to admiral of the fleet and was made a count in 1907.

ITSUKUSHIMA*.** Japanese protected **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was the first of the three ships of the ***Matsushima class, designed by Emile Bertin, the chief constructor of the French Navy, and designated to act as one "prolonged **battleship**." She was armed with one heavy gun positioned in a barbette on the forecastle, and was intended to fight the bigger battleships of the Chinese fleet in the era before the **First Sino–Japanese War**. Before the Russo–Japanese War she was refitted to use Miyabara tube boilers. During the war she served as the flagship of Vice Admiral **Kataoka Shichirô** in supporting roles as part of the 5th Division of the **Third Fleet**. The *Itsukushima* took part in the **battle of Tsushima**, was relegated in 1906 to a training role, and was scrapped in 1922.

Technical data: Builder: La Seyne, France, 1888–1891; Displ.: 4,492t; LBD: 91.81×15.59×6.05m [301×51.3×20ft]; Machinery: 2-shaft VTE, 8 boilers, 5,400ihp; Speed: 16kt; Fuel: 680t coal; Range 5,500nm on 10kt; Armament: 1×320mm/38 [12.6in.], 11×120mm/38 [4.7in.], 6×57mm/43 QF, 12×37mm/23 [1.5in.] QF, 4×356mm [14in.] TT; Armor: steel, barbettes: 102–305mm [4–12in.], casemates: 110mm [4.33in.], CT: 25–102mm [1–4in.], deck: 37mm [1.5in.]; Comp.: 355.

IVANOV, FEDOR NIKOLAEVICH (1860–?). Russian naval officer who commanded a **minelayer** during the Russo–Japanese War. He

was appointed commander of the minelayer ***Amur*** by Vice Admiral **Stepan Makarov** during the early stages of the war. On 14 May 1904, Commander Ivanov laid an uncharted minefield at his own initiative, in which a day later the **Imperial Japanese Navy** lost two of its six **battleships**, ***Yashima*** and ***Hatsuse***. For this operation he was promoted to captain. After the war he commanded the **cruisers** *Ochakov* and ***Bayan***, which later joined the Baltic cruiser squadron.

IVANOV, NIKOLAI YUDOVICH (1851–1919). Russian army officer who served as commander of the **Third Siberian Army Corps** during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading military figure during World War I. After taking part as a junior officer in the Russo–Turkish War of 1877–1878, Ivanov carried out various assignments and was promoted to lieutenant general before the Russo–Japanese War. Following the death of Lieutenant General **Fedor Keller**, in August 1904 Ivanov succeeded him as commander of the Third Siberian Army Corps. In this position he subsequently took part in the **battle of Liaoyang** and the **battle of Mukden** without much distinction. He was appointed commanding officer of the Kiev Military District in 1908, and was subsequently promoted to general. At the outbreak of World War I, Ivanov was appointed commander of the southwest front facing Austrian Galicia and led the four armies under his command to a limited victory in the Galician campaign. Having planned and directed an abortive invasion of Hungary in early 1915, he was replaced by General **Aleksei Brusilov** in 1916 and retired a year later. Following the Bolshevik Revolution, he joined the White Russian forces in the lower Don valley, where he died.

IWATE*.** Japanese armored **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was one of two ships of the ***Izumo class, a second series of British-built cruisers, and served in the 2nd Battle Division of the **Second Fleet** at the outbreak of the war. She participated in all the major battles of the war and was severely damaged during the **battle of the Korea Straits**. The *Iwate* was disarmed in the early 1920s and served thereafter as a training ship. She was eventually sunk in shallow water in an American air raid in July 1945 and scrapped in 1947.

Technical data: Builder: Armstrong, Elswick, Great Britain, 1898–1901; Displ.: 10,305t; LBD: 132.28×20.94×7.37m [400×69×

24.5ft]; Machinery: 2-shaft VTE, 24 boilers, 15,739ihp; Speed: 22kt; Fuel: 1,402t coal; Range 4,900nm on 10kt; Armament: 4×203mm/40 [8in.], 14×152mm/40 [6in.], 12×76mm [3in.] QF, 8×47mm QF, 5×457mm [18in.] TT; Armor: Krupp steel, belt: 89–178mm [3.5–7in.], barbettes: 152mm [6in.], turrets: 152mm [6in.], casemates: 152mm [6in.], CT: 76–356mm [3–14in.], deck: 51–76mm [2–3in.]; Comp.: 672.

IZUMI [IDZUMI]. Japanese protected **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. Formerly the Chilean cruiser *Esmeralda*, she was purchased by the **Imperial Japanese Navy** in 1894. The only Japanese ship of the *Izumi* class, she served in the 6th Division of the **Third Fleet** at the outbreak of the war and was used toward the end of the war as a scout vessel. In this role the *Izumi* was the first warship to sight and follow the approaching **Baltic Fleet** before the **battle of Tsushima**. After the war she was relegated to a subsidiary role and discarded in 1912.

Technical data: Builder: Armstrong, Elswick, Great Britain, 1881–1884; Displ.: 2,920t; LBD: 82.29×12.80×5.64m [270×42×18ft]; Machinery: 2-shaft compound, 4 boilers, 6,500ihp; Speed: 18kt; Fuel: 600t coal; Range 2,200nm on 10kt; Armament: 2×152mm/40 [6in.], 6×120mm/40 [4.7in.], 2×57mm/40 QF, 6×47mm/40 QF, 3×381mm [15in.] TT; Armor: compound, gun shields: 37–51mm [1.5–2in.], CT: 51mm [2in.], deck: 13–25mm [0.5–1in.]; Comp.: 300.

IZUMO [IDZUMO]. Japanese armored **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was one of two ships of the *Izumo* class, a second series of British-built cruisers that were a slightly modified ***Asama*** class with improved protection. She served in the 2nd Battle Division of the **Second Fleet** under the command of Vice Admiral **Kamimura Hikonojo** at the outbreak of the war. The *Izumo* participated in all the major battles of the war, including the **battle of the Korea Straits**. She was disarmed in the early 1920s and thereafter served as a training ship. She was eventually sunk in shallow water in an American air raid in July 1945 and scrapped in 1947.

Technical data: Builder: Armstrong, Elswick, Great Britain, 1898–1901; Displ. 10,305t; LBD: 132.28×20.94×7.37m [434×

68.5×24.5ft]; Machinery: 2-shaft VTE, 24 boilers, 15,739ihp; Speed: 22kt; Fuel: 1,400t coal; Range 4,900nm on 10kt; Armament: 4×203mm/40 [8in.], 14×152mm/40 [6in.], 12×76mm [3in.] QF, 8×47mm QF, 5×457mm [18in.] TT; Armor: Krupp steel, belt: 89–178mm [3.5–7in.], barbettes: 152mm [6in.], turrets: 152mm [6in.], casemates: 152mm [6in.], CT: 75–356mm, deck: 51–76mm [2–3in.]; Comp.: 672.

IZUMRUD. Russian protected **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was one of two ships of the *Izumrud* class and served in the **Baltic Fleet** at the outbreak of the war. She left Libau on 20 November 1904 in a small detachment together with the ***Oleg***, under the command of Captain Leonid Dobrotvoskii; later she joined the rest of the **Second Pacific Squadron** on the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet**. The *Izumrud* took part in the **battle of Tsushima**, and on 28 May 1905 she escaped northward, making for **Vladivostok**. However, she went off course and ran aground 160 kilometers [100 miles] north of that port. Eventually, the crew blew her up to keep her out of Japanese hands.

Technical data: Builder: Nevskii, Russia, 1901–1904; Displ.: 3,103t; LBD: 110.95×12.20×5.00m [364×40×16.5ft]; Machinery: 16 Yarrow boilers, 3-shaft VTE, 17,000ihp; Speed: 24kt; Fuel: 510t coal; Armament: 6×120mm/45 [4.7in.], 6×3pdr, 2×1pdr, 3×457mm [18in.] TT; Armor: deck: 32–76mm [1.25–3in.], CT: 32mm [1.25in.]; Comp.: 350.

IZVOLSKII, ALEKSANDR PETROVICH (1856–1919). Russian diplomat and statesman involved in various diplomatic negotiations with **Japan** before and after the Russo–Japanese War. He was born into an aristocrat family of Polish descent and was educated at the imperial lyceum in **St. Petersburg**. He entered the diplomatic service in 1875, and in 1899, after serving in several Balkan capitals and the Vatican, he was appointed ambassador in **Tokyo**, where he stayed for four years. He urged accommodation with Japan, even arousing the resentment of Tsar **Nicholas II**. Seeking to calm the Russo–Japanese conflict over spheres of influence in **Manchuria** and **Korea**, he helped to arrange the mission of **Itô Hirobumi** to St. Petersburg in 1902. Subsequently, Izvolskii was transferred to Denmark, where he

kept pressing for a diplomatic solution to the conflict with Japan before and during the Russo–Japanese War.

Izvolskii was appointed foreign minister in May 1906 and helped improve relations with Japan. His efforts culminated in the **Russo–Japanese agreement** of 1907 and in concluding the **Anglo–Russian Entente** the same year. His prestige waned during the Bosnian Crisis of 1908–1909, when he was skillfully outplayed by the Austrian foreign minister. In 1910 Izvolskii was appointed ambassador in Paris, and he remained the dominant force in Russian foreign policy until World War I. In his new position, held until 1917, he strengthened military ties with **France** and negotiated the Constantinople Agreements of 1915. He died in exile at Biarritz less than two years after the Bolshevik Revolution.

– J –

JACKSON, THOMAS (1868–1945). British naval officer who served as a senior **naval observer** during the Russo–Japanese War. He entered the **Royal Navy** in 1881; following sea and staff assignments he was promoted to commander in 1899 and to captain in 1905. During the Russo–Japanese War he served as naval observer with the **Imperial Japanese Navy** and wrote succinct reports on the naval operation. Jackson was present at the **battle of Tsushima** aboard the cruiser ***Azuma***. He was appointed naval attaché in **Tokyo** in 1906, and subsequently he became director of the British Naval Intelligence Division in the War Staff in 1912, and director of the Operations Division in 1915. He became commander of the Egypt and Red Sea Division of the Mediterranean Squadron in 1917–1919, was promoted to vice admiral in 1920, and retired in 1925.

JAPAN. One of the two belligerents in the Russo–Japanese War. It lies off the east coast of mainland Asia across from **Russia**, **Korea**, and **China**, and on the eve of the war it was still confined to a narrow and long archipelago extending from the Kuril Islands in the north to Taiwan in the south. The so-called mainland of Japan consisted then, as now, of four main islands—Hokkaido, Honshu (the largest), Kyushu, and Shikoku, as well as thousands of smaller islands, which form a

curve extending for about 1,900 kilometers [1,200 miles] with about 7,448 kilometers [4,628 miles] of coastline. Japan's total area on the eve of the war was 476,192 square kilometers [184,000 square miles], which is greater by a third than its current size. It had a population of 47 million, far less than its population of 127 million in 2004 and less than a third of its Russian foe in 1904.

On the eve of the war Japan commemorated half a century since its forced opening by an American naval force under the command of Commodore Matthew Perry. From the early Edo era (1600–1868) the rulers of the Tokugawa shogunate had resolved to cut the country's ties with the rest of the world, thereby protecting their own regime and keeping their country free of outside influences, Christianity in particular. Perry's demands that Japan open its ports to international trade were not accepted at first. But in 1854 Japan yielded, and in the following years it signed unequal treaties that opened several ports to international commerce and granted citizens of Western powers extraterritoriality and other privileges, which were not given reciprocally to the Japanese. The penetration of Westerners into Japan led to unrest among the leading samurai class and resulted in pressure on the shogun to close the country and restore the emperor to his previous position as head of the government. On 3 January 1868 the shogun acceded to the latter demand, and the nominal emperor, the 16-year-old Mutsuhito, officially announced the return of imperial rule, adopting the name Meiji (meaning "enlightened rule") as the name for the era of his reign. In consequence a military struggle between the armies of the shogun and the supporters of imperial rule broke out; the entire revolution that placed **Emperor Meiji** in power is known as the Meiji Restoration.

In practice, however, the nation was ruled not by the emperor but by the members of the oligarchy of the Meiji Restoration and their successors, most of them mid- and low-level samurai from Satsuma and Chôshû, two feudal domains in western Japan. Although before the revolution the leading oligarchs had preached the ouster of foreigners, they realized that Japan had to embark on a large-scale program of modernization using the knowledge of the West. In the following years they eliminated the traditional social stratification, notably the samurai class, and united the feudal domains under the helm of central government. Japan invested in coal mines, textile

mills, shipyards, cement factories, and other modern enterprises. Together with the economic and social transformation, the Meiji leadership set out to strengthen Japan's military power. On the advice of European military experts, during the early 1870s the government abolished the feudal militias and established instead the **Imperial Japanese Army** and **Imperial Japanese Navy**. It also built naval shipyards and stocked military arsenals.

In 1889 the oligarchy produced Japan's first constitution, which made the emperor the head of the government and established a cabinet of ministers and a legislature with two houses—the Diet. The constitution spelled out the rights and duties of the citizens, and it created a system of courts. Still, the rights of the Japanese people were extremely limited under the constitution, and the leaders of the restoration and their appointees continued to hold real power, now as prime ministers and cabinet members. In 1904 Japan was governed by several groups, which checked each other. The government, which was much more powerful at that time than the Diet, was led by **Katsura Tarô**. Its principal members included Foreign Minister **Komura Jutarô**, Finance Minister **Sone Arasuke**, and representatives of the military: Army Minister **Terauchi Masatake** and Navy Minister **Yamamoto Gonnohyôe**. While tactical and occasionally even strategical decision-making concerning the war was conducted at the headquarters of the army and the navy, crucial decisions were often left to the five **genro**, the founding fathers of the modern Japanese state. Their official role was to select prime ministers, but in effect they were in charge of crucial decision-making. While ultimate sovereignty lay with Emperor Meiji, he enjoyed fairly limited authority and did not interfere in everyday politics.

The emulation of the West in this era of imperialism and the resulting emphasis on military might set Japan on a collision course with Russia. In 1894–1895 Japan began to build an empire like that of Great Britain and other European powers. Three Asian regions were the initial targets of Japanese expansion: Taiwan, Korea, and **Manchuria**. After defeating China in the **First Sino–Japanese War**, Japan assumed control over Taiwan in 1895 and exploited it as an agricultural colony producing rice and sugar. Fear of Russia and the attraction of territorial gains on mainland Asia led to intensified conflict with Russia over Korea and Manchuria following the war with

China. The vision of armed conflict with Russia led to great budget allocations for constructing additional warships abroad and increasing substantially the size of the army.

Nevertheless, on the eve of Russo–Japanese War, Japan's power still seemed far less impressive than its rival's in nearly every aspect. Although Japan enjoyed a high birthrate and a high proportion of young population, the enormous demographic gap with Russia was also reflected in the size of its army and navy and in the number of reserve forces that it could draw on in a war. Japanese weakness was most conspicuous in the realm of economic power, industry in particular. In 1904 Japan advanced considerably from the feudal system on which it had been based in the latter years of the Edo era, and it became the first non-Western nation to undergo industrialization at that time. Nonetheless, its industry was still in its infancy compared with Western powers such as **Great Britain**, **Germany**, the **United States**, and even Russia. In fact, at the beginning of the 1890s, little more than a decade before the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, Japan was not yet considered a world power, and there was certainly no reason to count it as such from an economic perspective.

Although Japan had a developing textile industry, an efficient railway network, shipping, and banking systems, its industry produced relatively little iron and metals, and depended heavily on imported machines, weapons, and the construction of **battleships** in foreign shipyards. Another disadvantage was the chronic lack of investment, which prevented the Japanese from entering into large enterprises and limited their options in times of crisis. Japan's energy needs were six times smaller than those of Russia, and steel production in the two nations could not even be compared because Japan produced this metal in very small quantities. Compared with Great Britain, the industrialization level per capita in Japan in 1900 was at a ratio of only 12 to 100 (in Russia it was 15 to 100). Hence, on the eve of the war the Japanese industrial potential was eighth in the world but three times smaller than that of Russia.

In contrast to Russia, however, the Japanese populace was unified and supported the hard line toward the adversary. In 1903 **Konoe Atsumaro** formed the anti-Russian group **Tairo Dôshikai**; various intellectuals, as manifested in the **Seven Professors Incident**, criticized

the government for its vacillation. Although a tiny minority, notably members of the socialist **Heiminsha**, expressed anti-war sentiments, the vast majority of the Japanese public supported the war. Despite the high casualties, the public kept expressing its will for sacrifice in blood or economic burden, and it did not hesitate to react to the peace terms with outrage, which culminated in the **Hibiya Riots** soon after the conclusion of the **Treaty of Portsmouth**. Economic weakness on the one hand and intense public support on the other made the government respond to the war needs by issuing war bonds at home and abroad and raising taxes. All in all, the Japanese government spent 1,986,127,000 yen on **war expenditures**, part of which it was able to cover by raising taxes and issuing government bonds at home (760,281,000 yen) with no apparent public opposition. Nonetheless, the greater share of this unexpectedly immense expenditure (901,855,000 yen) was covered by issuing bonds abroad (mainly in London and New York), owing much to the activity of **Takahashi Korekiyo** and securities arranged by American banker **Jacob Schiff**.

Despite public expectations, the decade that Japan experienced after the war was not one of public prosperity or national greatness. There was also no clear indication that the war had been a historic turning point. The importance of the war began to become clear only after World War I, when Japan "suddenly" turned into the strongest power in East Asia and became a world power. With the annexation of Korea in 1910 and the subsequent attempt to hand China the notorious **Twenty-one Demands** in 1915, it became evident that the war had heightened imperialist tendencies already existing earlier in Japan. The army and navy were also aware of the military importance of the war and took it as a reference for training, budgetary demands, and the creation of a military ethos. In the following years they increasingly interfered in Japanese politics and two decades later became a principal force in Japanese foreign politics, pushing unceasingly for greater imperial gains. In the 1920s Japan was in constant friction with the national aspirations of China and antagonized the economic and military presence of Great Britain and the United States in East Asia. Ultimately, the former conflict resulted in the Second Sino–Japanese War (1937–1945) and the latter conflict turned into the Pacific War (1941–1945).

JAPANESE IMPERIAL ARMY. *See* ARMY, JAPANESE IMPERIAL.

JAPANESE IMPERIAL NAVY. *See* NAVY, JAPANESE IMPERIAL.

JESSEN, KARL PETROVICH. *See* IESSEN, KARL PETROVICH.

JEWS. Jews were involved in the Russo–Japanese War more than in any other modern conflict until then. By the end of 1904, about 33,000 Jewish soldiers served among the Russian troops in **Manchuria**. Jews were very prominent in the medical corps of the **Imperial Russian Army**, and over half of the drafted and serving medical doctors on the Manchurian front were Jews. Several Jewish soldiers, such as **Joseph Trumpeldor**, distinguished themselves in battle and were awarded decorations of the highest rank, despite the anti-Semitic policies of the tsarist regime. About 1,800 Jewish soldiers were held in Japanese **prisoner camps** during the war. They were allowed to conduct cultural and religious activities inside the prison camps as part of the Japanese policy of favorable treatment of minority prisoners. Although some 3,000 Jewish soldiers died in the war, the international Jewish community refrained from aiding the Russian government financially due to its anti-Semitic policies and its implicit support of persecution of Jews, such as in the **pogroms of Kishinev**. Since **Russia** was identified as an oppressor of the Jews, **Japan** was aided by some of the major Jewish financiers, notably **Jacob Schiff**. Together with two leading American banks, acting on his counsel, his company agreed to sponsor the Japanese war loans. This guarantee helped the Japanese government gain a breakthrough in its much-needed fund-raising efforts and ensured Japan's ability to finance the war.

JINSEN. *See* CHEMULPO.

JINSENCHÛ KAISEN. *See* CHEMULPO, BATTLE OF.

– K –

KAISER WILHELM II. *See* WILLIAM II, EMPEROR.

KAMIMURA, HIKONOJO (1849–1916). Japanese naval officer who served as commander of the **Second Fleet** during the Russo–Japanese

War. He was born in the Satsuma domain (now Kagoshima Prefecture) and served as a foot soldier in the Boshin War against the shogunal forces during the Meiji Restoration. In 1871 Kamimura entered the Naval Academy and in later years slowly advanced. He received his first command on the **gunvessel** *Maya* in 1891, and three years later he took part in the **First Sino–Japanese War** as commanding officer of the cruiser ***Akitsushima***. Winning distinction in the first battle of the Yalu in 1894, Kamimura was promoted to captain the same year. In the following years he held several ministry, staff, and sea assignments, and was promoted to vice admiral in 1903. He was given command of the Second Fleet, and during the Russo–Japanese War was in charge of blockading **Vladivostok**. Following the sinking of a number of Japanese transports and troopships in the Sea of Japan in April and the **attack on the Tsushima Straits** in June 1904, he became an object of widespread popular dissatisfaction. A mob attacked his **Tokyo** residence, while newspapers hinted he should commit suicide. Kamimura redeemed himself, however, in the **battle of the Korea Straits**. Aboard his flagship ***Izumo*** he later led the Second Fleet, comprising the 3rd and 4th Battle Divisions, at the **battle of Tsushima**. After the war he was appointed commander of the naval base in Yokosuka in 1905 and commander of the **First Fleet** in 1909. He was made a baron in 1907 and promoted to admiral in 1910. Kamimura entered the reserve in 1914 and died two years later.

KANEKO, KENTARÔ (1853–1942). Japanese statesman and diplomat who served as minister in Washington during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born to a samurai family in the Fukuoka domain (now part of Fukuoka Prefecture) and graduated from Harvard College in 1878. Upon his return to **Japan**, Kaneko became a lecturer at Tokyo University, but in 1884 he decided to enter government service. He then took part in the drafting of the Meiji constitution together with **Itô Hirobumi**, Inoue Kowashi, and Itô Miyoji, and he became Itô Hirobumi's secretary. In subsequent years he was appointed to various government posts, such as deputy minister and minister of agriculture and commerce in 1894 and 1898, respectively, and justice minister in 1900. During the war he was sent to Washington and served as a spokesman for Japan. In March 1905 he

met President **Theodore Roosevelt** and Secretary of War **William Howard Taft** and discussed the possibility of a peace conference. After the war he became a member of the privy council and served in it until his death. He was made a baron in 1900, a viscount in 1907, and a count in 1934.

KAN'IN, KOTOHITO [KANIN NO MIYA KOTOHITO SHIN'NÔ] (1865–1945). Japanese army officer and imperial prince who served as commanding officer of a **cavalry** brigade during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading military figure afterward. He was born in Kyoto as a Fushimi scion, and he was adopted by the defunct Kan'in family in 1872. Reviving the family line, Kan'in received the title of prince in the new Japanese nobility. He subsequently studied in **France**, became a junior officer in the cavalry in 1887, and took part in the **First Sino–Japanese War**. During the Russo–Japanese War, Kan'in, by now major general, served initially as commanding officer of the 2nd Cavalry Brigade as part of the **First Army** and took part in the **battle of Sha-ho**. He was then transferred to the headquarters of the **Manchurian Army** and served as liaison officer for the German **military observer** Prince Karl Anton von Hohenzollern. After the war Kan'in was promoted to lieutenant general and in 1912 to general. He was made field marshal in 1919 and served as chief of staff of the army from 1931 to 1940.

KANTÔ. *See* KWANTUNG.

KARAFUTO. *See* SAKHALIN.

KARAFUTO SENRYÔ SAKUSEN. *See* SAKHALIN, CONQUEST OF.

KASAGI*.** Japanese protected **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was one of two ships of the ***Chitose class, which was almost identical externally to the ***Takasago*** class. She served in the 3rd Battle Division of the **First Fleet** at the outbreak of the war and took part in the **battle of the Yellow Sea**. The *Kasagi* was damaged in the **battle of Tsushima** but was repaired. She was used as a training vessel from 1910 but was wrecked in the Tsugaru Straits in 1916.

Technical data: Builder: Cramp, Philadelphia, United States, 1897–1898; Displ.: 4,900t; LBD: 114.1×14.9×5.41m [374.5×49×18ft]; Machinery: 2-shaft reciprocating VTE, 15,000ihp; Speed: 22.5kt; Fuel: 350/1,000t coal; Armament: 2×203mm (2×1), 10×120mm [4.7in.] QF (10×1), 12×12pdr QF (12×1), 6×2.5pdr QF (6×1), 4×457mm [18in.] TT; Armor: deck: 63–112mm [2.5–4.5in.], gun shields: 203mm [8in.], 120mm [4.7in.]; Comp.: 405.

KASHTALINSKII, NIKOLAI ALEKSANDROVICH (1849–?). Russian army officer who served as commanding officer of a division and a corps during the Russo–Japanese War. At the outbreak of the war, Lieutenant General Kashtalinskii commanded the 3rd East Siberian Rifle Division of the **Third Siberian Army Corps** and joined in the effort of his corps under the command of Lieutenant General **Fedor Keller** to halt the advance of the Japanese **First Army** en route to **Liaoyang** in June–July 1904. With the death of Keller on 31 July 1904, Kashtalinskii assumed command of the entire force and ordered a retreat. His decision was criticized by General **Aleksei Kuropatkin** as too hasty; nevertheless, he further took part in the **battle of Liaoyang** and in March 1905 was appointed commander of the Third Siberian Army Corps. He held this position until September 1905 and retired from military service in 1908.

KASUGA*.** Japanese armored **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was one of the two ships of the newly built *Giuseppe Garibaldi* class (renamed *Kasuga* class) designed and built for Italy and sold prior to completion to the Argentine navy in view of possible hostilities with Chile. By the time the cruisers were ready for delivery, the two countries resolved the conflict. Hence Argentina was willing to sell these two formidable cruisers. *Kasuga* was originally named *Rivadavia* but was purchased by **Japan** on 29 December 1903, immediately prior to the Russo–Japanese War, to prevent her acquisition by the **Imperial Russian Navy**. Arriving with her sister ship ***Nisshin at Yokosuka, Japan, on 16 February 1904, shortly after the outbreak of the war, *Kasuga* was attached to the 1st Battle Division of the **First Fleet** following the loss of the **battleships *Yashima*** and ***Hatsuse***. As part of this prime battle division of the **Imperial**

Japanese Navy, she participated in all the subsequent major naval operations of the war, including the **battle of Tsushima**, where she was attached to her unit, the 1st Battle Division. She was partly disarmed in the 1920s, served thereafter as a training ship, and was scrapped in 1948.

Technical data: Builder: Ansaldo, Genoa, Italy, 1902–1904; Displ.: 8,364t; LBD: 111.73×18.71×7.4m [357×61.6×24ft]; Machinery: 2-shaft VTE, 8 boilers, 14,896ihp; Speed: 20.15kt; Fuel: 1,190t coal; Range 5,500nm on 10kt; Armament: 1×254mm/45 [10in.], 2×203mm/45 [8in.], 14×152mm/45 [6in.], 10×47mm QF, 4×457mm [18in.] TT; Armor: Krupp steel, belt: 76–152mm [3–6in.], barbettes: 102–152mm [4–6in.], turrets: 152mm [6in.], casemates: 152mm [6in.], CT: 152mm [6in.], deck: 25–37mm [1–1.5in.]; Comp.: 600.

KATAOKA, SHICHIRÔ (1854–1920). Japanese naval officer who served as commander of the **Third Fleet** during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading figure in the **Imperial Japanese Navy** in later years. Kataoka was born in the Satsuma domain (now Kagoshima Prefecture). He graduated from the third class of the Naval Academy and studied aboard German navy vessels. He was promoted to lieutenant 1881 and lieutenant commander in 1886, and he served at sea and as an instructor at the Naval Academy. Following his promotion to captain in 1890, Kataoka returned to **Germany** for advanced studies and served as naval attaché at the Berlin embassy during 1890–1894. During the **First Sino–Japanese War**, he served on the navy general staff and was later appointed commanding officer of several warships on expeditions to the islands of Pescadore and Taiwan. Following a series of sea and shore posts, he was promoted to rear admiral in 1899 and vice admiral in 1903, and was appointed commander of the Third Fleet in December 1903. Aboard his flagship ***Itsukushima*** he led the **Third Fleet**, comprising the 5th and 6th Battle Divisions, at the **battle of the Yellow Sea** and later at the **battle of Tsushima**. In December 1905 he was replaced by Admiral **Tôgô Heihachirô** as commander of the **First Fleet**. Kataoka was made a baron in 1907, promoted to admiral in 1910, and appointed naval councilor in 1911. He entered the reserve in 1917 and died three years later.

KATAYAMA, SEN (1859–1933). Japanese political activist who belonged to the anti-war movement during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born under the name Yabuki Sugatarô in the present-day Okayama Prefecture and was adopted by the Katayama family. He studied theology in **Tokyo** and the **United States** and absorbed socialist ideals during his sojourn there. In 1897, having returned to **Japan** after 11 years abroad, Katayama became director of Kingsley Hall in Tokyo, the first modern settlement house in Japan, as well as leader of the country's newly established trade union and editor of its newspaper. Before the Russo–Japanese War he collaborated with **Kôtoku Shûsui** and others to form several socialist groups and parties that were in part pacifist. In 1903 he traveled back to the United States and Europe for two years, earning fame for his anti-war position but losing influence in his group. During the Russo–Japanese War, Katayama represented the Socialist Party of Japan in August 1904 at the Sixth Congress of the Second International held in Amsterdam and was elected vice chairman together with the Russian representative **Georgii Plekhanov**. When they shook hands, the entire hall burst into applause. In 1914 he left Japan permanently, to spend the rest of his life first in the United States and later in Moscow, where he attended the Russian Third International as a spokesman for Asian masses.

KATÔ, TOMOSABURÔ (1861–1923). Japanese naval officer and statesman who served as chief of staff of the **Second Fleet** and the **First Fleet** during the Russo–Japanese War, and became a leading figure in the **Imperial Japanese Navy** and prime minister after the war. Katô was born in **Hiroshima** and graduated from the seventh class of the Naval Academy. He served on various warships, was promoted to lieutenant in 1886, and studied in **Great Britain** in 1888. During the **First Sino–Japanese War**, Katô served on the staff of the Readiness Fleet and was promoted to lieutenant commander in 1895, commander in 1897, and captain in 1899. His first command was on the **cruiser *Suma***, his next on the **battleship *Hatsuse***. At the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, he served as the chief of staff of the Second Fleet. In September 1904 he was promoted to rear admiral and in January 1905 was appointed chief of staff of the First Fleet. Katô was promoted to vice admiral in 1908, became commander of the First

Fleet in 1913, and was promoted to admiral in 1915. He was regarded as a farsighted naval leader, and he represented **Japan** at the Washington Naval Arms Limitation Conference in 1921–1922. He became prime minister in June 1922 but died soon after. Upon his death he was promoted to admiral of the fleet and was made a viscount.

KATSURA, TARÔ (1847–1913). Japanese statesman and army officer who served as prime minister during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in the Chôshû domain (now Yamaguchi Prefecture) and fought against the shogunal forces in the Boshin War during the Meiji Restoration. In the early 1870s Katsura studied in **Germany** and served there as military attaché from 1875 to 1878. Upon his return to **Japan** from a stay in Europe in 1884–1885, where he studied military systems, Katsura was promoted to major general and served in various posts, including deputy army minister. During the **First Sino–Japanese War** he served under his mentor **Yamagata Aritomo** as commanding officer of the **3rd Division**. In 1896 he was appointed governor-general of Taiwan and two years later was made a viscount and appointed general. In 1898 he became army minister, a post he held until 1901, when he was appointed prime minister.

By the terms of an agreement with the Rikken Seiyûkai party (the majority party in the lower house of the Diet), Katsura was to rotate the prime ministership with Saionji Kimmochi, leader of the Rikken Seiyûkai. Initially he was looked upon as a temporary prime minister, but he was successful beyond all expectations. In his first term, from 1901 to 1906, Katsura presided over the signing of the **Anglo–Japanese Alliance** in 1902, and he led Japan throughout the Russo–Japanese War. His measures established Japan's position as a major imperialist power in East Asia. Thereafter his popularity plummeted. Katsura served again as prime minister in two cabinets (1908–1911, 1912–1913), but shortly after the Taisho political crisis in February 1913 he resigned; he died eight months later.

KATSURA–TAFT AGREEMENT (1905). Memorandum signed between **Japan** and the **United States** in the aftermath of the Russo–Japanese War. This secret agreement (until 1924) was concluded by the American Secretary of War **William Howard Taft** and Japanese Prime Minister **Katsura Tarô** on 29 July 1905, five weeks

before the end of the Russo–Japanese War and on the eve of the **Portsmouth Peace Conference**. It aimed to clarify and endorse the close working relations between the two states; Japan recognized American sovereignty in the Philippines and the United States recognized **Korea** as a protectorate of Japan.

KAULBARS, ALEKSANDR VASILIEVICH (1844–1929). Russian army officer who served as commander of the **Second Manchurian Army** and the **Third Manchurian Army** during the later stages of the Russo–Japanese War. Kaulbars was born in **St. Petersburg** into an aristocratic Protestant family of Baltic German ancestry and carried the title baron. He followed his elder brother into the army, spending his early adulthood in explorations in central Asia. In 1873 he fought in the campaign against Khiva. After taking part in the Russo–Turkish War of 1877–1878, Kaulbars represented **Russia** on the Serbian Boundary Commission, and later was assigned to the new Bulgarian army. He was appointed war minister of Bulgaria in 1882 but was recalled a year later. During the next two decades he took part in various expeditions to central Asia and wrote numerous works on his explorations. Kaulbars was appointed commanding officer of the Odessa garrison in 1903 but in October 1904 was summoned by General **Aleksei Kuropatkin** to **Manchuria**.

In December 1904 Kaulbars was given command of the Third Manchurian Army, and following the **battle of Sandepu** he became commander of the Second Manchurian Army on 12 February 1905. In this position he displayed little control of his unit during the **battle of Mukden**, when his forces were outflanked and disintegrated. During the retreat to Tieling [Tiehling], Kaulbars fell off his horse and was wounded. He remained, however, the commander of the army until its dissolution in September 1905 and subsequently was appointed governor-general of Odessa military region. He held this position until 1909 and was involved in the vicious pogrom that erupted in and around Odessa in November 1905. In 1913 Kaulbars was sent to Paris; he remained there after the October Revolution.

KAWAMURA, KAGEAKI (1850–1926). Japanese army officer who served as commander of the **Fifth Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in the Satsuma domain (now Kagoshima Prefec-

ture). His military skills and bravery were demonstrated for the first time when he was age 14, under the **British Royal Navy**'s bombardment of Kagoshima in 1864. Kawamura fought the shogunate in the Boshin War during the Meiji Restoration and joined the new **Imperial Japanese Army** as a sergeant. Within a year he was promoted to captain. Kawamura took part in suppressing the Satsuma Rebellion of 1877 and was later promoted to major general. During the **First Sino–Japanese War** he received command of a brigade of the **Imperial Guards Division** and in 1895 was made a baron. A decade later, during the first stages of the Russo–Japanese War, he commanded successfully the **10th Division** and consequently was promoted in January 1905 to general, ahead of several more senior officers. In the final stages of the war, Kawamura was appointed commander of the Fifth Army and won distinction at the **battle of Mukden**. He was made a viscount after the war, promoted to field marshal in 1915, and four years later became head of the Imperial Military Reserve Association.

KEIJÔ. *See* SEOUL.

KELLER, FEDOR EDUARDOVICH (1850–1904). Russian army officer who served as commander of the Eastern Detachment during the Russo–Japanese War. A scion of a noble family with Austrian and French roots, he graduated from the elite Corps of Pages in 1866. Keller became ensign in the premier cavalry regiment of the **Imperial Russian Army** and took part as a volunteer in the Serbo–Turkish War of 1876. During the Russo–Turkish War of 1877–1878 he won his initial recognition and became chief of staff of the Russian advance guard, instead of the wounded Colonel **Aleksei Kuropatkin**. After that war Keller was promoted to colonel and served in a number of staff positions. In 1890 he received command of the 4th Imperial Guards Rifle Battalion and was promoted to major general. Subsequently he was assigned to the main general staff, a position he held for three years before being appointed in 1892 director of the military academy where he himself had graduated. He remained at that post for the next seven years.

Following promotion to lieutenant general in 1899, Keller became the governor of Iekaterinoslav but volunteered for a field command

in the upcoming Russo–Japanese War. He was placed at the disposal of Kuropatkin, by now the war minister. Initially Keller served as a **military intelligence** officer on Kuropatkin's staff, but after the Russian defeat in the **battle of the Yalu** he replaced Lieutenant General **Mikhail Zasulich** in May 1904 as commander of the Eastern Detachment while commanding simultaneously the **Third Siberian Army Corps**. He was then positioned to halt the northward advancement of the Japanese **First Army** under General **Kuroki Tametomo** en route to **Liaoyang**. Keller was considered brave and intelligent, and his leadership restored the confidence of the unit. During late June 1904, however, he abandoned his positions at Motienling [Motien Pass; *Matenrei*] and allowed Kuroki a strategically important breakthrough. He subsequently operated to retake the pass but was killed by Japanese **artillery** fire on 31 July 1904 in yet another engagement with Kuroki near Tawan.

KIDESHI, YASUTSUNA (1855–1932). Japanese army officer who served as commanding officer of a division during the Russo–Japanese War and became army minister after the war. Kideshi was born in the Saga domain (now Saga Prefecture) and graduated from the Army Academy. Subsequently he took part in suppressing the Satsuma Rebellion of 1877 and the **First Sino–Japanese War**. During the first stages of the Russo–Japanese War, Kideshi, by now a major general, served as commanding officer of the 23rd Infantry Brigade and took part in the initial **landing operations** in **Chemulpo**. He was soon promoted to lieutenant general and appointed commanding officer of the reserve units of the **1st Division**. In November 1904 he became commanding officer of the **5th Division**, first as part of the **Fourth Army** and then of the **Second Army**, and took part in the **battle of Mukden**. In 1907 Kideshi was made a baron and served as army minister in 1911–1913. In 1916 he was transferred to the reserve and in 1920 became a member of the House of Peers.

KINOSHITA, NAOE (1869–1937). Japanese author and socialist who became an anti-war activist during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in Matsumoto (now Nagano Prefecture) and graduated from Tokyo Senmon Gakko (later Waseda University). Kinoshita cultivated an interest in Western socialism and wrote articles criticizing

many forms of social abuse. He condemned the **First Sino–Japanese War** and subsequently joined a group of Christian socialists associated with the **Heiminsha** group. During the Russo–Japanese War he wrote his most notable novel, *Hi no hashira* [Pillar of Fire]. Affirming his pacifism and socialist views, the novel was banned and published only in 1910. That year he began to engage in inner contemplation, and he spent the rest of his life in meditation.

KINSHÛ. *See* CHINCHOU.

KIRIN [JILIN]. One of the three provinces of **Manchuria**, **China**, which became a site of Russian military concentration and headquarters during the Russo–Japanese War. It borders **Russia** to the northeast, **Korea** [present-day North Korea] to the southeast, and inner Mongolia to the west. While its eastern parts are mountainous, its main area is traversed by the Sungari River and enjoys agricultural prosperity. Its capital is Chungchun, which became the site of headquarters of the Russian **Manchurian Armies** during the final stages of the Russo–Japanese War. Following the **Treaty of Portsmouth**, Russia ceded to **Japan** the section of the **Chinese Eastern Railway** south of Chungchun. The province was taken over by Japanese forces in 1931, together with other parts of Manchuria, and returned to Chinese control after World War II.

KISHINEV, POGROMS OF (1903, 1905). Pogroms against **Jews** in **Russia**. The one in 1903 became one of the determinants of Russia's negative international image before the Russo–Japanese War, and of **Jacob Schiff**'s stated motive for supporting **Japan** financially during the war. Following an anti-Jewish campaign by a local newspaper in Kishinev, Bessarabia (present-day Chisinau, capital and largest city of Moldova), the body of a Christian child was found in the town at Easter. When a Russian and Rumanian mob attacked the local Jewish population on 6–7 April 1903, the garrison stationed in town took no action. In the pogrom, 49 Jews died and more than 500 were injured. The public outcry around the world brought to attention the long-standing anti-Semitic policies of the Russian government. At the time it was believed, within and outside Russia, that the Kishinev pogrom had been encouraged, if not actually incited, by agents of the Russian

interior ministry, with the support of the minister himself, **Viacheslav Plehve**. Most sources now agree that the pogrom was not specifically directed by the government, but that the climate in which such events could occur was created by official anti-Semitic attitudes. The pogrom intensified the vicious image of the Russian regime as discriminatory and brutal. At the height of the **1905 Revolution**, on 19–20 October 1905, another pogrom occurred in Kishinev. It began as "patriotic" riots against the **October Manifesto** and soon turned into an attack on the Jewish quarter, resulting in the death of 19 Jews.

KLADO, NIKOLAI LAVRENTEVICH (1862–1919). Russian naval officer, correspondent, and historian who became a critic of the **Imperial Russian Navy** during the Russo–Japanese War and promoter of the dispatch of the **Third Pacific Squadron** to the Pacific. Klado graduated from the naval school in 1881 and the Naval Academy in 1886, and taught military naval history and tactics at the naval school. He became an instructor in the history of military naval science and strategy at the Naval Academy in 1895. At the time of the Russo–Japanese War he rose to the rank of captain. During the summer of 1904, Klado began a campaign in the Russian press, the prominent daily *Novoe Vremia* in particular, to send the **Second Pacific Squadron** under the command of Vice Admiral **Zinovii Rozhestvenskii** to East Asia. He joined the squadron for the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet** but left at Vigo to represent Rozhestvenskii at the international commission settling the **Dogger Bank Incident**.

Subsequently Klado returned to **St. Petersburg**. He became convinced that another squadron would draw Japanese shells, otherwise directed at the modern Russian ships. Against the will of Rozhestvenskii, his writings inspired the naval command to send the ill-suited ships of the Third Pacific Squadron to the Pacific. After the war he published a critical work on the voyage of the Baltic Fleet (*The Russian Navy in the Russo–Japanese War*, 1905) but was forced to resign his position. In 1910 he became professor of strategy at the Naval Academy and participated in the work of compiling and editing the *Military Encyclopedia* and the *History of the Russian Army and Fleet*. From 1917 until his death two years later he served as director of the Naval Academy and was heavily involved in the rewriting of **Russia**'s naval history.

***KNIAZ POTEMKIN TAVRICHESKII* [*POTEMKIN*].** Russian **battleship** renowned for the mutiny of her crew during the Russo–Japanese War. She was the only ship of the newly built *Kniaz Potemkin Tavricheskii* class and served in the **Black Sea Fleet** at the outbreak of the war. Her crew led the **Potemkin mutiny** in June 1905, and upon surrender at the port of Constanza the mutineers opened the seacocks and scuttled the ship in shallow water. *Kniaz Potemkin Tavritcheskii* was subsequently salvaged and towed away by the **Imperial Russian Navy**, rejoining the fleet under the name *Pantelimon*. She served uneventfully in the Black Sea during World War I but was sunk again by her crew in the harbor at Sevastopol on 25 April 1919 to prevent her seizure by the Soviet government. She was raised but eventually scrapped in 1922.

Technical data: Builder: Nikolaev, Russia, 1898–1903; Displ.: 12,582t; LBD: 115.36×22.25×8.23m [378.5×73×27ft]; Machinery: 24 Belleville boilers, 2-shaft VTE, 10,600ihp; Speed: 16.6kt; Fuel: 870t coal; Armament: 4×305mm/40 [12in.] (2×2), 16×152mm/45 [6in.], 14×11pdr, 6×3pdr, 5×381mm [15in.] TT (5sub); Armor: KC, belt: 127–229mm [5–9in.], CT: 229mm [9in.], turrets: 127–254mm [5–10in.], battery: 127mm [5in.], casemates: 152mm [6in.]; Comp.: 750.

KNIAZ SUVOROV*.** Russian **battleship** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was one of five ships of the newly built but ill-fated ***Borodino class and served in the **Baltic Fleet** at the outbreak of the war. She participated in the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet** as part of the Second Baltic Squadron and served as the flagship of Vice Admiral **Zinovii Rozhestvenskii**. Leading the main column of the Russian armada during the **battle of Tsushima**, she was heavily damaged by Japanese gun shells. She subsequently pulled out of the line and later was sunk by multiple **torpedo** hits, with 836 of her crew.

Technical data: Builder: Baltic Works, St. Petersburg, Russia, 1899–1904; Displ.: 13,516t; LBD: 121.00×23.22×7.97m [397×76×26ft]; Machinery: 20 Belleville boilers, 2-shaft VTE, 16,300ihp; Speed: 17.8kt; Fuel: 800/1,520t coal; Armament: 4×305mm/40 [12in.] (2×2), 12×152mm/45 [6in.] (6×2), 20×11pdr, 20×3pdr, 4×381mm [15in.] TT (2AW 2sub); Armor: KC, belt: 152–191mm [6–7.5in.], belt ends: 102–146mm [4–5.75in.],

turrets: 102–254mm [4–10in.], secondary turrets: 152mm [6in.], 11pdr battery: 76mm [3in.], CT: 203mm [8in.]; Comp.: 835–850.

KODAMA, GENTARÔ (1852–1906). Japanese army officer who served as chief of staff of the **Manchurian Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. Kodama was born in the Chôshû domain (now Yamaguchi Prefecture) and fought with his clan in the Boshin War against the shogunal forces during the Meiji Restoration. He entered the newly established **Imperial Japanese Army** and rose quickly through the ranks to 1st lieutenant. Kodama received training from a German officer, **Klemens Meckel**, and became the first commander of the Army Staff College. In the following years he was promoted to major general and served as chief of the Army Ministry's General Affairs Bureau, deputy army minister, and governor-general of Taiwan. In 1900 he became army minister in the fourth cabinet of **Itô Hirobumi**. In the succeeding cabinet of **Katsura Tarô** he was minister of home affairs and education.

In 1903 he stepped down from his position, resuming the post of deputy chief of staff, and directed the plans for war with **Russia**. The following year he was promoted in June to general and won distinction as the chief of staff to Field Marshal **Ôyama Iwao**, who commanded the **Manchurian Army**. He was involved in advising General **Nogi Maresuke** during the crucial months of the **siege of Port Arthur**, and in early 1905 he replaced Ôyama temporarily due to the latter's sickness. Following the **battle of Mukden** he returned to **Tokyo** to urge the government to enter peace talks before the exhausted Japanese resources turned the tide in favor of the Russians. Weakened by war, he died of illness in Tokyo in 1906 and was posthumously made a count.

KOJONG [YI CHAE-HWANG; *KÔCHOTEI, KÔSÔ*] (1852–1919). Korean monarch who ruled **Korea** during the Russo–Japanese War. Ascending the throne at the age of 12 as the 26th ruler of the Yi Dynasty, Kojong resisted Japanese endeavors to take over Korea for more than three decades. His hatred for **Japan** grew following the **assassination of Queen Min**, his wife, in 1895. In early 1896 he fled, dressed as a woman, from his palace to the Russian legation building. A year later he left the legation, proclaiming Korea to be the "Great

Han Empire" and himself its emperor. At the beginning of the Russo–Japanese War he declared Korea's **neutrality**, which summed up his role in the conflict. Korea, however, was invaded by Japanese forces and Kojong was forced by the Japanese to concede to their demands during and after the war. Obliged to abdicate in July 1907, after sending unofficial envoys to the **Hague Peace Conference** that year to protest the wrongs done to his country by the Japanese, he witnessed his son Sunjong abdicate and declare Korea's submission to **Japan** three years later. On the eve of Kojong's funeral on 1 March 1919, Koreans erupted in fierce demonstrations, which were harshly suppressed by the Japanese. Today Kojong is remembered as a symbol of Korean nationalism in North and South Korea alike.

KÔKAI KAISEN. *See* YELLOW SEA, BATTLE OF.

KOKKÔDAI KAISEN. *See* SANDEPU, BATTLE OF.

KOKURYÛKAI [AMUR RIVER SOCIETY, BLACK DRAGON SOCIETY]. Japanese anti-Russian association active before and during the Russo–Japanese War. It was founded in 1901 by Uchida Ryôhei as an ultranationalist association supporting pan-Asianism, the ideal of an Asia united and separate from the West, and bent on driving **Russia** out of East Asian territories south of the Amur River. The association published a journal called *Kokuryû* [Amur River], later renamed *Ajia Jiron*. It also trained and dispatched secret agents to gather information about Russian activities and pressured the government to adopt an assertive foreign policy. During the Russo–Japanese War, and later during the occupation of **Korea** and the Siberian Intervention of 1918–1922, it engaged in covert political action, attacking liberal thought and calling for national reconstruction. Despite the small number of members, the association enjoyed exceptional influence thanks to ties with key businessmen and military and political figures, until it was eventually disbanded during the occupation.

KOMURA, JUTARÔ (1855–1911). Japanese statesman who served as foreign minister during the Russo–Japanese War and chief Japanese plenipotentiary at the **Portsmouth Peace Conference**. Komura

was born in the Obi domain (now Miyazaki Prefecture), studied law at the Daigaku Nanko, and graduated from Harvard College in 1878. He joined the Ministry of Justice in 1880, and the Foreign Ministry four years later. After serving in several posts in **Tokyo**, Beijing, **Seoul,** and Washington, Komura was eventually appointed foreign minister in 1901 and held this position until 1906. Considered by many as the greatest 20th-century Japanese diplomat, he was a proponent of continental expansion. He signed the **Komura–Weber Memorandum** of 1896 and played an important role in the conclusion of the **Treaty of Portsmouth** and the **Treaty of Peking** in 1905. For these services, and for negotiating the second **Anglo–Japanese Alliance**, Komura was made a count in **Japan** as well as a KCB by King Edward VII. He resigned his office in 1906 and became a member of the privy council. Six months later, however, he was appointed ambassador to **Great Britain.** He began another term as foreign minister in 1908, playing a key role in the annexation of **Korea**.

KOMURA–WEBER [WAEBER] MEMORANDUM (1896). Agreement between **Russia** and **Japan** preceding the Russo–Japanese War and allowing both countries to intervene in internal Korean affairs. It was signed in **Seoul** in 1896 by Japanese Deputy Foreign Minister **Komura Jutarô** and Russian diplomat Karl Weber, who served earlier as Russia's minister to **China** and **Korea**.

KONDRATENKO, ROMAN ISIDOROVICH (1857–1904). Russian army officer who served as commanding officer of a division and emerged as one of the leading officers in the defense of **Port Arthur**. Kondratenko was born to a middle-rank army officer in Tiflis (now Tbilisi) and began a military career at a young age. After graduating from the Engineering Academy and later the Academy of the General Staff, he became the chief of staff of the Ural oblast in 1886. Kondratenko was promoted to major general in 1901 and was appointed a duty general of the staff of the Priamur Military District in the Russian Far East. In November 1903 he was appointed commanding officer of the 7th East Siberian Rifle Brigade stationed at **Port Arthur**, and the unit soon expanded to become the 7th East Siberian Rifle Division. Soon after, Kondratenko was promoted to lieutenant general

and exerted much effort to improve the fortifications of the stronghold on the eve of the Russo–Japanese War.

During the **siege of Port Arthur** Kondratenko was instrumental in fortifying the terrain around the fortress and in resolutely countering the Japanese sapping and laying of land mines. In effect he was third in command of the fort, below Lieutenant General **Anatolii Stoessel** and Lieutenant General **Konstantin Smirnov**, and acted as the general commander of the land forces. Having undisputed authority among the garrison because of his personal bravery, he was awarded with the orders of St. George of the 4th and 3rd grades. On 15 December 1904 Kondratenko was killed by a direct hit of a Japanese 280-millimeter [11-inch] **howitzer** shell on the fort of Chikuan on the northeastern line of the port's defenses. His death, like that of Vice Admiral **Stepan Makarov** seven months earlier, demoralized the Russian defenders and inspired the belief that the defense of the fortress had come to an end. After the war Kondratenko was honored by having his name given to the 25th East Siberian Rifle Regiment, a school in **St. Petersburg**, and a **destroyer** of the **Imperial Russian Navy**.

KONOE, ATSUMARO (1863–1904). Japanese aristocrat and political activist who founded a pan-Asian expansionist movement before the Russo–Japanese War. Konoe was born in Kyoto and was a scion of the Konoe family, the first of the five branches of the Fujiwara family whose members were eligible for the post of regent. He studied in Leipzig and received the title of prince in 1884 under the new system of nobility. Konoe openly criticized the monopoly of government power held by the Satsuma and Chôshû clans. He subsequently became the head of the Peers School in 1895 and chair of the House of Peers a year later. In 1898 he founded the Tôa Dobunkai, a society aimed at promoting mutual understanding with **China** and ending European influence in East Asia. In the years before the Russo–Japanese War he pressed for a resolution of tsarist **Russia**'s occupation of **Manchuria**. Consequently, in 1903 he established the **Tairo Dôshikai** [Anti-Russia Society], a society intended to incite public opinion against Russia and to urge a declaration of war against the Russian empire. That year Konoe was appointed to the privy council, but he died a year later during the Russo–Japanese War, leaving a son, the future Prime Minister Konoe Fumimaro.

KORCZAK, JANUSZ [GOLDSZMIDT, HENRYK] (1878–1942). Polish Jewish author, educator, and social worker who served as a military surgeon in the **Imperial Russian Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. Korczak was born into a wealthy family in Warsaw and studied medicine. During the Russo–Japanese War he was drafted to serve as a military surgeon in the Imperial Russian Army and provided **medical treatment** in **Manchuria**. After his return to **Poland**, in 1911 he became the head of a Jewish orphanage, where he developed an educational approach of granting the children a kind of self-government. Korczak retained this post for the rest of his life except for the duration of World War I, when he was drafted again and served as a medical officer. In the following decades he wrote children's literature and theoretical works. Following the German invasion of Poland in 1939, the orphanage was transferred to the ghetto in Warsaw. Korczak died two years later in Treblinka, as he chose to walk with some 200 orphans to the gas chambers despite being offered freedom. In later years his martyrdom invested him with the aura of a saint in both Poland and Israel.

KOREA. A monarchy bordering on **Russia** and **China**, and close to **Japan**; the cardinal though unwilling cause of the territorial conflict between Japan and Russia leading to the Russo–Japanese War. In the three decades preceding the war, Korea increasingly became a target of the imperial aspirations of its neighbors and other powers. In 1876 Japan forced Korea to sign the Treaty of Kanghwa, by which three ports were fully opened to Japanese settlement and trade. In 1881 Japanese officers arrived in Korea to help modernize the Korean army in an attempt to reduce the Chinese presence in the kingdom. In 1882 China acquired trade concessions in Korea and was followed by various powers obtaining their own commercial rights. The rise of a new militia in Korea led to the Imo Mutiny in 1882, in which dissatisfied traditional units rebelled. Both China and Japan sent troops, and the Chinese arrested the father of the young King **Kojong**, who was believed to have incited the mutiny. In 1884 another armed conflict between China and Japan broke out over the control of Korea. To prevent escalation, in 1885 the two nations resolved their disagreements over Korea by signing the Tientsin [Tianjin] Convention, by which they agreed to

withdraw their troops and to refrain from dispatching them again without prior notice.

A decade later the convention did not prevent these two nations from going to war, which broke out under similar circumstances. In May 1894 the anti-government Tonghak Rebellion erupted and Kojong requested armed assistance from China. In reaction to the arrival in Korea of 2,500 Chinese troops in June, Japan sent more than 8,000 troops and occupied **Seoul** and the treaty ports. Japan then made some proposals for Korean reform, to be undertaken jointly by itself and China, while rejecting the latter's demands to withdraw it forces. Following a preemptive attack, Japan eventually declared the **First Sino–Japanese War**, and Korea became the battleground of the belligerents. The Chinese defeat resulted in the submission of Kojong to the Japanese throne, and extensive reforms were carried out in most of the government departments. For about 18 months all Korean administration was practically under Japanese control. In October 1895 Japan's minister in Seoul, **Miura Gorô**, assassinated **Queen Min** with the aid of Japanese troops and support of the king's father. Miura captured the palace and made a prisoner of the king himself, but he escaped to the Russian legation, where he remained until the spring of 1897. His turning to the Russians was not accidental, as they were beginning to fill the political vacuum left by the Chinese.

The advent of a massive Russian presence heralded the decline of Japanese influence in Korea in the latter half of the 1890s. The reforms were rescinded and a powerful retrograde movement set in. In 1897 Kojong assumed the title of emperor and changed the official designation of his monarchy to the Great Han Empire. By 1900 the imperial will had practically overridden all constitutional restraints. During the short period from 1896 to 1903, Korea became the focus of Japanese–Russian relations. In 1896 the two nations signed the **Yamagata–Lobanov agreement** regarding their respective interests in the peninsula. In the **Nishi–Rosen agreement** that followed in 1898, Russia explicitly acknowledged Japan's special position in Korea. The agreements did not dispel Japan's anxiety over a Russian takeover of Korea, and Russia's invasion of **Manchuria** following the **Boxer Uprising** only increased Japanese concern. After 1901 Japan insisted on the formula of **Manchuria–Korea exchange** (*mankan kôkan*), namely Manchuria to Russia and Korea to Japan. When Japanese agents discovered Russian

military activity near the **Yalu River** in autumn 1903, and when Russia rejected their ultimatums, Japan's leaders felt they had no choice but to resort to armed conflict with Russia over Korea.

The Russo–Japanese War began with the Japanese landing at the Korean port city of **Chemulpo**. On 23 February 1904, Japan forced Korea to reach an agreement whereby the former resumed its position as administrative advisor to the latter, guaranteed Korea's integrity, and committed itself to sustain the imperial house. During the early months of the war, Japanese forces wiped out the Russian presence in the peninsula in a series of clashes, beginning with the **battle of Chemulpo** and ending with the **battle of the Yalu**. At the end of the war, Japan's interests were recognized by Russia in the **Treaty of Portsmouth**, and by **Great Britain** in the extension of the **Anglo–Japanese Alliance** in August 1905. The Koreans did not accept the restoration of Japanese influence without protest, and the "righteous armies" commenced in limited actions of insurrection. Once again, Japan forced on Korea the conclusion of the **Protectorate Agreement**, signed on 18 November 1905, whereby Japan took control of Korea's foreign affairs and relations, and the confirmation of previous agreements. In 1907 a secret Korean delegation headed by Prince Yong, a member of the imperial family, was sent to present before the **Hague Peace Conference** that year, and before all the principal governments, a protest against Korea's treatment at Japanese hands.

The mission failed in its objective, whereupon Japan forced the emperor to abdicate on 19 July 1907 in favor of his son Sunjong. On 24 July the Japanese resident-general **Itô Hirobumi** assumed complete control of Korean government and disbanded the Korean army. Elements of the army joined the fight of the "righteous armies" and embarked on insurrection and intermittent guerrilla warfare, which the Japanese were able to suppress in a lengthy and bloody struggle. Following the assassination of Itô by a Korean, Japanese Army Minister **Terauchi Masatake** became resident-general in July 1909, with the mission of bringing about annexation. This final step was realized on 29 August 1910, when Sunjong abdicated and declared by formal treaty Korea's submission to Japan, thereby ending 518 years of rule of the Yi dynasty. In the following decades, Japan dispatched more settlers to the Korean peninsula, set about eradicating Korean culture and identity, and simultaneously developed the country's industry and infrastructure. Korea was eventually

liberated from the yoke of Japanese colonialism after 35 years, following the Japanese defeat in August 1945. The northern part of the peninsula was taken over by the Soviet Union and the southern part by American forces. The division of Korea into two states led to the Korean War (1950–1953), but the two-state situation still obtains.

KOREAN–JAPANESE CONVENTION OF 1905. *See* PROTECTORATE AGREEMENT.

KOREA STRAITS. Waterway lying between **Japan** and **Korea** that was the site of the **battle of the Korea Straits** during the Russo–Japanese War. The Korea Straits parallel the **Tsushima Straits**, and these waterways connect the Sea of Japan with the East China Sea.

KOREA STRAITS, BATTLE OF THE [BATTLE OF ULSAN; *US-SANCHÛ KAISEN*] (1904). Minor naval engagement with significant repercussions during the Russo–Japanese War. It was fought on 14 August 1904 off the Korean port of Ulsan in the vicinity of the **Korea Straits** between units of the Japanese **Second Fleet** and the Russian **Vladivostok Independent Cruiser Squadron**. The battle was a direct consequence of the **battle of the Yellow Sea**, although the **Imperial Japanese Navy** had anticipated it for several months. The commander of the squadron in **Port Arthur**, Rear Admiral **Vilgelm Vitgeft**, did not report to the Vladivostok Independent Cruiser Squadron his intention of taking his ships out of Port Arthur; nevertheless, news of the departure reached **Vladivostok** the next day. Soon after, on 13 August 1904, the commander of the Vladivostok Independent Cruiser Squadron, Rear Admiral **Karl Iessen**, decided to steam south with his three **cruisers** and assist the approaching fleet. Unaware of the fate of Vitgeft and his ships, Iessen informed his captains that at dawn they would be approaching the **Tsushima Straits**.

Iessen's adversary, the commander of the Japanese Second Fleet, Vice Admiral **Kamimura Hikonojo**, was situated farther eastward. For months the small Russian unit had menaced Japanese transport lines, sinking 15 transports. Kamimura failed repeatedly in his pursuit and had become the object of public fury. Now, with four cruisers under his command, the ***Izumo***, ***Azuma***, ***Tokiwa***, and ***Iwate*** (carrying the flag of Rear Admiral **Misu Sôtarô**), he was in the midst of

another mission to intercept the Russian cruisers. During the night the two forces closely passed each other, unobserved, on opposite courses. At dawn the Russian cruisers reached Pusan and then began to turn west toward the Korean coast. Soon, however, the two forces sighted each other. At 05:20 on 14 August 1904, when the range was down to less than 8,000 meters and the weather clear, the two sides opened fire. Kamimura allocated two of his four cruisers to the ***Rurik***, the last and weakest in the Russian column. In a short time *Rurik* lost most of her officers but continued to fight for hours. The other two Russian cruisers, ***Rossia*** and ***Gromoboi***, swerved away from the Japanese cruisers in an attempt to enable the *Rurik* to regain her station. The *Rurik*, however, was unable to proceed in column, and a hit in her steering room caused her to circle, out of control.

At 08:30 Iessen realized that the *Rurik* was doomed and that he would be unable to rescue the survivors, so he ordered his two remaining cruisers back to Vladivostok. The two forces were steaming northward and firing at each other, but eventually the Russians managed to escape and returned to their base. At 11:15 Kamimura ordered his crippled and exhausted cruisers to turn around and head back to the last position of the *Rurik*. He was afterward criticized for abandoning the pursuit, but in fact this battle ended the exploits of the Vladivostok Independent Cruiser Squadron until the end of the war. Following this engagement and the earlier battle of the Yellow Sea, the Japanese transport lines were free of any naval threat until the arrival of the **Baltic Fleet** more than nine months later.

***KOREETS* [*KOREYETZ*].** Russian **gunvessel** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. One of two Barquentine-rigged vessels of the *Koreets* class, she served in the **Pacific Fleet** at the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War. She was equipped with a pronounced ram bow, two low-performance, 203-millimeter [8-inch] guns in forward sponsons, and one 152mm [6in.] gun aft, but suffered from low speed and was of poor performance under sail. On the eve of the Russo–Japanese War, the *Koreets* was stationed at the port of **Chemulpo**. On 8–9 February 1904 she took part in the **battle of Chemulpo** and following her return to port was scuttled by her crew.

Technical data: Builder: Bergsund, Stockholm, 1885–1887; Displ.: 1,270t; LBD: 62.79×10.67×3.20m [206×35×10.5ft]; Machinery: 6

cylinder boilers, 2-shaft horizontal compound, 1,560ihp; Speed: 13.3kt; Fuel: 250t coal; Armament: 2×203mm/35 [8in.], 1×152mm/35 [6in.], 4×120mm/20 [4.7in.], 2×3pdr revolvers, 4×1pdr revolvers, 1×381mm [15in.] TT AW; Comp.: 179.

KÔTOKU, SHÛSUI (1871–1911). A Japanese socialist and anarchist leader who became an anti-war activist during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in Nakamura, Kôchi Prefecture, under the name Kôtoku Denjirô, and graduated from the Tokyo School of English. Subsequently Kôtoku wrote for newspapers and later joined **Katayama Sen** and Murai Tomoyoshi in the newly founded Society for the Study of Socialism. In 1901 he formed, together with Katayama and Abe Isoo, **Japan**'s first socialist-democratic party, the Shakai Minshutô, which was subsequently outlawed. Faced with the upcoming war with **Russia**, he joined **Sakai Toshihiko** and others in a campaign for peace, publishing the magazine *Heimin Shimbun* to protest government war policies and including in it the first translation ever of the Communist Manifesto into Japanese. His anarchistic agenda split the Japan Socialist Party and led to its dissolution. Kôtoku was convicted of high treason in 1910 for his part in an alleged conspiracy to assassinate the emperor and was executed a year later along with 11 co-conspirators.

KRONSTADT. Russian naval port that served as the main base of the **Baltic Fleet** during the Russo–Japanese War. It is situated on the island of Kotlin in the narrow bay in which the Gulf of Finland terminates, 15 kilometers [9 miles] from **Finland** and 75 kilometers [47 miles] from Estonia (59° 59' north and 29° 49' east). Although the port is ice-bound for 140 to 160 days each year (December to April), the strategic value of the site was recognized by Peter the Great, who captured it from the Swedes in 1703 and constructed a fort and docks on the island. It was renamed Kronstadt in 1823 and became at first an important commercial harbor, since ships could not reach the capital, **St. Petersburg**. In 1875–1885 a canal was excavated to the city and the island lost its trading importance. The sailors of Kronstadt traditionally formed the most revolutionary element of the **Imperial Russian Navy**, and indeed, mutinies known as the **Kronstadt Rebellion** broke out among the troops during and after the

Russo–Japanese War. After the February 1917 revolution, the Kronstadt Soviet opposed the provisional government. It declared the establishment of the "Kronstadt Republic" and took part in the July 1917 mutiny. During the October Revolution in 1917, the cruiser ***Aurora*** of the Baltic Fleet bombarded the Winter Palace and thus helped in the Bolshevist victory. In accordance with their revolutionary reputation, units of the Baltic Fleet stationed in Kronstadt mutinied again in March 1921 against the Soviet government; after a long struggle the revolt was crushed with much loss of life.

KRONSTADT REBELLION (1905). Rebellion in the aftermath of the Russo–Japanese War at the naval base of **Kronstadt**. During the summer of 1905 the naval garrison of Kronstadt, the main base of the **Baltic Fleet**, witnessed increasing unrest amongst soldiers and workers supporting the sentiment of the **Revolution of 1905**. Riots erupted in September and culminated a month later. Following a meeting held on 23 October 1905 and attended by thousands of people, a major rebellion erupted spontaneously. On 26 October the soldiers of the Second Garrison Infantry Battalion presented a set of demands to their officers; then they began a demonstration and 52 of them were arrested. In an attempt to free them, one of the sailors was killed and several more were wounded. Consequently the sailors of the Seventh Fleet seized their rifles and took to the streets, and later were joined by most of the crews of ships stationed at the base. By the evening, about 4,500 sailors and soldiers involved in the rebellion had taken control of the base, but due to disorganization they were forced to withdraw. On 28 October, warships loyal to the government approached the base, and their crews disarmed the sailors. Kronstadt was placed under martial law and the mutineers were arrested.

KUHN, JOSEPH ERNEST (1864–1935). American army officer who served as a **military observer** during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in Leavenworth, Kansas, and graduated from the U.S. Military Academy. Kuhn joined the Engineers as a 2nd lieutenant, was promoted later to major, and was assigned as a military observer to the **Imperial Japanese Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. In the years following the war he earned promotions, eventually to major general, served in numerous command posts, and retired after 40 years of service.

KURINO, SHIN'ICHIRÔ (1851–1937). Japanese diplomat who served as minister to **Russia** before the Russo–Japanese War and plenipotentiary to the **Portsmouth Peace Conference**. He was born to a samurai family in the Fukuoka domain (now part of Fukuoka Prefecture) and entered service in the Foreign Ministry in 1881. Kurino's first assignment abroad was in the **United States** in 1894, followed by a stay in Italy and **France**. In 1902 he became minister in **St. Petersburg** and took part in the hectic negotiations between **Japan** and Russia in the months preceding the outbreak of the war. He notified the Russian government of the suspension of diplomatic relations and the withdrawal of the Japanese legation on 6 February 1904 and soon after left Russia. In August 1905 Kurino arrived in the **United States** to take part in the Japanese delegation to the Portsmouth Peace Conference, and together with Foreign Minister **Komura Jutarô** and the Japanese ambassador, **Takahira Kogorô**, he assisted in concluding the **Treaty of Portsmouth**. He was made a baron in 1905 and a viscount in 1912.

KUROKI, TAMETOMO (1844–1923). Japanese army officer who served as commander of the **First Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in the Satsuma domain (now Kagoshima Prefecture) and fought for his clan against the shogunal forces in the Boshin War during the Meiji Restoration. Kuroki joined the newly established **Imperial Japanese Army** as captain and was soon promoted to lieutenant colonel. During the Satsuma Rebellion of 1877 he commanded a regiment against his own clan, and in 1894 he led, as lieutenant general, the **6th Division** in the **First Sino–Japanese War**. He was subsequently appointed commander of the First Army and promoted to general in November 1903. During the Russo–Japanese War he landed with his army in **Korea** and enjoyed a series of successes in the **battle of the Yalu**, the **battle of Liaoyang,** and the **battle of Sha-ho**, as well as in the **battle of Mukden**. Kuroki was denied a promotion to field marshal, presumably because of army politics, and retired a few years later. He was made a count and served as a privy councilor until his death in 1923.

KUROPATKIN, ALEKSEI NIKOLAEVICH (1848–1925). Russian army officer and statesman who served as war minister before the

Russo–Japanese War, commander-in-chief of the **Manchurian Army**, and later supreme commander of the Russian armed forces in East Asia during the war. Kuropatkin was born in Pekoe Province to a retired army officer; after joining the army, he served in the Turkestan Military District from 1866 to 1871. He graduated from the Army Academy of the General Staff in 1874 and returned to Turkestan, where he served as a staff officer on Major General Mikhail Dimitrievich Skobelev's staff during the 1876 campaign. During the Russo–Turkish War of 1877–1878, Kuropatkin served as a duty officer at the headquarters of the field army and as chief of staff of an infantry division, again under the White General Skobelev. After being wounded Kuropatkin ended the war teaching at the General Staff Academy. In 1879 he was appointed commanding officer of the Turkestan Rifle Brigade, which he led during the conquest of Turkestan. In 1883 he was assigned to the general staff and in 1890 appointed chief of the Trans-Caspian oblast. In 1898 Kuropatkin was appointed war minister and was involved in the negotiations with **Japan** before the Russo–Japanese War. He did not support an armed conflict with Japan and opposed the **Bezobrazov Circle**. His views became firmer after a visit to Japan in June 1903. Still, on 7 February 1904 he was appointed commander-in-chief of the Russian land forces in Manchuria and arrived in **Harbin** on 28 February. On 13 October, Kuropatkin was appointed supreme commander of the Russian forces in East Asia and held this appointment until early March 1905.

In the wake of the **battle of Mukden**, Kuropatkin recognized his shortcomings and asked to be relieved of his post. Accordingly he exchanged commands with General **Nikolai Linievich** and was thus appointed commander of the **First Manchurian Army**, holding this position until February 1906. Kuropatkin was heavily involved in the fiasco of the Russian land forces during the war. Although the rationale of his military approach was to avoid an offensive until the **Trans-Siberian Railway** brought sufficient troops and matériel, his cautiousness and hesitancy markedly influenced the repeated Russian defeats. Military historians consider his indecisiveness and organizational deficiencies in directing large-scale military operations as major elements in the Russian defeat. In turn, he wrote his own defense, which was published in a number of books in several languages. After the war Kuropatkin became a member of the state council. But in

the early stages of World War I, he returned to military service and was appointed commander of the Grenadiers Corps and later became commander of the Russian Fifth Army. In early 1916 he became commander of the northern front and from July was governor-general of Turkestan. Following the February Revolution of 1917 he was placed under arrest but soon freed by decree of the Russian provisional government. He then resided in his home province and taught at an agriculture school he had founded, until his death in 1925.

KWANTUNG FORTIFIED REGION. The Russian contemporary term for the fighting zone in the **Kwantung peninsula**. During the Russo–Japanese War, the zone was defended by the Kwantung group under the command of Lieutenant General **Anatolii Stoessel**, from May 1904 until the surrender of the fort of **Port Arthur** on 2 January 1905.

KWANTUNG [GUANDONG; *KANTÔ*] PENINSULA. Cape in the southern part of **Liaotung peninsula** in Southern **Manchuria** that became a major war theater in the Russo–Japanese War. The Chinese name Kwantung, literally "East of the Pass" [Shanhaiguan Pass], traditionally referred to the whole of Manchuria and was minimized by the Japanese in the early 20th century to include only their holdings on the tip of the Liaotung peninsula. **Japan** seized control of the peninsula during the **First Sino–Japanese War**, but both Japan and **Russia** realized the great strategic significance of this southern apex of the peninsula, **Port Arthur** in particular, as commanding the maritime approaches to the Chinese capital, Beijing. Japan retained the Kwantung peninsula through the **Treaty of Shimonoseki** but was forced to return it to **China** following the **Three-Power Intervention**. Port Arthur and **Dalny** were subsequently leased by the Russians, who completed the occupation of the peninsula during the **Boxer Uprising**. During the Russo–Japanese War, Japan regained control of the peninsula starting with the **battle of Nanshan** and completing its takeover with the fall of Port Arthur. Under the terms of the **Treaty of Portsmouth**, Russia transferred the lease of the area to Japan, together with the cession of the **South Manchurian Railway**. Hereafter it was named **Kwantung territory** and administered by Japan until 1945.

KWANTUNG TERRITORY [*KANTÔSHÛ*]. A Japanese leasehold of the **Kwantung peninsula** from the end of the Russo–Japanese War until 1945. Spanning 3,463 square kilometers [1,337 square miles], it included **Port Arthur**, **Dalny**, and the adjacent Changshan Islands, and comprised the territory south of the 39° 20' north latitude. In early 1905 the Japanese government established the Kwantung Government-General to administer the area, which initially acted in **Liaoyang** and from May 1906 in Port Arthur. This administration consisted of civil and military departments, which functioned through the delegated service of the administration of the **South Manchurian Railway** and the Japanese Kwantung Army [Guandong Army; *Kantôgun*], respectively. As part of the Japanese **Twenty-one Demands** to China in 1915, the lease of the territory, which was to expire in 1923, was extended to 1997. The Japanese, however, were to control the peninsula for only 30 years more. Following the Manchurian Incident of 1931, the Kwantung Army reasserted its control over the area, and soon the civil administration was placed under army control again. The peninsula was occupied by the Soviets in August 1945 and returned to China except for Port Arthur, which housed a Russian naval base for the next decade.

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LAKE BAIKAL. *See* BAIKAL, LAKE.

LAMSDORF [LAMZDORF], VLADIMIR NIKOLAEVICH (1844–1907). Russian diplomat and statesman who served as foreign minister during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in **St. Petersburg** to a high-ranking army officer and was educated in the elite Corps of Pages. Lamsdorf began his career in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in 1866 and remained there for 40 years. He was in charge of the foreign affairs chancellery from 1882 to 1896 and was a senior counselor from 1886 to 1897. In 1897 he was appointed deputy foreign minister and in 1900 became foreign minister. His international experience, however, was limited to being a member of the Russian delegation to the Congress of Berlin in 1878. As foreign minister, he initially adhered to the political and diplomatic views of the tsar. Af-

ter 1904, however, the tsar perceived **Great Britain** as a major threat to **Russia**'s interests, while Lamsdorf saw even greater danger in Russia's meddling in Anglo–German rivalry. Moreover, he did not share the tsar's perspectives regarding Russia's destiny in East Asia. Instead he endeavored, together with Finance Minister **Sergei Witte** and War Minister **Aleksei Kuropatkin**, to check the aggressive Asian policy of the **Bezobrazov Circle**.

Although Lamsdorf underestimated **Japan**'s military strength, he favored an agreement with Japan in order to avoid even greater complications with **China**, Great Britain, and the **United States**. With the dismissal of Witte and the appointment of Admiral **Evgenii Alekseev** as the viceroy of the Far East region, Lamsdorf's attention shifted to Europe, where he continued the policy of accommodation with **Austro–Hungary**. In October 1903 he worked out with Austro–Hungary an arrangement for joint action in containing the latest Macedonian crisis. During the Russo–Japanese War he twice opposed the tsar's inclination for a Russo–German alliance aimed at Great Britain. Still, his opposition could not prevent the conclusion of the **Treaty of Bjorko**, although he persuaded the tsar that the projected treaty represented a betrayal of **France**. The French Loan of 1906, obtained partly in return for supporting France against **Germany** in the **Moroccan Crisis** of 1905–1906, was a decisive step in binding Russia to the **Triple Entente**. In May 1906 he was removed from office. He retired to the state council and died less than a year later.

LANDING OPERATIONS. Since the Russo–Japanese War took place on the Asian continent, far from the Japanese archipelago, many of the campaigns of the **Imperial Japanese Army** began with landing operations conducted jointly with the **Imperial Japanese Navy**. Lacking specially built landing craft, the Imperial Japanese Navy employed transport ships and even warships to carry troops to the disembarkation sites. Landing customarily began with the capture of a beachhead by a small naval landing party. Once the beach was secured, the transports approached and unloaded junks and sampans suitable for shallow water, as well as a floating jetty for the unloading of cargo.

The first Japanese landing took place in the vicinity of **Chemulpo** as a force of 2,500 troops of the **First Army** carried by three transport ships disembarked in the port on 8 February 1904. This operation was

followed by the landing of the major force of the same army under the command of General **Kuroki Tametomo** in Chinnampo [Nampo] on the east coast of northern **Korea** on 13 March 1904. The **Second Army** under General **Oku Yasukata** landed in **Pitzuwo** on 5 May 1904, whereas the **10th Division** under Lieutenant General **Kawamura Kageaki**, which initially formed the core of the **Fourth Army**, landed in Nanchientszu at the tip of Korea Bay and later landed with additional units of the Fourth Army in Takushan [Dagushan, Gushan] on 19 May 1904. Finally the **Third Army** under General **Nogi Maresuke** landed at **Dalny** on 6 June 1904.

LANSDOWNE, HENRY CHARLES (1845–1927). British statesman who served as foreign minister during the Russo–Japanese War. Born Henry Petty-Fitzmaurice, he succeeded as the fifth marquis of Lansdowne in 1866. He was appointed governor-general of Canada in 1883 and viceroy of **India** in 1888. In 1895 Lansdowne returned to **Great Britain** and served as war minister in Lord Salisbury's government, and in this capacity he was blamed by British media for the early failures in the **Boer War**. Succeeding Salisbury as foreign secretary in 1900, he failed to achieve a settlement with **Germany** but concluded the **Anglo–Japanese Alliance** in 1902 and the **Anglo–French Entente** in 1904. During the decade from 1905 to 1915, Lansdowne led the Conservative opposition in the House of Lords; during the early stages of World War I, he became a minister without portfolio in Herbert Asquith's coalition cabinet. In 1916 he began advocating peace negotiations with Germany, which made him extremely unpopular and marked his final decline.

LENIN, VLADIMIR ILYICH (1870–1924). Russian revolutionary and statesman involved in anti-tsarist activity during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in Simbirsk, on the middle Volga, and graduated in law from St. Petersburg University. In 1887 his older brother was hanged for complicity in a plot to assassinate Tsar Alexander III. In 1894 he became involved in revolutionary activity himself, organizing the Union for the Liberation of the Working Class and writing anti-tsarist propaganda. A year later, Lenin was arrested. He spent a year in prison and was exiled to Siberia for three years. After his release in 1900 he left **Russia** and lived in Brussels,

Paris, London, and Geneva. Through his pamphlets and his journals *Iskra* (The Spark) and *Vpered* (Forward), Lenin became the leader of the militant Russian Social Democrats, who assumed the name Bolsheviks in 1903. During the Russo–Japanese War he lived in western Europe, and he began to react to the developments of the conflict after the fall of **Port Arthur**.

Only with the surrender of the fort, Lenin wrote years later, did he realize the importance of the war. In an article published in *Vpered* he stated: "The capitulation of Port Arthur is the prologue to the capitulation of tsarism." In April 1905 he headed the Russian Social Democrat delegation to the Geneva Conference, organized by **Konrad Zilliacus** and Father **Georgii Gapon**, and he dominated the third Congress of Social Democrats in London the same month. In November 1905, two months after the end of the war and days after Tsar **Nicholas II** issued the **October Manifesto**, he returned to Russia. He organized the Petersburg Soviet but soon was forced to flee to **Finland**, where in December 1905 he organized a Bolshevik conference and met Stalin for the first time. In 1907 Lenin settled again in Switzerland and returned to Russia only a decade later, after the Revolution of March 1917. Following the failure of an abortive coup d'état and an escape once more to Finland, he returned in the fall of 1917 and led the Bolshevik Revolution (the October Revolution). He subsequently headed the new government and in March 1918 ordered an armistice with **Germany**. His attempts to accomplish radical economic reforms while waging civil war against the Whites led to famine and the virtual collapse of Russia's economy. Following his death in 1924, the city of Petrograd (**St. Petersburg**) was renamed Leningrad in his honor.

LI, HONGZHANG [HUNG-CHANG] (1823–1901). Chinese statesman and diplomat who dominated Chinese foreign affairs during the late 19th century and assisted **Russia** to control **Manchuria** in the decade preceding the Russo–Japanese War. Li displayed scholastic promise as a youth, and he organized a militia to resist the Taiping Rebellion, which won him his first recognition. Following a civil and military career, he served as governor-general of the Chihli [Zhili] capital district in 1870–1895 and as superintendent of trade for the north of **China**. He also acted to modernize the army in order to al-

low China to defend itself, but his efforts were foiled by the system he worked to saved. He conferred with **Japan**'s Prime Minister **Itô Hirobumi** in Tientsin [Tianjin] in 1885 to negotiate a dispute regarding Korea. The outcome was the signing of the Tientsin Convention, which acknowledged Japan as China's equal in the matter. In the aftermath of the **First Sino–Japanese War**, Li went to Japan to conclude China's terms of defeat. During negotiations he was shot by a Japanese, but his nephew completed the **Treaty of Shimonoseki** in 1895. Li later recovered and signed with **Russia** the **Li–Lobanov agreement** of 1896. Two years later he leased the newly returned **Port Arthur** to **St. Petersburg**. Li died in 1901 after signing of the Boxer protocol that concluded the **Boxer Uprising**.

LIAONING. The smallest of the three provinces of **Manchuria**, **China**, which became the main site of land engagements during the Russo–Japanese War. It is located in the south of Manchuria and includes the **Liaotung peninsula**, the **Kwantung peninsula**, and the plain of the Liao River. The area of Liaoning in the early 20th century was about 155,500 square kilometers [59,000 square miles] and its capital was Mukden [present-day Shenyang]. In 1898 **Russia** acquired its southern part as a 25-year lease and brought the province into the core of a conflict with **Japan**. The construction of railroads at the turn of the century and the development of **Port Arthur** and **Dalny** spurred the economic development of the province and attracted further Chinese immigration from the south. After the Russo–Japanese War, its southern part, known then as Kwantung, remained in Japanese hands. In 1931 Japan took over the whole province, together with other parts of Manchuria, and controlled it until 1945. After World War II, Liaoning emerged as the most industrialized part of China.

LIAOTUNG [LIAODONG; *RYÔTÔ*] PENINSULA. Large peninsula on the southern coast of **Manchuria** and the **Liaoning** Province in **China**, which became a site of major engagements between Russian and Japanese forces during the Russo–Japanese War. This peninsula, protruding southwest, is a mountainous region with sharp peaks and ridges averaging 1,000 meters in height, half of them in its southern part, which is crossed by narrow rivers. Its climate is slightly warmer

than most of northern China during the winter, and rainfall is especially heavy during the hot summer months. It was used for cultivating orchards, as well as growing wheat, corn, and rice. It was also mined for iron, gold, and magnesite. **Kwantung peninsula** as well as **Port Arthur** and **Dalny** are located at its southern end and connected by railway to **Mukden** on the west of the peninsula.

LIAOYANG [*RYÔYÔ*]. Chinese city in central **Liaoning** Province, **Manchuria**, and the site of a major land engagement known as the **battle of Liaoyang** during the Russo–Japanese War. This ancient walled town was the major railway station connecting **Port Arthur**, located 320 kilometers [200 miles] to the south, with **Mukden** and **Harbin**, 65 kilometers [40 miles] and 415 kilometers [258 miles] farther to the north, respectively (41° 15' north 123° 10' east). Liaoyang is located in the most ancient Chinese settlement area in Manchuria set up by the Chinese Han dynasty in the second century BCE as a preceptory. After an interim it was reoccupied by the Chinese Tang dynasty as a base for an invasion of **Korea**. It served as the capital for both the Liao and the Juchen dynasties, but in the 13th century it submitted to the Mongols following their invasion. In the 17th century the city became a crucial defensive base for the Ming dynasty but proved insufficient against the Manchu.

On the eve of the Russo–Japanese war, this walled city was the second largest in Manchuria, after Mukden, boasting a population of about 60,000. It served as the Russian military capital in the south and was encircled by three lines of defense. As an important strategic location connected by railway to Mukden and **Dalny**, it became the convergence point of the Japanese **First Army** with the **Second Army** and the **Fourth Army**, and consequently the surroundings of the city witnessed the first large-scale land engagement of the war. With the foundation of the Chinese Republic, Liaoyang was demoted to the status of a county, but it flourished as an agricultural center and later supplied the needs of the growing An-Shan industrial center.

LIAOYANG, BATTLE OF [*RYÔYÔ KAISEN*] (1904). The first large-scale land engagement of the Russo–Japanese War, and its third-greatest land battle overall. It was fought from 25 August to 3 September 1904 around the city of **Liaoyang**, where the Russian commander,

General **Aleksei Kuropatkin**, had set up a new defense line during his "planned withdrawal" up the **Liaotung peninsula**. Not only did he regard the site as suitable for "a decisive battle," but the viceroy, **Evgenii Alekseev**, assumed that the **Manchurian Army** had at last accumulated sufficient forces for the first victory over the Japanese, thereby breaking the **siege of Port Arthur**. Liaoyang was also the point at which the Japanese commander, Field Marshal **Ôyama Iwao**, planned to have his three armies converge. Defeating the Russians around the city, he assumed, would enable him to overpower the defenses of **Port Arthur**. At that stage the two belligerents were convinced that the impending collision at Liaoyang would determine the outcome of the war.

Kuropatkin mobilized two European and five Siberian army corps, a total of 14 divisions numbering 158,000 men (128,000 **infantry** and 30,000 **cavalry**) supported by 609 guns. The Russian forces were divided into three bodies. The Southern Group under Lieutenant General **Nikolai Zarubaev** consisted of the **First Siberian Army Corps**, the **Second Siberian Army Corps**, and the **Fourth Siberian Army Corps**, supported by 11 cavalry squadrons under Lieutenant General **Pavel Mischenko**. The Eastern Group, under the newcomer General **Aleksandr Bilderling,** comprised the **Third Siberian Army Corps** and the **Tenth European Army Corps**. The reserve forces, under Kuropatkin, consisted of 30 battalions drawn from the **Seventeenth Siberian Army Corps** and elements from the Second Siberian Army Corps and the **Fifth Siberian Army Corps**.

Ôyama mobilized three armies: the **First Army** under General **Kuroki Tametomo**, the **Second Army** under General **Oku Yasukata**, and the **Fourth Army** under General **Nozu Michitsura**, altogether eight divisions numbering 125,000 men (about 115,000 infantry and 10,000 cavalry) supported by 170 guns. In toto the two belligerents numbered close to 300,000, a figure exceeded at that time only by the armies in the battle of Sedan in 1870.

Constrained by insufficient and inaccurate **military intelligence**, Kuropatkin was convinced that he was outnumbered. Ôyama, however, knew exactly the Russian strength and dispositions, but he was troubled by the lack of a breakthrough in the siege of Port Arthur, and was further concerned by the arrival of additional Russian reinforcements. Time pressure notwithstanding, he continued organizing and

gathering intelligence for about three weeks. Finally, on 24 August he received reports of the unsuccessful attack of the **Third Army** under General **Nogi Maresuke** at **Port Arthur** and realized he could not count on Nogi's troops. The next day, 25 August, he ordered his units to advance to Liaoyang. The battle began with a Japanese barrage south of Liaoyang followed by an assault by the Japanese regimental guard on the 2nd Siberian Division. Approaching from the east, the Japanese First Army forced its way out of the mountains and across the Tang, a tributary of the Taitzu River. The principal unit at this stage was the **Imperial Guards Division** under Lieutenant General **Hasegawa Yoshimichi**, which attacked the right flank of the Third Siberian Army Corps. The Japanese advance was largely a result of the inactivity of Bilderling, whose Eastern Group was responsible for holding the mountain passes. The Japanese initial attempt, however, failed because of the superiority of the Russian **artillery** in that sector, and at the end of the day the **casualties** of the Imperial Guards Division amounted to about 1,000 killed and wounded.

On the night of 25–26 August, the remaining units of the First Army, the **2nd** and the **12th Divisions**, led by Major General Matsunaga Masatoshi, attacked the Tenth Siberian Army Corps east of Liaoyang. The fiercest fights took place around Hungshaling and Peikou, and on the slopes of a mountain position known at that time as Suribachi Yama. Peikou fell into Japanese hands on the evening of 26 August and Kuropatkin ordered a retreat, which was orderly and under the cover of heavy rainfall, to the nearest defense line of the city. He expected the initial attack there by the Japanese, whom he planned to repulse at their weakest point with supplementary forces. In the outer defenses in the south, meanwhile, Zarubaev checked the advance of the Second Army and the Fourth Army. Kuropatkin, however, did not use his superior forces to destroy the isolated units of the First Army, but early on 27 August he ordered all his forces to retreat to the second line of defenses. Ôyama's objective, in fact, was not to capture the city but to encircle and annihilate the Manchurian Army. To achieve this goal Oku and Nozu advanced to the southern inner defenses, preparing for frontal assaults against Liaoyang, whereas Kuroki crossed the Taitzu and cut the railway north of the city.

The decisive phase of the battle began on 30 August and continued next day when the Japanese renewed their attack all along the new

front. At the end of that day, and during the following one, the Russians had good reason to be pleased, as they had held out against the Japanese attack and caused considerable losses. Kuropatkin, however, again hesitated to carry out his plan for a counter-attack, despite the massive reserve forces, estimated at about 70,000 men, at his disposal. His hesitation was due to continuous uncertainties regarding the size of his enemy and his tactic of initially absorbing an enemy attack. For this reason he kept many troops in reserve and lost a rare opportunity to decide the battle. Instead he commanded another orderly retreat. The Japanese continued to advance up to the range that would allow them to shell the city, the railway station in particular. The havoc in the city caused by the pounding delivered by 250 Japanese guns prompted the Russians to counter-attack on 2 September with the aim of regaining the hill known to the Japanese as Manjuyama, which controlled the battle arena to the east of the city. At midnight Kuropatkin received a report that the hill had been taken, but in fact the Japanese had managed to repel the Russian assaults wave after wave. More reliable information reached him soon after, but by that time he had lost the initiative.

Exhausted and demoralized, Kuropatkin decided to abandon Liaoyang and ordered a retreat to **Mukden**, about 65 kilometers [40 miles] to the north, starting on 3 September and completed a week later. The Russian forces fell back in reasonably good order, generally undisturbed by the Japanese, who were exhausted as well and unable to advance further. The official toll of the battle was 5,537 Japanese and 3,611 Russian killed, as well as 18,063 Japanese and 14,301 Russian wounded. Despite the expectations on both sides that the clash at Liaoyang would determine the outcome of the war, all it did make clear was that the decisive moment would occur later and elsewhere. On 7 September Kuropatkin reestablished his headquarters in Mukden and informed the War Ministry that he had won a victory: he had avoided encirclement while inflicting heavy losses upon the enemy. War Minister **Viktor Sakharov**, however, rebuffed these claims, observing that "the side which attains its object, at whatever cost, has won a victory; while the side which fails to do so has suffered a defeat. . . . We did not achieve the object aimed at, were compelled by force of arms to relinquish it. Consequently we suffered a defeat." Celebrations in **Tokyo** were muted by the news of the heavy

casualties. Certainly the Japanese victory was not complete, since the Russians were able to retreat with confidence and to postpone the decisive battle to another occasion.

LIEVEN [LIVEN], ALEKSANDR ALEKSANDROVICH (1860–1914). Russian naval officer who took part in the defense of **Port Arthur** during the Russo–Japanese War. Born into a family of partly German descent, he graduated from a military college in Berlin and served initially in the Life-Guard Semenovskii regiment. In 1884 he transferred to the **Imperial Russian Navy** and graduated from the Naval Academy in 1898. Lieven served on ships of the **Baltic Fleet** and the Siberian Flotilla and was soon promoted to captain. During the early stages of the Russo–Japanese War, he commanded the **mine** defense of Port Arthur and was subsequently appointed commander of a **destroyer** detachment, and then of the **gunvessel** *Bobr*. He took part in the **battle of the Yellow Sea** as commander of the **cruiser *Diana*** and in the aftermath of the battle brought his ship to Saigon, where she was interned. From 1908 Lieven served on the naval general staff and headed a commission responsible for recording the events of the war. In 1911 he was promoted to rear admiral, served temporarily as a head of the naval general staff, and a year later was promoted to vice admiral. Lieven took part in the postwar reconstruction of the Imperial Russian Navy, but his efforts ended with his untimely death in 1914 on his way from Venice to **St. Petersburg**.

LI–LOBANOV AGREEMENT [SINO–RUSSIAN TREATY] (1896). A secret alliance between **Russia** and **China** signed on May 1896, arranged by Finance Minister **Sergei Witte** and bearing the signatures of Foreign Minister Aleksei Lobanov-Rostovskii and Chinese statesman **Li Hongzhang**. The agreement, whose content was revealed only in 1922, was one of several steps taken by Russia to protect its interests in northeastern China toward the end of the 19th century. Since China was required to pay a large indemnity after the **Three-Power Intervention**, it sought loans from Russia and **France**. These needs were mediated by the establishment of the Russo–Chinese Bank, which was controlled by the Russian ministry of finance. During the coronation ceremonies of **Nicholas II**, Witte persuaded Li

to form an alliance against **Japan**, promising him armed aid to maintain Chinese territorial integrity.

In return Witte demanded that a section of the **Trans-Siberian Railway** be constructed through **Manchuria**, thus eliminating the need for constructing the 1,930 kilometers [1,200 miles] of topographically very-difficult track along the Amur River, which was necessary for the completion of the project. To avoid complications with other powers, Li insisted that the concession be granted to the Russo–Chinese Bank rather than the Russian government. Along with it came extraterritorial rights along the railway, allowing Russia to maintain troops in the area and acquire administrative authority over large sections of Manchuria. The agreement seemed initially to guarantee lasting peace but in reality paved the way for Russia to occupy Manchuria in all but name.

LINIEVICH, NIKOLAI PETROVICH (1838–1908). Russian army officer who served as commander-in-chief of the **Manchurian Army** during the early stages of the Russo–Japanese War, and became thereafter commander of the **First Manchurian Army** and commander-in-chief of all armed forces in East Asia in the final stages of the war. Linievich, who was born to Polish Catholic parents, began his service in 1855. He participated in the Russo–Turkish War of 1877–1878, and during the **Boxer Uprising** he served as the commander of the international coalition forces, which he led in the assault and capture of Beijing. Nicknamed the "Siberian Wolf," he was appointed governor-general and commander-in-chief of the Priamur region in 1903. At the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, he was appointed commander-in-chief of the Manchurian Army and served in this post in the first month of the war. After being replaced by General **Aleksei Kuropatkin**, he became commander of the Ussuri Group from 15 March to November 1904, and thereafter assumed the position of commander of the First Manchurian Army until 15 March 1905.

Following the **battle of Mukden**, Linievich replaced Kuropatkin and became commander-in-chief of all armed forces in the Far East, a position he held from 15 March 1905 until February 1906. Aged and incompetent, he could neither read military maps nor understand rail movement schedules. Avoiding any serious offensive action against the **Imperial Japanese Army**, he steadily held his positions

and insisted on increasing the number of Russian troops to 1.5 times the Japanese before continuing the campaign. Opposed to the signing of the **Treaty of Portsmouth**, Linievich wrote to Tsar **Nicholas II** that he was certain of a Russian victory on land once the number of reinforcements was achieved. At the same time he was reluctant to subdue revolutionary movements in the army in late 1905 and was therefore removed from command. He died two years later.

LIVEN, ALEKSANDR ALEKSANDROVICH. *See* LIEVEN, ALEKSANDR ALEKSANDROVICH.

LODZ UPRISING (1905). The first major urban revolt to occur in the Russian empire during the Russo–Japanese War and an important landmark in the **Revolution of 1905**. By the turn of the century, Lodz, the greatest textile center in eastern Europe, had become a stronghold of the nationalist Polish Socialist Party and the Jewish Bund, as well as a breeding ground of political radicalism in the Pale of Settlement. Following the turmoil at **St. Petersburg** known as **Bloody Sunday**, Lodz sank into near anarchy. In June 1905 the Lodz workers furnished the Russian empire with its first experience of urban warfare in the revolutionary tradition of 1848. On 20 June, strikes broke out in the city's largest factories; in the course of the demonstrations, Russian troops killed about a dozen strikers. Their funerals the next day sparked further demonstrations and violence. On 22 June, workers began a general strike. In the workers' districts, desperate strikers and revolutionaries fortified tenements and threw up barricades. While thousands of other residents fled the city in terror, government forces crushed the rebellion on 24 June. Estimates of the casualties suggest 200–300 dead and about 1,000 wounded. In later years, Soviet historiography depicted the Lodz uprising as having elevated the revolutionary movement to a "higher form of struggle," and as being a dress rehearsal for the Bolshevik-led Moscow uprising of December 1905.

LONDON, ("JACK") JOHN GRIFFITH (1876–1916). American writer and journalist who served as a **war correspondent** during the Russo–Japanese War. London was born in San Francisco, had a hard-working boyhood, and at age 17 signed on as a seaman on a sailing vessel. He began to write, and about a month prior to the outbreak of

the Russo–Japanese War, five major syndicates asked him to go to **Japan** and cover the imminent hostilities. Becoming a war correspondent for the *San Francisco Examiner*, London landed in Yokohama on 25 January 1904. On 1 February he was arrested in Shimonoseki but was released due to the intervention of the American minister to Japan, **Lloyd Griscom**. He went to **Korea**, but close to the border of **Manchuria** he was sent back to **Seoul** and was again arrested by Japanese forces. Released again, he crossed the **Yalu River** on 1 May and joined the headquarters of the **First Army**. Although London was allowed to observe the **battle of the Yalu**, he began to press his publisher, Hearst, to arrange for a transfer to the **Imperial Russian Army** in order to report the war from their side, in the hope of enduring fewer constraints.

Before the transfer could be negotiated, however, London's defiant personality landed him in the middle of an international incident. He punched his Japanese assistant, whom he allegedly caught stealing fodder for his horse, and for the third time in four months London was arrested by Japanese military authorities. Through the intervention of President **Theodore Roosevelt** he was released again, and in June 1904 he left the front. He sent dozens of articles and hundreds of pictures to Hearst, but he had no idea whether any of them reached San Francisco. After his return from East Asia he wrote a short essay on his impressions of the Japanese military, in which he provided the following prophecy: "The Japanese might one day collaborate on an 'adventure' which could shatter the long domination of the Western World." In the decade after his return, London wrote most of his famous novels and essays, in which he attacked capitalism and showed sympathy for the poor but also expressed racist ideas of Anglo–Saxon superiority.

LOSCHINSKII, MIKHAIL FEDOROVICH (1849–?). Russian naval officer who commanded the **mine** warfare and light forces in **Port Arthur** in the Russo–Japanese War. Rear Admiral Loschinskii was stationed with the **Pacific Fleet** at the outbreak of the war, in charge of the light forces at Port Arthur. **Gunvessels** under his command actively participated in supporting the army units during the initial stages of the Japanese land attack on the **Kwantung Fortified Region**. His major contribution, however, was the planning of the

minefields that sank the Japanese **battleships *Hatsuse*** and ***Yashima*** on 15 May 1904. After the war, Loschinskii was appointed a main mine warfare inspector in the Navy Ministry.

LÜSHUN. *See* PORT ARTHUR.

LUTA. *See* DALNY.

– M –

MACARTHUR, ARTHUR (1845–1912). American army officer who served as senior **military observer** during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in Springfield, Massachusetts. Later he moved to Milwaukee and served as 1st lieutenant in the Wisconsin 24th Infantry. As commanding officer of a regiment in the Cumberland Army, he fought several campaigns in the American Civil War and was gravely wounded. Promoted to lieutenant colonel and then colonel although not yet 20 years old, MacArthur subsequently entered the regular army as a 2nd lieutenant of the 17th Infantry and became captain within six months. He was promoted to brigadier general of volunteers shortly after the outbreak of the Spanish–American War and led his brigade in the Philippines in 1898. He was promoted to major general for gallantry during the capture of Manila, and brigadier general of the regulars, and was appointed commanding officer of the Philippines Division and military governor of the Philippines. MacArthur effectively suppressed a Filipino insurrection but returned to the **United States** following a dispute with the governor-general of the islands. After serving as commanding officer of various military departments, he left for **Manchuria** in early 1905 as a military observer on the Japanese side, accompanied by his son **Douglas MacArthur**. On his return from the front, he was appointed military attaché in **Tokyo**. He was later promoted to lieutenant general and received command of the Pacific Division; he retired soon after.

MACARTHUR, DOUGLAS (1880–1964). American army officer and a leading figure in **Japan**'s early postwar era; served as a junior **military observer** during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born to Lieutenant

General **Arthur MacArthur** in Little Rock, Arkansas, graduated from West Point, and was commissioned as 2nd lieutenant of engineers. Subsequently he was sent to the Philippines, and in 1905 he served as an aide to his father during a tour in **Manchuria** in the final stages of the Russo–Japanese War. MacArthur assisted in organizing the 42nd Rainbow Division after the American entry into World War I and served as the unit's chief of staff in **France**. He later served in the occupation of **Germany** until he returned to the **United States** as superintendent of West Point. He returned to the Philippines as a major general to organize its army and prepare it for the defense of the islands.

During World War II, MacArthur was recalled to active service and made commander of U.S. Army Forces in East Asia. He fought a retreat at Bataan but was ordered by President Franklin Roosevelt to withdraw to Australia, where he was appointed supreme commander of Allied Forces in the Southwest Pacific Area. He began an offensive against the Japanese forces and was appointed commander of all U.S. forces in the Pacific region, and was promoted to general. Following Japan's surrender in August 1945, MacArthur was appointed commander of the Allied occupation forces, and in this role he guided Japan to sweeping reforms and economic rehabilitation. At the outbreak of the Korean War in 1950, he was appointed supreme commander of United Nations forces and directed the recapture of South Korea. He was relieved of his command by President Harry Truman due to his perceived insubordination, whereupon he retired from public life.

MACDONALD, CLAUDE MAXWELL (1852–1915). British army officer and diplomat who served as ambassador to **Tokyo** before and during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born to a high-ranking army officer, educated at Uppingham and Sandhurst, and entered the army in 1872. After taking part in the Egyptian campaign of 1882, MacDonald was appointed military attaché to Sir Evelyn Baring and served in his expedition of 1884–1885. He left this post in 1887, and following a year as consul-general at Zanzibar, he went to the Niger Territories on behalf of the British Foreign Office. In 1891 he became the first commissioner and consul-general in the Oil Rivers Protectorate, but he retired from the army in 1896. He entered the foreign service and was appointed minister in Beijing, where he was involved in obtaining a number of concessions. During the **Boxer Uprising** he organized the defense of the legations. In October 1900, MacDonald

was appointed the first British ambassador to Tokyo and was involved in the negotiations preceding the **Anglo–Japanese Alliance**. During the Russo–Japanese War, he provided crucial support to **Japan** and took part in the extension of the **Anglo–Japanese Treaty** in August 1905. He was admitted to the British privy council in 1906 in recognition of his work in Japan. He died in London a decade later.

MACHINE GUNS. Automatic firearms invented during the latter half of the 19th century and used extensively during the Russo–Japanese War. Both armies employed foreign-made machine guns in increasing numbers. The **Imperial Japanese Army** used the **Hotchkiss machine gun**, and the **Imperial Russian Army** used mainly the **Maxim machine gun**, bought in **France** and **Great Britain**, respectively. Both belligerents also ordered the lighter Danish 7.62mm [0.30in.] Madsen machine gun, which could be operated by one infantryman. The Russians used it only in small numbers, and the Japanese received it after the war ended. The effect of the machine guns was impressive, and according to Russian estimates one unit could replace the firepower of 50 **infantry** troops in a defensive position. Indeed, contemporary military experts recognized this weapon as the dominant defensive infantry weapon, although they still missed its offensive capabilities, partly because of its relatively heavy weight and need for constant cooling.

Despite the machine gun's great effectiveness, its value was not recognized in time by the Russian army, which made only limited used of it and did not even provide it to some units throughout the war. The Imperial Japanese Army supplied its infantry divisions with 10 Hotchkiss machine guns each by mid-1904, and in March 1905 four more were added. The machine guns were divided into two batteries of six guns each and one battery of two guns. The Japanese forces enjoyed superiority throughout the war in the number of machine guns deployed in a given engagement. On the eve of the **battle of Mukden**, for example, the Japanese forces had 992 machine guns, whereas the Russians had only 56. Machine guns were especially useful in **trench warfare** and against **cavalry** charges. Following the Russo–Japanese War, European armies made much greater use of machine guns. They became a crucial defensive weapon during World War I. The German army, for example, went to war with six Maxim MG Model 1908 machine guns per infantry battalion. In the next few years the weight of machine guns diminished dramatically, and they were turned into offensive weapons as well.

MACOMB, MONTGOMERY MEIGS (1852–1924). American army officer who served as **military observer** during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in Detroit, Michigan, and graduated from Yale University and the U.S. Military Academy, joining the 4th Artillery as 2nd lieutenant. Following his promotion to major, Macomb was assigned as a military observer to the **Imperial Russian Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. On his return to the **United States**, he served in a variety of command posts and eventually earned promotion to brigadier general. He retired in 1916 but was briefly recalled to active duty during World War I and retired again in 1918.

MAHAN, ALFRED THAYER (1840–1914). American naval officer and historian who influenced naval warfare before and after the Russo–Japanese War. He was born at West Point, New York, to a professor at a military academy and graduated from Columbia College and the Naval Academy at Annapolis. Mahan then served on board the USS *Congress* and was promoted to lieutenant. He served at Port Royal Sound and later on blockade duty during the American Civil War. Subsequently, he was promoted to lieutenant commander and served 20 years of routine active duty, marked by further promotion to commander and captain. In 1886 Mahan began lecturing at Newport Naval War College and soon became its president. His writings had an important effect on how nations viewed sea power in the 20 years before World War I. His seminal work, *The Influence of Sea Power upon History, 1660–1783* (1890), influenced U.S. President **Theodore Roosevelt** and other supporters of colonial expansion overseas before the Spanish–American War.

Mahan argued in his later writings for a strong navy comprised of **battleships**, naval bases in Latin America and Asia, and an expanded merchant fleet. His ideas were a source of inspiration for proponents of American expansion as a world power, and his writings had many admirers among naval experts in **Great Britain**, **Germany** (**Emperor William II** in particular), and **Japan**. Mahan retired as rear admiral in 1896 but was recalled briefly to serve on the Naval War Board during the Spanish–American War in 1898. He was also a delegate at the **Hague Peace Conference** of 1899 and in later years became president of the American Historical Association. During the Russo–Japanese War, he followed naval developments closely and

wrote articles about the war and its naval repercussions in leading American journals.

MAKAROV, STEPAN OSIPOVICH (1848–1904). Russian naval officer, naval inventor, and explorer of the Arctic region who served as commander of the **Pacific Fleet** during the early stages of the Russo–Japanese War. Makarov was born in Nikolaev on the Black Sea to a naval junior officer and enrolled in the Nikolaevsk Naval Academy to prepare for a career in the merchant marine. At the age of 15 he was assigned to the Pacific Fleet as a naval cadet, and in the same year he sailed to San Francisco. After graduating, Makarov was assigned in 1866 to the **Baltic Fleet** and a year later published his first article. Soon he produced his first major invention, the design for a collision mat. During the Russo–Turkish War of 1877–1878, he served in the **Black Sea Fleet** and gained much combat success with his flotilla of **torpedo boats**. During that war he became a national hero and won several decorations and another promotion.

In the next two decades, Makarov was involved in the endeavors to modernize and standardize the **Imperial Russian Navy**. He continued with his naval research, producing over 50 publications on oceanography and naval tactics. In 1890 he became **Russia**'s youngest rear admiral and assumed the post of chief inspector of Naval Ordnance. Four years later he was appointed commander of the Mediterranean Squadron, and in 1895 he was appointed chief of fleet training. In 1896 Makarov was promoted to vice admiral and in the following years became involved in designing new warships suited to the specific needs of the Russian fleet, especially ice-breakers to open the northern sea route between Europe and East Asia. In 1899 he was appointed commander of the **Kronstadt** naval base and governor of the town. He was considered at that time a "sailor's sailor," as well as Russia's leading naval officer.

Two weeks after of the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, Makarov was appointed commander-in-chief of the Pacific Fleet and commander of the **Port Arthur Squadron**. Two weeks later, on 8 March 1904, he arrived at **Port Arthur** to replace Vice Admiral **Oskar Stark**. Although he was unable to rectify the fleet's shortcomings, Makarov energetically began to provide intensive training and subsequently saw morale soaring. On 13 April 1904, less than two

months after his arrival, his flagship, the **battleship *Petropavlovsk***, sailed into a newly laid minefield. The ship blew up and in less than two minutes sank, taking down more than 600 seamen. Makarov's loss dealt a mighty blow to the Russian war effort in general, and the Pacific Fleet in particular, from which it never recovered during the war. Makarov was considered the true naval hero of the war, and his memory transcended politics: ships of both the Imperial and Soviet navies bore his name.

MANCHURIA [DONGBEI (NORTHEAST PROVINCES); *MANSHÛ*]. Northeastern region of **China** that became the major theater during the Russo–Japanese War. At the beginning of the 20th century, Manchuria was the term current among Western diplomats to describe the border area under Chinese control that lay northeast of the Great Wall of China. Nevertheless, Manchuria at that time did not have a defined border. Although the area was bordered by a number of rivers, such as the Amur and Ussuri on the northeast and the **Yalu River** to the southeast, it was still not clear exactly what this area covered. Its narrow definition included three regions and administrative provinces: **Liaoning**, **Kirin**, and **Heilungkiang**, with a total area of 1.23 million square kilometers [475,000 square miles]. A wider definition would also enclose large areas in the eastern part of Mongolia and comprise territory even twice as extensive. This difference resulted from the variations in the marking of the region's western border by different Western mapmakers. Even by their minimal definition, these territories were three times the size of **Japan** at the beginning of its modernization. The region was forested, and mostly flat, with climatic extremes of cold in winter and heat in summer.

This eastern end of a natural nomadic highway across Eurasia was first settled by the Chinese in the third century BCE, and since then became an area of contention between various peoples and subject to repeated invasions. During the Sui and Tang dynasties, it was under loose Chinese influence and became the independent state of P'o-hai. The region consequently fell under Khitan Mongol rule, which was fraught with rebellion and toppled through the intervention of the Jurchen Chin kingdom and the Sung dynasty. During the Mongol Yuan dynasty, Manchuria was united into one province, but it was taken over by the Ming dynasty (1368–1644), which lost it to the new Juchen empire and

the Qing dynasty (1644–1911) founded by Nurhachi. His successor continued the expansion and renamed his people Manchu. Ruling from their new capital, Beijing, the Manchu authorities at first encouraged immigration but curtailed it toward the end of the 17th century.

Russia's southward advance, however, necessitated continuous repopulation of the Chinese garrisons. Furthermore, the region's natural resources attracted immigrants from southern parts of China despite the official ban. In the late 19th and early 20th centuries, this influx swelled enormously when the government began actively to encourage it. Toward the end of the 19th century, **Russia**, and to a lesser extent Japan, began to consider Manchuria as a target of imperialist expansion, focusing initially on the strategically important **Liaotung peninsula** in southern Manchuria. During the **First Sino–Japanese War**, Japan occupied the peninsula but was forced to return it to China following the **Three-Power Intervention**. Russia consequently leased the area, along with the rights to connect it by railway with the **Chinese Eastern Railway**.

The clash over Manchuria and **Korea** continued into the Russo–Japanese War and resulted in the Japanese occupation of Liaotung. After the Chinese Revolution in 1911, Manchuria came under the rule of a warlord supported by Japanese military forces. The Chinese government was forced to let Japan lease the **Kwantung territory**, allowing it to exercise control over southern Manchuria. In 1931 Japanese forces took over the entire region of Manchuria. For fear of international sanctions, they created there a puppet state named Manchukuo under the last Manchu emperor, with population of about 40 million. Japan began to develop Manchuria into its industrial and military base, but in 1945 the region fell into the hands of Soviet forces, which systematically plundered it. The Soviet Union returned Manchuria to China in 1946, and since then the region has served as the industrial heartland of China. The current population is over 100 million, of whom 90 percent are descendants of Chinese who migrated to Manchuria between 1880 and 1930.

MANCHURIA–KOREA EXCHANGE [*MANKAN KÔKAN*]. Japanese doctrine offering **Russia** control of **Manchuria** in return for Russian recognition of Japanese hegemony in **Korea**. The Japanese government formulated this doctrine in 1898, following the Russian

lease of **Port Arthur**. With the expansion of Russian rule in Manchuria following the **Boxer Uprising** and the strengthening of Japanese control in Korea, this doctrine became the benchmark of any further negotiations. Russia's rejection of this proposal stimulated the conclusion of the **Anglo–Japanese Alliance** in 1902. Later rebuffs of similar Japanese offers and ultimatums led to the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War.

MANCHURIAN ARMY, FIRST. One of the two, and later, three large Russian armies taking part in the Russo–Japanese War after the dissolution of the **Manchurian Army** in September 1904, following the **battle of Liaoyang**. It was commanded by General **Nikolai Linievich** from its establishment until 15 March 1905 and then by General **Aleksei Kuropatkin** until its dissolution in February 1906. It took a major part in all land engagements from its establishment until the end of the war.

MANCHURIAN ARMY, JAPANESE. General term for the units of the **Imperial Japanese Army** in **Manchuria** during the Russo–Japanese War. This force was commanded from its creation on 20 June 1904 until its dismantling on 30 December 1905 by Field Marshal **Ôyama Iwao**, whose chief of staff throughout this period was General **Kodama Gentarô**. The Japanese Manchurian Army consisted during most of the war of four armies: the **First Army** commanded by General **Kuroki Tametomo**, the **Second Army** commanded by General **Oku Yasukata**, the **Third Army** commanded by General **Nogi Maresuke**, and the **Fourth Army** commanded by General **Nozu Michitsura**. In the last stages of the war, it was reinforced by the newly formed and small **Fifth Army** under the command of General **Kawamura Kageaki**. At the opening of the **battle of Mukden**, the Manchurian Army disposed of close to 300,000 men all told.

MANCHURIAN ARMY, RUSSIAN. General term for the units of the **Imperial Russian Army** in northeast Asia taking part in the early stages of the Russo–Japanese War. The army was commanded by General **Nikolai Linievich** from February to 28 March 1904, then by General **Aleksei Kuropatkin** until 15 March 1905, and again by Linievich until February 1906. In early May 1904, the Manchurian Army

was divided into three segments: the southern detachment consisted primarily of the **First Siberian Army Corps**, the eastern detachment consisted primarily of the **Third Siberian Army Corps**, and the general reserve consisted of 28.5 **infantry** battalions. In September 1904, following the **battle of Liaoyang**, the army was officially dissolved by Tsar **Nicholas II** and divided into two, and later, three armies, known as the **First Manchurian Army**, the **Second Manchurian Army**, and the **Third Manchurian Army**.

MANCHURIAN ARMY, SECOND. One of the two, and later, three large Russian armies taking part in the Russo–Japanese War. It was formed in September 1904, after the **battle of Liaoyang**, when Tsar **Nicholas II** decided that the breadth of command had grown too wide for a single commander. The army was commanded initially by General **Oskar Grippenberg** from its establishment until February 1905, and following the **battle of Sandepu** it was commanded by General **Aleksandr Kaulbars** from 12 February until September 1905. It comprised initially the **First European Army Corps** and the **Sixth Siberian Army Corps**, and it played a major part in all land engagements following the battle of Liaoyang until the end of the war.

MANCHURIAN ARMY, THIRD. One of the three large Russian armies taking part in the Russo–Japanese War. Formed in December 1904, it was commanded by General **Aleksandr Kaulbars** until 12 February 1905, then by General **Aleksandr Bilderling** until May 1905, and then by General **Mikhail Bot'yanov** until its dissolution in February 1906. It took part in the **battle of Mukden**.

MANKAN KÔKAN. *See* MANCHURIA–KOREA EXCHANGE.

MANNERHEIM, CARL GUSTAF EMIL [KARL GUSTAFOVICH] (1867–1951). Russian army officer who served as a **cavalry** officer during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading Finnish military leader in later years. Born in Askainen to a Finnish-Swedish family ennobled in 1768, Mannerheim graduated from the Nikolai Cavalry School in **St. Petersburg** in 1889. He began his military service at a cavalry garrison of the **Imperial Russian Army** in **Poland** and was accepted later into an elite regiment. During the Russo–Japanese

War he volunteered to go to **Manchuria** and was stationed with the 52nd Nezhinskii Dragoon Regiment in November 1904. As a lieutenant colonel he assisted the commanding officer of the regiment and participated in several engagements, including the **battle of Mukden**. Consequently he was promoted to colonel and was awarded a number of decorations.

After the war, Mannerheim led two Russian expeditions to China, was promoted to lieutenant general, and became a part of the imperial entourage. During World War I he served as a cavalry commander on the Austro–Hungarian and Romanian fronts, but following the eruption of revolution in **Russia**, he returned to **Finland** and a few months later was appointed as the first commander-in-chief of Finland's newly established army. Mannerheim was promoted to field marshal in 1933; he supported Finland's military industry. Although he was not enthusiastic about a war against the Soviet Union, he was reappointed commander-in-chief of Finland's army. On the eve of the war in 1944 he was elected president, and he held this office for the next two years.

MANSHÛ. *See* MANCHURIA.

MARCH, PEYTON CONWAY (1864–1955). American army officer who served as **military observer** during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in Easton, Pennsylvania, graduated from Lafayette College and the U.S. Military Academy, and joined the 3rd Artillery as 2nd lieutenant. Following his promotion to captain, March was sent as a military observer to **Manchuria** and was attached to the **Imperial Japanese Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. Subsequently, he served in several command positions, earning promotion eventually to major general. In 1918–1921 he served as acting chief and chief of staff of the U.S. Army, and was further promoted to general before his final retirement in 1930.

MATSUI, IWANE (1878–1948). Japanese army officer who served as a junior officer during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading figure in the **Imperial Japanese Army** in later years. Matsui was born in Nagoya and graduated from the Military Academy and the Army Staff College. He saw action in the Russo–Japanese War, and in later

years served alternately as resident officer in **China** and **France**. During the Siberian Intervention after World War I, Matsui was made regimental commanding officer, and in the 1920s he was attached to the Kwantung Army [Guandong Army, *Kantô-gun*] headquarters in **Manchuria** as chief of the **Harbin** special services agency. Matsui was promoted to lieutenant general, conducted negotiations with Guomindang leaders at Tsinan, and was then recalled to **Tokyo** to command the **1st Division**. He later attended the Geneva disarmament conference and was promoted to general upon his return. Before the outbreak of the Second Sino–Japanese War in 1937, he served on the Supreme War Council but was recalled to active duty with the Shanghai expeditionary army. Matsui directed the battle for Shanghai and the takeover of the capital, Nanjing, and was effectively the overall commander-in-chief of the Japanese forces in China during the "Rape of Nanking [Nanjing]," which he did little to stop. Subsequently, he was placed in command of the central China army and later became a cabinet councilor and retired. A year after the end of World War II, he was tried for war crimes and executed in 1948.

MATSUKATA, MASAYOSHI (1835–1924). Japanese statesman who served as **genro** during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in the Satsuma domain (now Kagoshima Prefecture) and studied at the regional Confucian academy; he also studied Western science, mathematics, and surveying in Nagasaki. During the Meiji Restoration of 1868, Matsukata helped to maintain order in Nagasaki, and the same year he was appointed governor of Hita Prefecture (part of present-day Oita Prefecture). In 1881 he replaced Okuma Shigenobu as finance minister and embarked on a comprehensive fiscal reform that halted **Japan**'s galloping inflation. Although his reform caused Japan to plummet into a deep economic depression, it secured Japan's stability and provided a firm base for the country's industrial and financial growth. Subsequently Matsukata held the position of prime minister in 1891–1892, and again in 1896–1898. In 1898 he was named genro, and from 1903 to 1912 he also presided over the Japanese branch of the **Red Cross**. In 1905 he was made a marquis and in 1922 received the rank of prince.

MATSUMOTO, KAZU [YAWARA] (1860–1940). Japanese naval officer who served as commanding officer of a **battleship** during the

Russo–Japanese War and became a leading naval figure in later years. Matsumoto was born in Edo (now **Tokyo**), graduated from the seventh class of the Naval Academy, and studied in the first class of the naval staff college. He then alternated between a series of sea and staff assignments in the Navy Ministry and was eventually promoted to captain in 1899. Three years later, Matsumoto was appointed commanding officer of the **cruiser *Itsukushima*** and in 1903 received command of the battleship ***Fuji***. During the Russo–Japanese War he commanded the *Fuji* in the **naval blockade of Port Arthur** and later took part with her in the **battle of the Yellow Sea**. He also took part in the **battle of Tsushima**, where *Fuji* fired a salvo that sank the ***Borodino***. Soon after the war he was promoted to rear admiral, and in 1909 to vice admiral. As a capable politician within the **Imperial Japanese Navy**, Matsumoto was soon considered a likely choice for navy minister. However, while serving as the commander of the Kure naval base, he was implicated in the Siemens–Vickers scandal, tried by court-martial, and in 1914 convicted of bribe-taking. He was stripped of his rank and sentenced to a prison term. He lived out his life in obscurity.

MATSUSHIMA*.** Japanese protected **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was one of the three ships of the *Matsushima* class and served in the 5th Division of the **Third Fleet** at the outbreak of the war. Technically similar to ***Itsukushima and ***Hashidate***, she differed in her high forecastle and the position of a Canet 320-millimeter [12.6-inch] breech-loader gun aft. She thus was intended to be the last ship in the column of the three, marking the end of the "prolonged battleship." The *Matsushima* class was designed to combat the Chinese fleet. During the **First Sino–Japanese War**, the *Matsushima* was hit in the **battle of the Yalu** and suffered about 100 casualties. She was refitted before the Russo–Japanese War to use newer boilers with increased steam pressure. During the war she served mainly in supporting roles as part of the Third Fleet, and took part also in the **battle of Tsushima**. Later the *Matsushima* was relegated to a training role and was lost in a magazine explosion while docked at Mako Harbor in 1908.

Technical data: Builder: La Seyne, France, 1888–1891; Displ.: 4,217t; LBD: 91.81×15.59×6.05m [301×51×20ft]; Machinery: 2-

shaft reciprocating HTE, 5,400ihp; Speed: 16.5kt; Fuel: 405/680t coal; Range: 5,500nm on 10kt; Armament: 1×320/38mm [12.6in.], 12×120mm [4.7in.], 16×6pdr (5×1) QF, 6×57mm/43 QF (6×1), 12×37mm/23 [1.5in.] QF, 4×356mm [14in.] TT; Armor: deck: 51mm [2in.], turret: 305mm [12in.], gun shield: 102mm [4in.]; Comp.: 360.

MATSUYAMA. Japanese city on the island of Shikoku and capital of Ehime Prefecture. During the Russo–Japanese War, the city and its surroundings were designated by the Japanese authorities as a location for many of the **prisoner camps**. The Russian **prisoners of war** were allowed to stroll in the town and shop during their captivity; thousands of them continued to live in the city for several months after their release.

MAXIM MACHINE GUN. Main **machine gun** used by the **Imperial Russian Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. It was designed in 1883 by Hiram Maxim, an American living in Great Britain, and during the following years came into widespread use. In 1895 the **Imperial Japanese Army** purchased a number of Maxims but eventually preferred the **Hotchkiss machine gun**. The Imperial Russian Army, however, purchased 58 Maxim machine guns in 1899 and made it its main machine gun. In 1902 the army concluded a contract with the British firm Vickers to manufacture the Maxim in **Russia**, thereby cutting costs by two-thirds. Manufacture of the Russian version of the Maxim started only in 1910; the machine gun was designated *Pulemiot Maxima*. At the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, the Russian war ministry placed a rush order abroad for a total of 450 machine guns for the troops at the front, which were mostly supplied toward the end of the war. The Maxim's design was simple though ingenious: it was water cooled, recoil operated, and fully automatic. Its recoil, caused by the explosion of the powder, operated to eject the spent cartridge and load the next round. The Maxim was fabric belt-fed, and it fired the same 7.62-millimeter [.30-inch] ammunition used by the Russian-made **Mosin M-1891 rifle**.

Technical data: Water-cooled 4 liters; Caliber: 7.62mm; Gun length: 1.107m, barrel length: 0.72m; Grooves: 4; Wheeled mount weight: 36kg; Tripod mount weight: 27.6kg, empty fabric belt

weight: 1.1kg, loaded fabric belt weight: 6.1kg (250 rounds); Effective rate of fire: 250r/min.

MAZAKI, JINZABURÔ (1876–1956). Japanese army officer who served as a junior officer during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading figure in the military in later years. He was born in Saga Prefecture and graduated from the Army Academy in 1897. During the Russo–Japanese War, Lieutenant Mazaki served as a company commander at the **6th Division** and was promoted to captain in late 1904. He was promoted to general in 1933, and a year later was appointed inspector of military education. During the early 1930s, Mazaki led the ultranationalist Kôdôha faction in the army together with **Araki Sadao**. In 1935 he was dismissed from the army following his apparent complicity in a plot to assassinate leading political figures. He was indicted following the abortive coup d'état in February 1936 but eventually exonerated for lack of evidence regarding his involvement. After World War II, Mazaki was tried as a class-A war criminal in the Tokyo War Crimes Trial and served two years in prison.

MCCULLY, NEWTON A., JR. (1867–1951). American naval officer who served as **military observer** during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in South Carolina and graduated from the U.S. Naval Academy in 1887. A few days after the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, Lieutenant Commander McCully was sent to **Russia**. Following a trip via the **Trans-Siberian Railway**, he arrived in **Manchuria** and observed the war on the Russian side. In 1906, following his return to the **United States** after the end of the war, he submitted to the secretary of the navy a lengthy report (published later as the *McCully Report*). He then served as executive officer of the **cruiser** USS *California* and in 1910 served on the staff of the Naval War College. In 1914 he returned to **St. Petersburg** as naval attaché and in September 1918 was ordered to command U.S. naval forces in northern Russia. A year later, he was appointed head of a diplomatic mission to south Russia. In the early 1920s he served in various staff and sea assignments with the temporary rank of vice admiral. In 1925 he went to Brazil as chief of the U.S. naval mission to that country. His final assignment was as commander of the Sixth Naval District, Charleston, and in 1931 he was transferred to the retired list.

MCGEE, ANITA NEWCOMB (1864–1940). American physician who served as a **Red Cross** volunteer during the Russo–Japanese War. She graduated from Columbian College (now George Washington University) in 1892 and was afterward one of a few selected women practicing medicine in Washington. At the outbreak of the Spanish–American War in April 1898, McGee organized volunteer nurses for the Daughters of the American Revolution. McGee's organizing ability led to her appointment as the only woman acting assistant surgeon in the U.S. Army, in charge of the army's nurses. After the war, she worked for the establishment of a permanent nurse corps and is considered the founder of the Army Nurse Corps. In June 1903, with war between **Japan** and **Russia** looming, she wrote to the Japanese diplomat **Takahira Kogorô** and volunteered her services as a supervisor of nurses for the Japanese government. In April 1904 she arrived in Yokohama with a team of nine nurses for a six-month tour of duty, returning in November 1904. The group observed Japanese **medical treatment** in military facilities and instructed nurses and officials of the Japanese Red Cross. In June they toured the Japanese hospital ship *Hakuai Maru* and visited the large Russian **prisoners of war** hospital in **Matsuyama**. In July they went to **Korea** and later visited hospitals in **Antung**. After McGee returned to the **United States**, she wrote and lectured on her experiences in the Russo–Japanese War.

MECKEL, KLEMENS WILHELM JAKOB (1842–1906). German army officer who served as military advisor to the **Imperial Japanese Army** before the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in Cologne and graduated from the Prussian Army Staff College in 1869. In 1885 Meckel arrived in **Japan**, at the invitation of the Japanese government, following a decision by the Imperial Japanese Army to adopt the German model of organization. He taught at the army War College and acted as advisor to the general staff. Upon his return to **Germany** three years later, he assumed staff assignments, eventually attaining the rank of major general. Among his Japanese students were several future leading figures in the Russo–Japanese War, such as **Kodama Gentarô** and **Akiyama Yoshifuru**. Although Meckel left Japan in 1888, his methods were considered the basis of Japan's victory in the **First Sino–Japanese War**, and his legacy endured much

longer. His emphasis on the **infantry** in offensive campaigns, however, led to the enormous death toll in the Russo–Japanese War.

MEDICAL TREATMENT. Medical treatment during and following battle has evolved dramatically since the 19th century. The Russo–Japanese War witnessed a significant improvement in this respect compared with earlier wars. Apart from caring for the wounded, medical treatment aimed at prevention of infectious diseases, which tend to spread in the unhygienic conditions of the front. In this sense in particular, the war marked evident progress. The **Imperial Russian Army** had 13,000 dead from disease, a relatively low death rate compared with **Russia**'s earlier campaigns, out of the 108,200 taken ill in the field during the 18 months of war. Furthermore, over half the wounded soldiers were able to return to their units. For the **Imperial Japanese Army** the infection rate of the troops also was considerably lower than in other wars of the era.

The Imperial Japanese Army developed a medical department indirectly modeled on the Letterman Plan of the American Civil War, creating a system for removing patients from the battlefield to hospitals in the rear to receive surgical treatment. Field hospitals included laboratories to aid in the diagnosis of diseases caused by bacteria, and surgical wards were stocked with aseptic steel surgical instruments and supplies. The Japanese medical corps in **Manchuria**, under the leadership of **Mori Rintarô**, emphasized sanitation, which was consistent with the traditional stress on cleanliness. Water was boiled and soldiers were prevented from drinking until sterilized water was provided. Troops were required to bathe before an assault, and sailors donned sterile cotton outfits prior to battle to ensure cleanliness in the case of injury. The Russians in Manchuria were generally able to get the wounded off the battlefield even during a hasty retreat. Field hospitals were well equipped with aseptic instruments, although some older wooden-handled instruments were still in use. Moreover, bacteriological laboratories were deployed far behind the front lines and were underutilized.

Although the Japanese had more wounded soldiers, they treated them more successfully and suffered fewer deaths than the Russians. Paradoxically, despite apparently more stringent Japanese sanitation measures, far fewer Russian soldiers succumbed to infectious dis-

eases, probably due to their more suitable nutrition. The most problematic disease afflicting Japanese troops was beriberi, a disorder identified later as a vitamin deficiency. Due to the absence of vitamin B1 (thiamin) in rice, the army's main food, many troops suffered from acute paralysis as well as crippling circulatory and neurological ailments. The **Imperial Japanese Navy** identified the etiology of beriberi and amended the nutrition of the crews, but the army was unable to amend the nutrition of so many troops. During the **siege of Port Arthur**, for example, 21,023 Japanese soldiers suffered from beriberi, accounting for 62 percent of the sick in this campaign.

The Imperial Russian Army too was unprepared for a war a continent away. Medical support for the army was inconsistent. Field hospitals and aid stations were frequently understaffed. Discipline was lax at the aid stations, where wounds were rarely washed or disinfected before the wounded soldier was evacuated. Ambulances and stretcher-bearers at the front were rare. The wounded were assembled as a rule at aid stations and were transferred to field hospitals only much later. On the other hand, the Russians made good use of hospital trains and could often evacuate the wounded efficiently.

The Japanese made good use of hospital ships for transporting and treating injured soldiers. Over 20 ships, each with a carrying capacity of 200 or more wounded, time after time crossed the sea from the shores of southern Manchuria to **Japan**. Two of these ships, the *Kosai Maru* and the *Hakuai Maru*, belonged to the Japanese **Red Cross**, whereas the others were leased by the government. The ships were fully outfitted as floating hospitals and contained X-ray machines, the latest aseptic surgical and disinfecting equipment, and a bacteriological laboratory and a pharmacy. The medical complement of hospital ships consisted usually of four doctors, two pharmacists, two clerks, a manager, and 44 nurses, mostly women. After the war, American physician **Anita McGee** and Major Louis Seaman, an American surgeon and military attaché to Japan, promoted the Japanese example as a model for the U.S. Army. Subsequent analysis, however, found little difference between the two armies in the success of disease prevention. Both stressed preventive sanitary conditions, as well as transfer of the wounded to hospitals located in the rear; of critical importance was their keeping abreast of the latest developments in civil medicine and their readiness to implement them in the field.

MEIJI, EMPEROR [MUTSUHITO, EMPEROR; *MEIJI TENNÔ*] (1852–1912). Emperor of **Japan** who reigned throughout the Meiji era (1868–1912) and the Russo–Japanese War. He succeeded his father, Emperor Kômei, at the age of 15, and during the following year he, or rather the imperial throne, was the focal point of the movement leading to the overthrow of the Tokugawa shogunate. In the consequent Meiji Restoration, which restored the supremacy of the emperor, he was reinstated as overlord of Japan and was designated later as the official supreme commander of its military forces. Despite the foundation of the Diet (Japanese parliament) in 1890, Emperor Meiji had gained increasing political power and influence, although it is not certain to what extent. It seems certain, however, that he influenced the course taken by Japanese politicians on several occasions. On the whole he stood above politics and remained a benevolent figure to be adored, and later, in the **First Sino–Japanese War** and in the Russo–Japanese War, a symbol to fight for.

During the Russo–Japanese War, Emperor Meiji remained in **Tokyo** and played mostly a diplomatic and symbolic role, unlike his conduct during the First Sino–Japanese War. Then he had stayed at **Imperial General Headquarters** in **Hiroshima** throughout the conflict. He never felt the need to offer advice, and he kept calm and self-possessed even when informed of the fall of **Port Arthur**. The imperial restraint somewhat relaxed, however, following the victory in the **battle of Tsushima**, when the emperor issued a rather jubilant statement. Despite the emperor's reserve, the Japanese troops' morale was apparently greatly affected by their feeling of pride in fighting for him and representing him on the battlefield. His close observation of the war was physically and mentally demanding, caused him to age noticeably, and is said to have resulted in his fatal illness a few years later. He died of cancer at 59 and was buried in his hometown of Kyoto. With his death, Japan's era of transformation into a modern state was symbolically completed.

MEYER, GEORGE VON LENGERKE (1858–1918). American diplomat who served as ambassador to **Russia** during the latter half of the Russo–Japanese War. Born in Boston to an East India merchant, he graduated from Harvard College in 1879. Following a short stint as a banker, Meyer began a political career. He was elected to the Boston

city council in 1889 and served as a member of the Massachusetts State House of Representatives in 1892–1896, where he served as speaker at the end of his tenure. In 1900 he was appointed ambassador to Italy, and in early 1905 he took up the ambassador's post in **St. Petersburg**, where he served until 1907. Meyer was highly instrumental in promoting the mediation of President **Theodore Roosevelt**, and he urged the Russian decision-makers to join the **Portsmouth Peace Conference**. After his return from Russia, he served as postmaster-general in 1907–1909, and as secretary of the navy under President **William Howard Taft** in 1909–1913. In this period he attempted to reform the U.S. Navy, overhauling almost 50 **battleships** and **cruisers**.

MIKASA*.** Japanese **battleship** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was the only ship of the newly built *Mikasa* class and the final battleship of the 1896 program. She was better protected than her three half-sisters (Shikishima***, ***Asahi***, and ***Hatsuse***), and any other Japanese warship, by the use of additional Krupp cemented armor plate. Considered the world's most powerful battleship of her time, she belonged to the leading 1st Battle Division of the **First Fleet** at the outbreak of the war. As the flagship of Admiral **Tôgô Heihachirô** and the whole **Combined Fleet**, she took part in all the major naval operations of the **Imperial Japanese Navy** during the Russo–Japanese War. The *Mikasa* was heavily damaged in the **battle of the Yellow Sea** and the **battle of Tsushima** but was rapidly repaired both times. On 11 September 1905, a few days after the war ended, an explosion in her magazine ripped her apart, and she sank in the shallow waters of **Sasebo**, killing 251 members of her crew. The *Mikasa* was raised almost a year later and repaired soon after. She was recommissioned in 1907 and eventually disarmed in 1922. Since then she has been preserved as a national monument at Yokosuka.

Technical data: Builder: Vickers, Great Britain, 1899–1902; Displ.: 15,179t; LBD: 131.70×23.23×8.28m [401×71×25ft]; Machinery: 2-shaft VTE, 25 boilers, 16,341ihp; Speed: 18kt; Fuel: 2,000t coal; Range 9,000nm on 10kt; Armament: 4×305mm/40 [12in.], 14×152mm/45 [6in.], 20×76mm [3in.] QF, 12×47mm, 4×457mm [18in.] TT; Armor: Harvey nickel steel, belt: 102–229mm, barbettes: 152–356mm [6–14in.], turrets: 203–254mm [8–10in.], casemates: 152mm [6in.], CT: 102–356mm [4–14in.], deck: 51–102mm [2–4in.]; Comp.: 935.

MILITARY BALANCE. While the comparison of belligerent nations ought to take into account economic, geographic, geopolitical, and motivational factors, in purely military terms prewar **Russia** was certainly a great power—far greater than **Japan**. At the beginning of 1904 the **Imperial Russian Army** was reckoned the largest in the world, with 41,000 officers, 1,067,000 soldiers in 29 corps, and more than 3 million men in the reserve forces. Since the Crimean War, significant reforms had been introduced into the Russian army, yet several basic problems remained. A major issue was the level of the senior echelon of officers, who were of relatively advanced age because of late retirement and had received limited training. The Russian **cavalry** did not undergo any significant transformation in modern times, and there was a certain recognizable decline in its importance toward the end of the 19th century. Russian **artillery**, however, went through many changes at the end of the 19th century, and when the war broke out it was about to complete a large outfitting plan, which included a new field gun; also, **machine guns** were about to be introduced into the **infantry** units. By contrast, on the eve of the Russo–Japanese War, the **Imperial Japanese Army** numbered 850,000 men, including the reserve forces. While it was substantially smaller than its Russian enemy, it disposed of 257,000 well-trained and disciplined soldiers of the regular infantry, many more than the 95,000 infantrymen Russia maintained east of **Lake Baikal**.

The **Imperial Russian Navy** too underwent reorganization at the end of the 19th century with the encouragement of Tsar Alexander III and his son **Nicholas II**. At the beginning of the 20th century, the Russian navy could take pride in numerous modern vessels, mostly of original construction, which placed it third in the world. However, it retained its legacy of a defensive approach and its self-perception of having a minor role compared with the army, in keeping with the general military outlook of the nation. Above all, the Russian navy suffered from the dispersal of its units across the Baltic Sea, the Black Sea, and the northwest corner of the Pacific Ocean. The enormous distances between the three fleets that composed the Russian navy made each of them an independent, virtually isolated unit; the navy was far weaker than its declared strength. On the eve of the war, the **Imperial Japanese Navy** had just completed its construction plan, and although it was much smaller than the Russian navy as a

whole, it was sixth in the world and roughly equal to Russia's **Pacific Fleet**. At **Port Arthur** alone, Russia had more **battleships** than the entire Japanese navy possessed (seven as against six). The Pacific Fleet also had a greater number of **destroyers** (25 as against 20), but it was inferior in the number of **cruisers**.

The quantitative superiority of the Russians in the naval arena is even more obvious when the military balance takes into consideration the forces at its disposal in the Baltic Sea as well. These forces, as will become clear later on, were not immediately available. Nevertheless, the Russian naval commanders could have utilized the possibility of changing or augmenting their forces in the arena had they been alerted at a relatively early stage in the war. Japan, on the other hand, completed its naval expansion program before the war, so it could not expect any reinforcements during the confrontation. In such a situation the Pacific Fleet could take greater risks or could allow itself to suffer partial defeat without fearing any fatal reverse in the war as a whole. From the qualitative viewpoint, however, the Imperial Japanese Navy enjoyed an advantage that was perceived mainly retrospectively. Raised in the tradition of the British **Royal Navy**, it was now equipped with some of the best warships of the day, organized in uniform units, and well coordinated. Before the war the Japanese held a series of rigorous exercises, battle drills, and war games with scientific and precise planning, and seemed better prepared than their rival.

Japan venturing into a war against Russia was likened, at least in the eyes of the world press at that time, to David facing Goliath. But the seemingly unbridgeable differences between the rivals, as perceived on the eve of the war, was a product of widespread illusions, not of careful analysis of the given facts. In fact, at the beginning of the war, and at certain significant stages, Japan enjoyed a qualitative advantage, and at times even a quantitative one, in both the number of soldiers and the number of vessels at its disposal. Nevertheless, Japan had to exploit its advantages speedily, and it could not afford to fail. Failure at any stage in the war might tilt the local advantage to the Russians' favor. The planners at the Japanese staff headquarters, as well as the Japanese government, correctly assumed that although Russia was incomparably superior to Japan in the range of its economic resources and quantity of manpower, Japan could temporarily attain local superiority and obtain her objectives within this period of time.

MILITARY INTELLIGENCE. The gathering of information for military purposes, conducted by **Russia** and **Japan** before and during the Russo–Japanese War. Both belligerents were active in assembling data about each other's military preparations, combat potential, and war plans, as well as tactical information for immediate use during a battle. Before the war, both established networks of agents who collected information, such as the deployment of the enemy's naval and army units and bases, **landing operations** sites, and acquisition of weapons. While the Japanese deployed numerous agents in **Manchuria** and **Korea** and were able to assess accurately the strengths and weaknesses of their foes, and pinpoint the deployment of the units of the **Imperial Russian Army** and **Imperial Russian Navy** in East Asia, the Russians relied on reports of a small number of agents and attachés, notable among them Colonel G. M. Vannovskii, who stayed in Japan in 1900–1902. In his reports, Vannovskii underestimated the military strength of Japan, but the war revealed that Russia failed in additional respects. Not only did it misunderstand Japan's motives and strategic vision, but it was also ignorant of its general capacity and tactical skills.

During the war, both sides employed spies, often recruited from the local population, as well as small reconnaissance units, who reported on the state of preparedness on the other side of the front. The Japanese, however, were better able to utilize agents who disguised themselves as locals. For example, they had a senior officer in disguise among the Chinese coolies working on the Russian fortifications at **Nanshan** before the **battle of Nanshan**; likewise, the sole, unassuming hairdresser in **Niuchuang** was a captain in the **Imperial Japanese Army**. Similarly they drew much information from Chinese agents who were disposed to collaborate with those they perceived as about to be the victors. The Russians, by contrast, suffered from divided lines of communication due to the creation of the Far Eastern viceroyalty and from tactical disorganization. The **Cossack** units, which traditionally were charged with gathering real-time intelligence on an army's movements, failed in their mission; the army lacked sufficient interpreters who knew the local language and especially the enemy's language, and the troops did not receive maps of the arena.

Both Russia and Japan customarily analyzed newspaper reports sent by **war correspondents** and published in the Western press.

They also processed information for tactical application at the front; they sent reports to their respective intelligence headquarters at **St. Petersburg** and **Tokyo**, getting back processed output. Russia and Japan also established networks of agents in Europe and along the supply routes to Asia, principally Istanbul, the **Suez Canal**, and Singapore. The Japanese, and notably their agent Colonel **Akashi Motojirô**, were much more successful in collecting information from European radicals than were the Russians with Japanese radicals. Akashi's network in Europe consisted of seven spies and five assistants, who collaborated for money as well as for political goals and provided information about Russian national motivation and military mobilization in Europe. Both sides attempted to spread false information about their capabilities. The Russians, for example, reported that troops stationed on the **Yalu River** could set the water aflame; the Japanese got the Russians to believe that they deployed **submarines** off **Port Arthur**.

Aware of the catastrophic state of its military intelligence, the **Imperial Russian Army** was determined to correct its faults soon after the war. The task of reorganization of the Russian general staff and its intelligence branch was assigned in June 1905 to the new chief of the general staff, General F. F. Palitsyn (1851–1923). In the next three years, until his dismissal, Palitsyn divided the roles of gathering and processing military intelligence within the general staff, restored intelligence gathering at the military district level, and created a modern counter-intelligence service.

MILITARY LESSONS. *See* TACTICS, MILITARY.

MILITARY OBSERVERS. Military and naval officials dispatched to the front by non-belligerent governments to observe the war for military purposes. The Russo–Japanese War occurred in an era (1816–1914) when it was an institutionalized belief among the armed forces of the industrialized world that the observation of other wars offered insights into modern warfare. In reality, the observer was a special version of the military attaché, assigned ad hoc and for a short period. The American Civil War and the Franco–Prussian War were the first wars to attract a significant number of officers from non-belligerent countries, who observed the action from both sides. Nevertheless,

the Russo–Japanese War was the most extensively observed war of the pre-1914 era. In contrast to earlier colonial wars, such as the **Boer War**, the Russo–Japanese War involved the armed forces of the largest power in Europe, and although relatively little was known or indeed expected of **Japan**, its army and navy were at least perceived to have the advantages of modern armaments and organization, making this a more balanced contest than previous wars fought outside Europe.

Five months after the war began, there were in **Manchuria** 25 military observers and six naval observers, and by its conclusion the war had attracted over 80 officers of the armed forces of 16 different nations who had observed it from both sides. Curiously, it seems that international prestige demanded that a nation dispatch at least one observer to Manchuria. Among the observers were some of established fame at the time. But many others were to enjoy distinguished military careers, rising to become leading figures in their respective armies and navies, especially during World War I. A partial list of such observers would include Lieutenant General (at the time of the Russo–Japanese War) **Ian Hamilton**, Lieutenant General **William Nicholson**, Major General **Charles Burnett**, Major General **Montague Gerard**, Captain (Royal Navy) **William Pakenham**, Captain (Royal Navy) **Thomas Jackson**, Captain (Royal Navy) **Ernest Troubridge**, Colonel **John Hoad**, and Lieutenant Colonel **James Haldane** from **Great Britain**; Captain **John Pershing**, Major General **Arthur MacArthur**, Brigadier General **Thomas Barry**, Major **Joseph Kuhn**, Major **Montgomery Macomb**, Captain **Peyton March**, and Lieutenant Commander **Newton McCully** from the **United States**; Captain **Carl Hoffmann** from **Germany**; and Major **Enrico Caviglia** from Italy.

The sojourn in Manchuria was a difficult mission, and the observers suffered from the harsh weather conditions and the rigid military life at the front. Apart from personality clashes, they also were assailed by more specific difficulties. The first was the issue of secrecy. Both armies, but the Japanese in particular, were not keen to show the observers what they considered "their" war, even if for political reasons they had to put up with them. They were reluctant to tell the observers anything about the progress of events. While the British expected better treatment from the Japanese than the other Western observers, the Japanese were worried about giving the impression that their war ef-

fort was being directed by the British. With the Japanese, the observers often sensed a certain measure of mutual racial antagonism, which was liable to be exposed during the war. In sum, the observers produced voluminous reports during their stay and after their return. The effect of these reports on military tactics or strategy, however, was limited; in World War I, they had no part to play.

MIN, ASSASSINATION OF QUEEN [*BINHI SATSUGAI JIKEN*] (1895). An act of assassination perpetrated by Japanese agents that led to the intensification of Russian involvement in **Korea** in the years before the Russo–Japanese War. Following the **First Sino–Japanese War**, **Russia** became **Japan**'s main rival in the Korean peninsula, and together with the **United States** it objected to the plans to grant the Japanese excessive rights in Korea. As Japan's position rapidly deteriorated, in the summer of 1895 its agents attempted to turn the country into a Japanese protectorate. They failed, due to difficulties in winning local support. They subsequently decided to eliminate the political opponents of Japanese presence in Korea, the most prominent among them being Queen Min Bi (1851–1895), in order to complete their reform and secure control of the king. On 8 October 1895, several members of the Japanese legation in **Seoul,** dressed in local garb and led by the Japanese minister to Korea, **Miura Gorô**, entered the palace and stabbed the queen to death.

The assassination was soon exposed, and it engendered international criticism as well as mounting fear and hatred of Japan in the royal Korean court. In February 1896, as Japanese troops landed near the capital to assist in another revolt, King **Kojong** found shelter in the building of the Russian legation in the Korean capital, thereby causing a backlash against Japan. During 1896, Japanese advisors were expelled, collaborators were executed, and the new cabinet was constituted of persons regarded as pro-Russian. Japan thereafter worked for a diplomatic resolution of the conflict with Russia, leading to the **Komura–Weber Memorandum** of 1896 and the **Nishi–Rosen agreement** of 1898. Nevertheless, Russia's reinforced position in Korea led to growing fears in **Tokyo**, which were resolved only after the Russo–Japanese War.

MINELAYERS. *See* MINES, NAVAL.

MINES, NAVAL. Underwater explosive devices designed to sink seagoing craft and an important naval weapon used during the Russo–Japanese War. Although able to sink or badly damage even large vessels by blowing open their hull below the waterline, these relatively inexpensive weapons are easily laid down and require little maintenance. Naval mines originated in the 16th century, but their use in naval combat was begun in the American Revolution by David Bushnell, who placed such devices under the hulls of British ships in New York harbor. During the American Civil War, the Confederate navy protected its harbors and sank a number of Union navy ships using mines. The **Imperial Russian Navy** was also a pioneer of mine warfare, using naval mines for the first time during the Crimean War, and again during the Russo–Turkish War of 1877–1878.

During the Russo–Japanese War, both the Imperial Russian Navy and the **Imperial Japanese Navy** used naval mines intensively. This weapon played a prominent role in the conflict, and the extremes of its lethal efficiency were manifested for the first time. Mines were the most effective weapons that the Russians had, and they sank far more Japanese warships than all the other weapons of the Imperial Russian Navy combined. At the outbreak of the war the **Pacific Fleet** had two **minelayers**, ***Amur*** and ***Enisei***, both at **Port Arthur**. During the war these two vessels and other Russian warships laid down 4,275 mines, which accounted for the sinking of two Japanese **battleships**, two **cruisers**, five **gunvessels**, six **destroyers**, and a dispatch ship.

The Imperial Russian Navy used two types of mines: Model 1898 and Model 1906. The former was a moored contact mine, with a charge of 56 kilograms [123 pounds] made of gun cotton. Operated on five Hertz horns, its maximum depth was 40 meters [130 feet]. The latter was also a moored contact mine, with very similar specifications to Model 1898 but with a new anchor and several slight improvements that made it easier to use. The Imperial Japanese Navy used the Oda type 2 mine. Its total weight was 394 kilograms [876 pounds] with a charge of 32 kilograms [71 pounds], and maximum depth was 72 meters [236 feet].

Both sides lacked suitable equipment to counter-act mines, and therefore their effect was very destructive. Mining the coastal area near Port Arthur alone caused the sinking of three battleships, five cruisers, and three destroyers, and the loss of thousands of crewmen

on both sides. All the large naval vessels lost by the Imperial Japanese Navy were sunk by mines, and mine damage had strategic significance, as seen in the sinking in one day of two Japanese battleships, ***Yashima*** and ***Hatsuse***, one-third of the total number of battleships of the Imperial Japanese Navy. The use of mines also had a significant impact on the Russian forces because of the loss of the commanding officer of the **Pacific Fleet**, Vice Admiral **Stepan Makarov** on board the ***Petropavlovsk***. Makarov's death due to a mine explosion virtually froze the initiative of the Russian naval force at Port Arthur. The Japanese laid mines using destroyers, which approached the vicinity of the harbor of Port Arthur at night and laid their mines about three meters [10 feet] below surface.

In the aftermath of the Russo–Japanese War, several European powers recognized the threat of the mine and at the **Hague Peace Conference** of 1907 sought to ban its use. However, many fleets strove simultaneously to develop minelayers as well as minesweepers that could locate this latent threat and neutralize it. The Imperial Russian Navy was the first to recognize this need, and in 1910 it built a vessel that was specifically intended for minesweeping. The other large navies converted fishing boats into minesweepers and refrained from constructing special vessels until 1914. The **Royal Navy** did not view the mine as a powerful weapon, but Admiral **John Fisher**'s strong impressions regarding its effect in the Russo–Japanese War could not be ignored. Eventually it was introduced into operational plans of the Royal Navy in 1913, with the support of the naval minister Winston Churchill.

During World War I, mines continued to be a very effective weapon, as the Germans realized with the sinking of the British battleship *Odysseus*, right at the start of hostilities. During the war the opposing sides laid about 240,000 mines, with horrendous consequences. As the Allies lost 586 ships and the Germans lost 150 warships and 40 **submarines**, mines became the most effective weapon in naval warfare. The Imperial Japanese Navy and the Imperial Russian Navy (and later the Soviet Navy) maintained their interest in mines in the following years. During World War I, the Imperial Russian Navy was second only to the British in the number of minelayers and minesweepers in its possession, whereas during the interwar periods the Imperial Japanese Navy constructed the most modern

force of minelayers in the world. In World War II, nearly 700,000 naval mines were laid, accounting for more ships sunk or damaged than any other weapon.

MISHCHENKO [MISCHENKO], PAVEL IVANOVICH (1853–1918). Russian army officer who served as commanding officer of various **cavalry** detachments during the Russo–Japanese War. He entered the **Imperial Russian Army** in 1871 and took part in the Russo–Turkish War of 1877–1878 and the suppression of the **Boxer Uprising**. In 1903 he was in charge of the security of the railroads in **Manchuria**. At the outbreak of the war, Mishchenko served as commanding officer of a cavalry detachment in **Korea**; following the Japanese **landing operations** in that country, his mission was to obstruct the Japanese **First Army** in its advance northward. After several minor skirmishes, and despite a lack of Japanese tenacity, he abandoned his mission and retreated northward and took part in the **battle of the Yalu**. Mishchenko also participated in the Russian efforts to halt the Japanese advance northward toward **Liaoyang** and confronted the Japanese **10th Division** in the **battle of Telissu** and the **battle of Hsimucheng**.

He subsequently took part in the **battle of Liaoyang** as a commander of a cavalry detachment, and in the **battle of Sha-ho** as commanding officer of the Independent Trans-Baikal **Cossack** Brigade. Following his relative success in rear-guarding the Russian retreat at Sha-ho, Mishchenko was appointed commander of the newly formed Cavalier Corps in December 1904 and assigned to lead the first massive Russian shock raid. On 8 January 1905, he left southward with a 6,000-strong body of cavalry on a raid aimed at destroying Japanese stockpiles in **Niuchuang**. The force straggled back 12 days later in a state of near ruin. He was reinstated as commander of the Cavalier Corps in March 1905 and remained in this position until September 1905. Mishchenko served as general-governor of Turkestan in 1908–1909, commanded the Second Caucasus Corps and the 31st Army Corps from 1914 to 1917, and committed suicide during Russia's civil war.

MISU, SÔTARÔ (1855–1921). Japanese naval officer who served as commanding officer of battle divisions during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading figure in the **Imperial Japanese Navy** in

later years. Misu was born in Shiga and graduated from the fifth class of the Naval Academy in 1878. He subsequently held a variety of staff and sea assignments during the early stages of his career and served as the superintendent of the Naval Academy. Misu was promoted to lieutenant in 1886, to lieutenant commander in 1891, and to captain in 1894. In 1897–1898 he assumed command of the **cruisers *Suma*** and ***Naniwa***, and in 1900 he became the commanding officer of the new **battleship *Asahi***. Misu was promoted to rear admiral in 1901, and in December 1903 he assumed command of the 2nd Battle Division of the **Second Fleet**. In this role he took part in the **battle of the Korea Straits**, where he commanded the cruiser ***Iwate*** in a force led by Vice Admiral **Kamimura Hikonojo**. He was promoted to vice admiral during the war and in January 1905 received command of the 1st Battle Division of the **First Fleet**, which he led at the **battle of Tsushima** aboard the cruiser ***Nisshin***. Soon after the end of the war, Misu was appointed commander-in-chief of the **Port Arthur** naval base and later became deputy head of the naval staff. He was made a baron in 1907, promoted to admiral in 1913, and retired a year later.

MIURA, GORÔ (1846–1926). Japanese army officer and diplomat who was involved in the assassination of the Korean Queen Min prior to the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in the Chôshû domain (now Yamaguchi Prefecture) and took part in the Boshin War against the shogunal forces during the Meiji Restoration and in suppressing the Satsuma Rebellion in 1877. Although Miura was a fervent opponent of the Chôshû–Satsuma monopoly in government and military politics, he advanced rapidly. In 1884 he was made a baron, and after being promoted to lieutenant general in 1888, he retired and became head of the Peers School in Gakushûin. In 1895 Miura was appointed minister in **Korea** and was behind the **assassination of Queen Min** in October that year. He was imprisoned for his role in the incident once it was exposed but was released a few years later and soon entered politics as a member of the Kensei Hontô party. Afterward Miura became an important *éminence grise* behind the annexation of Korea and in 1910 was named to the privy council.

MORI, RINTARÔ [ÔGAI] (1862–1922). Japanese army officer, physician, and novelist who served as commanding officer of the

medical corps of the **Second Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. Mori was born in Tsuwano (now Shimane Prefecture) and moved to **Tokyo** in 1872. His family provided hereditary domain physicians in the service of the daimyo of Tsuwano, and accordingly in 1874 Mori entered medical school, from which he graduated in 1881. After graduation Mori entered the army and began his career as a medical officer. In 1884 he was sent to study in **Germany**. After his return in 1888, he campaigned for the development of scientific medical research and **medical treatment** in **Japan**. Parallel to his struggle on the scientific front, he waged a campaign for the creation of Japanese literature and published two journals on his own: one literary, the other medical. He was assigned to **Manchuria** during the **First Sino–Japanese War**, after which he was sent to Taiwan. Mori was appointed head of the medical corps in Kokura in Kyushu in 1899 and became head of the medical corps in Tokyo in 1902. During the Russo–Japanese War he was once again sent to Manchuria and led the medical corps of the Second Army. In 1907 he was promoted to surgeon-general and was appointed head of the medical division of the Army Ministry. Mori held this post until his retirement in 1916. In that period he published literary works of many styles, from poetry to historical fiction and biography. He is known today mainly for this aspect of his activities.

MOROCCAN CRISIS (1905). An international crisis between **Germany**, **France**, and **Great Britain** during the Russo–Japanese War. It was one of the first indirect repercussions of the Russo–Japanese War in Europe. The origins of the crisis lay in the **Anglo–French Entente** of 1904 and in another agreement between France and Spain in October 1904, which secretly provided for the eventual partition of Morocco. Although Germany had little direct economic interest in Morocco, its chancellor, Bernhard von Bülow, believed it would be possible to weaken the Anglo–French Entente by championing Moroccan independence. Great Britain, he believed, would not support France during the Russo–Japanese conflict in East Asia to the point of going to war with Germany over Morocco. Accordingly, he induced Emperor **William II** to land at Tangier on 31 March 1905 and show sympathy for the Moroccans. German demands for an international conference did not receive French support, so a diplomatic crisis sim-

mered throughout the summer and autumn of 1905. As a gesture of appeasement, the French jettisoned their foreign minister, **Théophile Delcassé**, but agreed to an international conference at Algeciras when they were certain of British support and American goodwill. The conference was considered a diplomatic defeat for Germany, strengthening rather than weakening the Entente and leading to further alienation of Germany in the decade before World War I.

MOSIN M-1891 RIFLE. Russian main rifle during the Russo–Japanese War. It was first produced following an order of Tsar **Nicholas II**, and thereafter it was manufactured in **Russia**, the Soviet Union, and Belgium from 1891 to 1944 in several models. It originated as a design of Captain S. M. Mosin and was favored over a Belgian design by Leon Nagant for its ruggedness and lighter weight. The Mosin M-1891 replaced the older, heavier, and longer Karle and Berdan No. 2 rifles. By 1903 the two-phase introduction of the Mosin M-1891 to the ranks was complete, and both the regular army and the reserves were armed with the new rifle. The Russian **infantry** had a **bayonet** permanently fixed to the rifle, which hindered accurate shooting to some extent. Versions of the Mosin were used as frontline rifles until World War II and as practice rifles until the late 1970s.

Technical data: Caliber: 7.62mm [0.3in.]; Weight: 4.33kg [9.6lbs], with bayonet and sling 4.78kg [10.6lbs]; Length: 131cm [51.4in.], with bayonet: 173cm [68.2in.], barrel length: 80.3cm [31.6in.]; Magazine capacity: 5 rounds; Rate of fire: 8–10r/min; Maximum sighting range (iron sights): 2,200m.

MUKDEN [SHENYANG; *HÔTEN*]. Chinese city and capital of **Liaoning** Province in southern **Manchuria**; site of the greatest land battle during the Russo–Japanese War. It is located 65 kilometers [40 miles] north of **Liaoyang**, 385 kilometers [240 miles] north of **Port Arthur**, and 175 kilometers [110 miles] northeast of **Niuchuang** (41° 51' north and 123° 38' east). Its history dates to the second century BCE, when it was a border post called Shen of the Willow Palisade. It was used to separate the Manchurian nomadic tribes and settlers from inland **China**, and gradually it became a major frontier settlement trading between the Khitan, Juchen, and the Mongols. These last named it Shenyang, but during the Manchu rule starting in

the 17th century, it was renamed Mukden and served as a strategic base for the conquest of China. Subsequently it grew in size and influence, until it became a Russian stronghold when **Russia** secured railroad rights in Manchuria from China. During the Russo–Japanese War it served for a while as headquarters of the **Manchurian Army** and became a Russian main line of defense prior to the **battle of Mukden**. During the battle, the Japanese commander-in-chief of the Manchurian Army, Field Marshal **Ôyama Iwao**, took great care to avoid fighting in the city, and following the Russian retreat the Japanese took it over.

In 1931 a Japanese bomb that went off on the railway line near the city sparked the so-called Mukden Incident, which resulted in the Japanese takeover of all Manchuria. The city was occupied by Soviet forces in August 1945 and returned to Chinese Nationalist rule. Eventually it was taken over by the Communist forces and served them as base for the conquest of the Chinese mainland. Having resumed the name Shenyang, the city is currently the largest city in former Manchuria and one of China's greatest industrial centers. It is also the second railway center of China after Beijing, as well as the education and culture hub of the northeastern provinces.

MUKDEN, BATTLE OF [*HÔTEN KAISEN*] (1905). The final major land engagement and the largest single battle of the Russo–Japanese War. This, the longest battle in military history until then, was fought between 23 February and 10 March 1905 in the vicinity of the city of **Mukden**. The backdrop of the battle began with the conclusion of the **battle of Sha-ho**, for since mid-October 1904 both armies faced each other on parallel fronts south of Mukden, virtually without incident until January 1905. At the beginning of 1905 both sides had sufficient reasons for another clash. Field Marshal **Ôyama Iwao**, the commander-in-chief of the **Manchurian Army**, was tempted to destroy the Russian land forces in **Manchuria** before the arrival of the overestimated **Baltic Fleet** via the ocean, and of additional troops carried by the **Trans-Siberian Railway**. General **Aleksei Kuropatkin** too was eager to take the offensive, before the Japanese forces could be augmented by the extensive manpower of the **Third Army** still stationed at **Port Arthur**. Kuropatkin had at his disposal the three Manchurian Armies along an unprecedentedly broad front of 145 kilometers [90 miles].

At that stage Kuropatkin could indeed benefit from his larger force. The **First Manchurian Army** under General **Nikolai Linievich**, the **Second Manchurian Army** under **Aleksandr Kaulbars**, and the **Third Manchurian Army** under General **Aleksandr Bilderling** numbered about 300,000 (275,000 according to other estimates), while the strength of the Japanese **First Army** under General **Kuroki Tametomo**, the **Second Army** under General **Oku Yasukata**, and the **Fourth Army** under General **Nozu Michitsura**, and their reserves, were judged by the Russians to be 220,000 strong. This **military balance** changed with the ultimate arrival of the **Third Army** under General **Nogi Maresuke** in February and the formation of a new, understrength **Fifth Army** under General **Kawamura Kageaki**. With the entire Manchurian Army mobilized, Japanese fighting strength near Mukden (270,000 Japanese troops according to some estimates) during mid-February 1905 became about equal. Moreover, whereas the Russians had the advantage in the number of **cavalry** and guns (1,219 versus 992 field pieces) the Japanese had far more **machine guns** (about 1,000 versus 56).

At this stage both armies still planned to take the offensive, but the Russian deployment remained essentially defensive. Kuropatkin deployed the Third Manchurian Army on the right, the Second Manchurian Army in the center, and the First Manchurian Army on the left, with a general reserve in Mukden. As the Russian armies were slow to form a plan of action, Ôyama decided to move. The extremely cold weather made the conditions for the troops difficult but Ôyama was more concerned about the spring rains. He placed the Second Army on the left and then the Fourth Army, the First Army, and the Fifth Army on the right, whereas the newly arrived Third Army was secretly deployed to the rear of the Second Army. The Japanese attack began on February 23, with the Fifth Army marching through the mountains and attacking the Russian extreme left. On 24 February the First Army moved against the Russian First Army, and although Linievich held his ground, Ôyama's plan began to materialize. Misled by incoherent **military intelligence**, Kuropatkin shifted his reserves to the less favorable ground of his left flank, abandoning the plan to attack from his right.

As soon as the Russians were committed to this movement, the Third Army moved out from behind and, while advancing toward

Hsinmintun [Xinmintun], attacked the Russian right. For almost two weeks, practically three simultaneous battles ensued: the Third Army's struggle against the First Manchurian Army in the east; the First Army's inability to advance against the excellent Russian defenses in the center; and the Third Army's efforts to sweep around the Russian right. As in previous campaigns, the Japanese commanders cooperated incessantly and without fail, whereas the Russian commanders acted almost independently. Kuropatkin tried to correct his error in time to meet Nogi's first attack on 1–2 March and was able to deliver an effective counter-stroke. As the fighting grew severe, Kuropatkin only drew in the right and right center slightly. Impressed with the strength of the new Russian western front, Ôyama and Nogi extended their outer flank farther, with the Russians following suit. Ôyama sought to support the Third Army by bringing up his reserve and placing it opposite the Russian right center. On 6 March, Lieutenant General **Aleksandr Gerngross** led a column of the Third Manchurian Army in a counter-attack, but it unexpectedly collapsed after a brief fight, as Kaulbars was too slow to come to Gerngross's assistance. Still, at this stage the Russian positions remained relatively unshaken, especially in the center and the left, despite deteriorating morale.

Although Nogi's encircling movement was slower than Ôyama desired, Kuropatkin became concerned by its eventual ability to cut the Russian lines of communication. For this reason, he decided on 7 March to pull his center and left closer to Mukden. While he was successful in implementing this maneuver, Kaulbars and Nogi continued to engage in severe combat. Japanese forces slowly advanced into the void in the east, and Ôyama's armies gained momentum with the Russian withdrawal. Facing this situation, Kuropatkin concluded that he had to abandon Mukden. Linievich, however, continued to repulse all attacks on his front, and Bilderling and Kaulbars prevented Nogi from cutting off their line of retreat. The Japanese movement left the Russians with only a 13-kilometer [8-mile] corridor through which to withdraw their forces. With no prospect of victory, and with the sound of the encroaching Japanese, Kuropatkin ordered the retreat on the evening of 9 March. The next day, when Ôyama completed his grand pincer maneuver, he encircled Mukden but not the enemy, which had retreated in good order under the veil of a violent dust storm.

Despite Ôyama's initial plan to pursue the enemy, his forces were so exhausted and disorganized that they had to be reorganized before

any further movement could be ordered. Nevertheless, the breakthrough of the Fourth Army over the Hun, and its momentarily shelling the orderly retreating Russians, turned the retreat into a rout. While Ôyama entered Mukden, the Russian forces passed through Tieling [Tiehling] by 14 March and assumed new positions some 130 kilometers to the north of their earlier lines. Fearing a further Japanese advance, Kuropatkin embarked on a 10-day march northward to a new line of defense near Hsipingkai [*Shiheigai*]. In the aftermath of the battle, Kuropatkin relinquished his command to Linievich, taking the latter's position as the commanding officer of the Russian First Army. The **casualties** on both sides were enormous. The Japanese had about 16,000 dead and 54,000–60,000 wounded (according to different sources), whereas the Russians had over 20,000 dead or missing in action, about 50,000 wounded, and more than 20,000 made **prisoners of war** in the Japanese enveloping movement. Following the battle, both forces were spent and needed much time to reorganize and make up the casualties. The Japanese forces in particular lacked additional resources of manpower, and the government began more earnestly to seek an end to the conflict through negotiation.

MURATA TYPE 22 RIFLE. Obsolete Japanese rifle used by reserve units of the **Imperial Japanese Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. The 11-millimeter Murata was a single-shot, bolt-action rifle designed by Murata Tsuneyoshi (1838–1921) and was adopted by the army in 1880 as the Type 13 (13th year of the Meiji era, or 1880). In the following decade it was modified twice: Type 18 was introduced in 1885 and Type 22 in 1889. Nevertheless, it was subject to many technical flaws, and following the combat experience of the **First Sino–Japanese War**, it was determined that it did not suit the modern battlefield. In 1897 the army began to replace it with the **Arisaka Type 30 rifle**, but due to insufficient production, during the latter stages of the Russo–Japanese War, and especially during the **battle of Mukden**, **infantry** troops of reserve brigades (*kôbi*) were equipped with the Murata Type 22.

Technical data: Caliber: 11 [0.433in.]; Magazine capacity: 4 rounds; Sighting range (iron sights): 1,200m.

MUTSUHITO, EMPEROR. *See* MEIJI, EMPEROR.

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NAGANT M-95 REVOLVER. Main **revolver** used by Russian officers and rank and file during the Russo–Japanese War. This Belgian revolver manufactured in **Russia** replaced the Smith and Wesson revolver of 11.18-millimeter [.44-inch] caliber used in the **Imperial Russian Army** since the 1870s. The Russian authorities purchased its manufacturing rights from Leon Nagant and began to produce it at the rate of 20,000 weapons per year at the Tula arsenal in 1898. This reliable seven-shot 7.62-millimeter [.30-inch] revolver had two versions. The double-action version was used by officers and the more economical single-action version by rank and file. It remained the standard sidearm of the Imperial Russian Army until its demise, and it was used by the Soviet army until the adoption of the Tokarev TT-30 pistol subsequent to the 1929 Soviet pistol trials.

Technical data: Caliber: 7.62 [0.30in.]; Weight: 0.74kg [1.64lbs]; Length: 23cm [9in.]; Magazine capacity: 7 rounds.

NAKAMURA, SATORU (1855–1925). Japanese army officer who served as commanding officer of a brigade during the Russo–Japanese War and distinguished himself during the **siege of Port Arthur**. He was born in the Hikone domain (now part of Shiga Prefecture) and took part in the suppression of the Satsuma Rebellion of 1877 and in the **First Sino–Japanese War**. During the Russo–Japanese War, Nakamura, by now major general, commanded the 2nd Infantry Brigade as part of the **Third Army** and took part in the siege of Port Arthur. On 26 November 1904 he led the major offensive against the third line of the fortress in which about 4,500 men were lost with no significant results. Nakamura was severely wounded; in recognition of his sacrifice, he was promoted to lieutenant general a few months later. In 1907 he became a baron and eight years later was promoted to general. In 1917 he was transferred to the reserve.

NAMBU TYPE 35 RIFLE [*SANJÛGO NENSHIKI SUIHEIJÛ*]. Japanese main rifle used by the **Imperial Japanese Navy** during the Russo–Japanese War. Like the army, the Japanese navy was not satisfied with the **Arisaka Type 30 rifle** and looked for a more modern one. It commissioned the Tokyo Arsenal to improve the 6.5-millimeter Type

30, and Captain Nambu Kijirô, an arms designer at the arsenal, was assigned the job. In 1902 the navy adopted the resulting modified rifle, which was designated Type 35 (35th year of the Meiji era, or 1902). It differed from the Type 30 by having the hook safety replaced by a large knob cocking piece to protect the user from gases in case of a blown primer, larger bolt handle knob, improved bolt head, gas port in bolt body and shield on bolt, improved chamber configuration for better cartridge feeding, addition of a sliding breech cover, and improved tangent-type rear sight. Type 35 was standard only from 1902 to 1905, when it was replaced by the **Arisaka Type 38 rifle**.

NANIWA*.** Japanese protected **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was one of two ships of the *Naniwa* class. As an improved *Esmeralda* (Izumi***) design by Sir William White, she became the first protected cruiser built for the **Imperial Japanese Navy**, designated for commerce raiding. She was commanded during the **First Sino–Japanese War** by then Captain **Tôgô Heihachirô** and took a major part in the first battle of the Yalu of 1894. At the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, *Naniwa* served in the 4th Battle Division of the **Second Fleet** and took part in the **battle of Tsushima**. After the Russo–Japanese War she was relegated to minor duties in 1907 and was wrecked in the Kuril Islands in 1912.

Technical data: Builder: Armstrong, Walker, Great Britain, 1884–1885; Displ.: 4,150t; LBD: 91.40×14.00×6.10m [279×43×18.5ft]; Machinery: 3-shaft reciprocating, 6 boilers, 7,604ihp; Speed: 18kt; Fuel: 800t coal; Range: 8,000nm on 10kt; Armament: 8×152mm/40 [6in.], 6×47mm QF, 4×356mm [14in.] TT; Armor: Steel, gun shields: 37mm [1.5in.], CT: 76mm [3in.], deck: 51–76mm [2–3in.]; Comp.: 325.

NANSHAN [*NANZAN*]. Hill in the northern part of the **Kwantung peninsula** and the site of the **battle of Nanshan** during the early stages of the Russo–Japanese War. It is situated in the narrow area dividing the southern half of the **Liaotung peninsula** from the northern part of the Kwantung peninsula. This transit point of strategic importance is an isthmus less than four kilometers [2.5 miles] across at high tide and eight kilometers [5 miles] at low tide. It is located about 20 kilometers [12 miles] north of **Dalny** and about 55 kilometers [35 miles] northeast

of **Port Arthur**. The **Imperial Russian Army** began to fortify the hill of Nanshan during the **Boxer Uprising** and reinforced the fortifications at high cost during 1903. In May 1904 the site was relatively well protected by dugout trenches, **machine guns**, barbed wire, minefields, telephone links, observation **balloons**, and searchlights.

NANSHAN, BATTLE OF [*NANZAN NO TATAKAI*] (1904). Early major land engagement between Russian and Japanese forces during the Russo–Japanese War. It was fought on 26 May 1904 around the hill of **Nanshan** and the narrow isthmus around it, and in the aftermath of the battle the Russian forces on **Kwantung peninsula** in general and at the naval base of **Port Arthur** in particular were cut off from the rest of the **Manchurian Army** in the north. The main protagonist in this battle was the Japanese **Second Army** under the command of General **Oku Yasukata** fighting inferior Russian forces under Major General **Aleksandr Fok**.

The context of the battle was the aftermath of Japanese success in taking over **Korea**, as the high command turned its attention to Port Arthur and instructed Oku, who had just landed with his Second Army in **Pitzuwo**, to conquer **Dalny**. En route, however, he had to cross Nanshan. Awaiting him at this point was the Russian defense line consisting of the 4th East Siberian Rifle Division under the command of Fok. Both sides were aware of the strategic importance of the place. The Japanese deployed 38,500 troops, 30,000 of them riflemen, 216 guns, and 48 **machine guns**, supported by 14 guns on board four **gunvessels** at Chinchou Bay. On the Russian side, however, Lieutenant General **Anatolii Stoessel** authorized the deployment of only 3,500 troops of the 5th East Siberian reinforced Rifle Regiment under the command of Colonel Nikolai Tretyakov, despite the nearby presence of a whole division with about 18,000 troops and 131 guns. The force under Tretyakov had 65 guns and 10 machine guns, supported by 50 light guns and a single improvised gunvessel, *Bobr*, in Hand Bay to the east, as well as about 5,000 Chinese coolies who earlier had helped dig an intricate net of defense.

Oku commenced his attack on 25 May 1904 with a shelling and an attack on the fortified town of **Chinchou**. The **4th Division** under the command of Lieutenant General **Ogawa Mataji** encountered some difficulties conquering the town, which was defended by a Russian

garrison of only 400 men. Due to weather conditions the occupation was postponed to the following day, and with the assistance of two battalions of the **1st Division** the Japanese force broke down the Russian defense in the morning. On 26 May 1904, Oku commenced shelling prior to an infantry attack on Nanshan. He made use of all three of his divisions (which included the **3rd Division**) with the support of **artillery** fire from sea and land, but he refrained from a frontal attack with all his forces. By the evening, the Japanese troops had charged the hill nine times, but despite the inferior force at his disposal, Tretyakov successfully held them off. The Russian position presented no flanks, and except for the enfilade fire of the Japanese and Russian gunvessels, the battle was local at every point. Furthermore, at this stage both sides had exhausted much of their artillery ammunition.

Determined to take the passage, Oku kept attacking until at last the 4th Division forced its way, with much human sacrifice, into the Russian positions through the shallow water of Chinchou Bay. It was able to provide support fire to the center assault. Notwithstanding the resolute stand of the defenders during the day, in the evening the Russian defense collapsed entirely. Tretyakov ordered his troops to fall back to the second defense line, prepared in advance. He then learned not only that Fok had ordered the abandonment of the railway station at Tafangshen, but that he also did not commit the three regiments stationed to his south as reserve forces. Fok's order to retreat caused chaos and panic. The Russian troops began to flee to the south, but the exhausted Japanese did not pursue them. While Tretyakov lost 450 men during the day, he lost an additional 650 in the retreat, bringing his total **casualties** to 1,100 in the whole engagement. Russian losses altogether were 1,416 killed or wounded; Japanese casualties were much greater, numbering 739 dead and 5,459 wounded. During the short battle, Oku's army fired over 34,000 shells, a quantity exceeding that used during the entire **First Sino–Japanese War**. News of the fall of Nanshan reached Dalny later that night, and during the next day a group of 600 Russian civilians was evacuated to Port Arthur. The Japanese awaited the arrival of two ammunition columns and a supply column before entering Dalny on 30 May.

NANZAN. *See* NANSHAN.

NANZAN NO TATAKAI. *See* NANSHAN, BATTLE OF.

NASHIWA, TOKIOKI [MASAYUKI] (1850–1928). Japanese naval officer who served as commanding officer of a battle division during the Russo–Japanese War. Nashiwa was born in Yamaguchi (today in Yamaguchi Prefecture) and joined the navy after a short career as an official of the railway bureau. During the 1880s he served as deputy commander of several warships and was promoted to lieutenant commander in 1888. His first command was on the **gunvessel** *Akagi*, aboard which he took part in the **First Sino–Japanese War**. In 1896 Nashiwa was promoted to captain and subsequently served as commanding officer of several **cruisers** as well as the **battleship *Hatsuse***. In summer 1903 he was promoted to rear admiral and in December that year he received command of the 1st Battle Division of the **First Fleet**. He led this foremost naval unit throughout all early major naval engagements of the war, including the **battle of the Yellow Sea**, and in January 1905 he was appointed commander of the newly captured naval base at **Port Arthur**. After the war Nashiwa was promoted to vice admiral and was made a baron in 1907. Nashiwa was transferred to the reserves during the same year and in 1911 became a member of the House of Peers.

NAVAL ATTACK ON PORT ARTHUR. *See* PORT ARTHUR, NAVAL ATTACK ON.

NAVAL BLOCKADE OF PORT ARTHUR. *See* PORT ARTHUR, NAVAL BLOCKADE OF.

NAVAL OBSERVERS. *See* MILITARY OBSERVERS.

***NAVARIN*.** Russian turret ship that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was the only ship of the *Navarin* class and was well protected considering when she was built. At the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, *Navarin* served in the **Baltic Fleet** and was attached to the **Second Pacific Squadron**, with which she made the shortened course of the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet** via the **Suez Canal** under the command of Rear Admiral **Dmitrii von Felkerzam**. She took part in the **battle of Tsushima** and survived shell damage

and a **torpedo** hit but was eventually sunk by the explosion of one or two of the 24 **mines** laid across her bows.

Technical data: Builder: Galernii Island, St. Petersburg, Russia, 1889–1896; Displ.: 10,206t; LBD: 109.00×20.42×8.38m [357×67×27.5ft]; Machinery: 12 cylinder boilers, 2-shaft VTE, 9,140ihp; Speed: 15.5kt; Fuel: 400/700t coal; Armament: 4×305mm/35 [12in.] (2×2), 8×152mm/35 [6in.], 8×3pdr, 15×1pdr, 6×381mm [15in.] TT; Armor: compound, belt: 203–406mm [8–16in.], CT: 254mm [10in.] nickel steel, turrets: 305mm [12in.] nickel steel, battery: 127mm [5in.]; Comp.: 622.

NAVY, BRITISH. *See* ROYAL NAVY, BRITISH.

NAVY, IMPERIAL JAPANESE. Compared with its rival, the Imperial Japanese Navy had a short history, which was both advantageous and disadvantageous. Nonetheless, on the eve of the Russo–Japanese War it was the sixth largest navy in the world, confident due to its recent combat experience. Despite being an island nation, **Japan** did not have a developed naval tradition and the link with the Asian mainland was not only tenuous but mostly dependent on foreign shipping. From a military perspective as well, Japan had a limited naval tradition, and for most of the pre-modern era (1600–1868) the shogunate forbade sailing outside the coastal waters of Japan. Consequently Japan did not possess a naval force for more than two centuries. The forced opening of Japan in 1854 and ensuing fears of conquest by the West led the shogunate to try to amend its military inferiority, including some naval capacity. The Japanese considered the navy as the spearhead of Western imperialism, and within a few years the shogunate inaugurated a center for naval training in Nagasaki, sent samurai to train in Holland, began to purchase warships abroad, and in 1865 inaugurated a shipyard in Yokosuka. In the same period a number of feudal domains began to establish fleets of their own, notably Satsuma, whose men played a central role in the Meiji Restoration and virtually controlled the Imperial Japanese Navy until 1945.

The Meiji oligarchy saw a strong navy as a basis for maintaining the sovereignty of Japan, and in 1872 the Ministry of the Navy was established, separate from the Ministry of the Army. During the

1870s, however, the navy took second place in the national perception of defense. It depended on a number of warships inherited from the previous regime as well as a mixed bag of vessels acquired from various Western countries. The role of the navy during that decade was mainly defense and its level was low. Nevertheless, the navy had some future prospects, since in 1870 its leaders decided to emulate the British **Royal Navy**. Young officers were sent to study in **Great Britain**, British officers were invited to teach in Japan, and the procedures, exercises, and traditions of the Royal Navy were copied in full. During the 1880s the navy got rid of the old vessels and began to purchase British-built warships with unique specifications. In 1882 an eight-year expansion program was announced, based on 22 **torpedo boats** and a number of large **cruisers**, all foreign made. During this period the navy benefited from the leadership of the gifted navy minister Saigô Tsugumichi, as well as a rising naval officer, **Yamamoto Gonnohyôe**, who became the most important naval figure of the Meiji era.

During the 1880s the navy began to test various tactics and to practice attack maneuvers. Operational progress worked a psychological effect as well, which was manifested in the rising self-confidence among navy personnel. Additional support was obtained from military and political thinkers outside Japan, such as **Alfred Mahan**, who claimed in his writings that a strong naval force was the key to national greatness, and this provided the Imperial Japanese Navy with an ideological basis for its ambitions. In the **First Sino–Japanese War**, the navy had a golden opportunity to boost its new sense of confidence, enjoying the seminal experience of significant operational activities. This war, a decade before the Russo–Japanese War, served as a decisive testing ground for the navy, which passed it well. Before the war only a few noticed that the Chinese navy had outdated warships and that it was divided among four fleets under separate commands. Ultimately, the First Sino–Japanese War served as a model for the future activities of the Imperial Japanese Navy, particularly the pattern of sudden surprise attack before the declaration of the outbreak of hostilities.

Strategically as well, the navy proved its central importance in any future war to be fought in Asia, and in 1903, after a long struggle, it won autonomous command even in wartime. Shortly after, the Japan-

ese capitulation to the Three-Power Intervention stimulated the leaders of the navy to present a 10-year program for its expansion. It was intended to make it possible for the navy to confront, in the vicinity of Japan, a large foreign navy, such as the Russian **Pacific Fleet,** or even the Royal Navy, together with a navy of secondary size such as the French or German navy. The program required the construction of eight armed cruisers, 23 **destroyers**, 63 torpedo boats, and most important of all, four **battleships**, in addition to the two already being built in Great Britain at that time. The navy chose to purchase the biggest battleships available since their draft would not allow them to pass through the **Suez Canal**. This calculation meant that in the future, European opponents would face the same restrictions when transferring their own battleships of a similar size through the canal. The alternative route, around the African continent, was long and highly complex logistically, as the Russian fleet was to discover during the Russo–Japanese War.

In addition to its six battleships, the Imperial Japanese Navy was allocated eventually only six cruisers, thus acquiring the name "Six-Six Navy." Still, it was an unprecedented expansion program for the young navy, and it had enormous implications for the future. The confirmation of the program in 1896 demonstrated not only the growing importance of the navy, but also the determination to confront the Imperial Russian Navy on equal terms nine years later. In the years before the Russo–Japanese War, the new warships were steadily commissioned and the officers practiced tactical maneuvers aimed against the evident rival, the Pacific Fleet. The conclusion of the **Anglo–Japanese Treaty** in 1902 freed the Imperial Japanese Navy from the nightmare of having to confront more than one Western navy. Thereafter it focused on the Russian opponent but also relished the prestige of cooperation with the leading navy in the world. On the completion of the program in 1904, Japan emerged as a large and modern naval power. The ability to finance such an expensive plan reflected the success of Japanese modernization, as well as Japan's readiness to invest a substantial amount of its national budget in military objectives.

On the eve of the war, the Imperial Japanese Navy felt ready to face its ultimate test. It had been trained in the best of the British naval tradition, it was well equipped with the best warships of that

period, organized into uniform units, and well coordinated. It had held a series of rigorous exercises, battle drills, and war games with scientific and precise planning. The navy had six modern battleships armed with 305mm [12in.] guns, eight armored cruisers (two of them were hastily bought in Italy and were on their way to Japan), and more than 20 light cruisers, 20 destroyers, and 90 torpedo boats. A few months earlier, the navy had been reorganized as a fighting unit called the **Combined Fleet**, comprising the primary **First Fleet** and the secondary **Second Fleet**. The First Fleet consisted of all six battleships and four protected cruisers, the second fleet of the six armored cruisers and the remaining cruisers. In addition, the **Third Fleet** was created as a reinforcement unit, containing all the remaining warships, mainly the old or small sailing vessels. Admiral **Tôgô Heihachirô** was selected commander-in-chief of the Combined Fleet. He was a veteran and experienced, and was believed to be a cool-headed naval officer with good intuitions and luck.

NAVY, IMPERIAL RUSSIAN. The Imperial Russian Navy could pride itself on a much longer history than that of its rival. On the eve of the Russo–Japanese War, it was the third largest navy in the world, boasting a long legacy and a strong presence in three seas. Its birth is attributed to Tsar Peter the Great (reigned 1682–1725) and to the period in which **Russia** not only spread out to the west and south of Europe but also underwent an initial stage of modernization. Until then Russia had no need to build ships to sail in the open sea, but the military threat from Sweden led Peter to found a fleet in the Baltic Sea besides the fleet in the Black Sea, which earlier, in 1696, had successfully faced the Turkish navy. By the time of his death, Peter had managed to create a large fleet, but it depended on foreign seamen. In the three centuries that followed, it went through cycles of advancement and decline. During the 18th century, the navy sent out a number of research expeditions, mostly under foreign command, to survey the northern and eastern coasts of the empire and to assist in extending its borders.

Under Catherine the Great in the late 18th century, the navy expanded again, and a few decades later, during the Napoleonic wars, it cooperated for a while with the British **Royal Navy**. The temporary alliance with Great Britain continued to bear fruit even in the battle

of Navarino in 1825, when the Imperial Russian Navy confronted the Turkish navy for the sake of defending Greek independence. Toward the middle of the 19th century, the navy entered into another cycle of decline that widened the gap with other European navies. The Russian naval defeats during the Crimean War, in both the Black Sea and the Baltic Sea, were a direct result of the earlier neglect. In the following years, the navy was exceptionally sluggish in adopting new technologies such as motor propulsion and the use of metal in shipbuilding. At the end of the 19th century, however, the navy underwent reorganization with the encouragement of Tsar Alexander III and his son **Nicholas II**. In 1882 Russia put forward a 20-year expansion program for the systematic reorganization of its navy.

In fact, however, the Imperial Russian Navy entered the naval arms race only in 1892, when it began constructing its three true **predreadnought battleships**, the ***Petropavlovsk***, the ***Poltava***, and the ***Sevastopol***. This class was at the level of the leading battleships of other European navies. In 1898 another program was unveiled, which included the construction of eight battleships and 17 **cruisers**. These vessels constituted the main naval force of Russia during the Russo–Japanese War. At the beginning of the 20th century, the Imperial Russian Navy could take pride in numerous newly built warships, mostly of original design, which made it one of the greatest navies in the world. It comprised three fleets—the **Baltic Fleet**, the **Pacific Fleet**, and the **Black Sea Fleet**—and had 20 modern battleships and more than 100 cruisers and **destroyers**. At the same time it adhered to the long tradition of the defensive doctrine as well as its self-perception as fulfilling a minor role compared with the **Imperial Russian Army**. This was probably the notion held by Tsar Nicholas II himself.

Above all, the Imperial Russian Navy suffered from the dispersal of its units in the Baltic Sea, the Black Sea, and the northwest corner of the Pacific Ocean. The enormous distances between the three fleets that made up this large navy made each of them into an isolated and independent unit, so that in sum they were far weaker than the assumed total strength of the navy. In addition, the naval officers lacked, by and large, some combat experience. Notwithstanding these shortcomings, the outcome of the Russo–Japanese War proved far worse than any naval expert would expect. The Imperial Russian Navy lost 14 battleships, three coastal defense battleships, five armored cruisers,

six protected cruisers, two old sloops, five **gunvessels**, two **torpedo** gunvessels, two **minelayers**, 21 destroyers, and three **torpedo boats**. These losses left it with virtually only one fleet. Apart from the intact Black Sea Fleet, it remained with only two battleships and two armored cruisers of any fighting value. The blow was so heavy that the navy entered an extended period of relative paralysis, and even decline, from which it emerged only in the 1960s and 1970s as the navy of the Soviet Union.

NEBOGATOV, NIKOLAI IVANOVICH (1849–1922). Russian naval officer who served as the commanding officer of the **Third Pacific Squadron** during the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet** and as the commanding officer of its 3rd Division during the **battle of Tsushima**. Nebogatov was born into the family of an officer in the vicinity of **St. Petersburg** and became a naval cadet at the age of 16. His career with the **Baltic Fleet** was slow and he received his first command, of the **gunvessel** *Grad*, only in 1889. In 1894 he was promoted to captain and in 1901 to rear admiral. At outbreak of the war, Nebogatov commanded the artillery practice unit of the **Black Sea Fleet**. In December, however, he was appointed commanding officer of a detachment of several vessels rejected and left behind by the **Second Pacific Squadron** under Vice Admiral **Zinovii Rozhestvenskii**. Nebogatov began his voyage on 15 February 1905 and passed through the **Suez Canal**. Due to the early departure of Rozhestvenskii's fleet from Madagascar, Nebogatov then sailed directly to Cam Ranh Bay in French Indochina (today Vietnam), where he eventually joined the rest of the fleet. Rozhestvenskii, who had opposed the departure of Nebogatov, did not share with him his plans even at this late stage or that he had become the second in command due to the death of Rear Admiral **Dmitrii von Felkerzam** on 24 May 1905.

On the first day of the battle of Tsushima, the force under Nebogatov emerged virtually unharmed; following repeated **torpedo** attacks during the ensuing night, the remaining Russian ships assembled around his flagship. On the morning of 28 May 1905, at the sight of the Japanese main force, which appeared on the horizon, he decided to surrender, despite being in a condition to fight and against the opinion of his officers. Upon capitulation, Nebogatov told his officers that he was old and cared nothing for himself. He keenly felt, however, for all the

others who were so young. He urged them to persevere and work hard to restore the navy and work for their country, and he informed them that he would assume full responsibility for the surrender.

Following his return to **Russia** after being held in a **prisoner camp** in **Japan**, Nebogatov faced a court-martial in **Kronstadt** in December 1906. Together with 77 other officers of his squadron, he was charged with having improperly surrendered his force. His defense was that defective ships, guns, and ammunition made effective resistance impossible: "I would not have hesitated to sacrifice the lives of fifty thousand men if it might have served some purpose . . . but what right did I have to sacrifice their lives to no purpose?" The court held that his conduct rather than the condition of his ships was the issue, and he was sentenced to death, together with three of his captains. In recognition of extenuating circumstances, however, the court petitioned Tsar **Nicholas II** for leniency, and the latter commuted the death sentences to 10 years' confinement. Nebogatov was released in May 1909 and disappeared into obscurity.

NEMIROVICH-DANCHENKO, VASILII IVANOVICH (1848–1936). Russian writer and **war correspondent** who wrote about his experiences covering the Russo–Japanese War. He graduated from the Aleksandrovskii Military College and took part in the in Russo–Turkish War of 1877–1878 as a correspondent for the newspaper *Novoe Vremia*. During the early stages of the Russo–Japanese War, he was dispatched to **Port Arthur** as a correspondent for the newspaper *Russkoe Slovo*. He arrived with a delivery of ammunition just before the fortress came under siege. He published a number of essays under the title "Blind War" after the war.

NEUTRALITY. The status or policy of a nation not to participate directly or indirectly in a war between other nations. Upon the declaration of war on 10 February 1904, the Japanese government sent a dispatch to various governments announcing its resolution. Sweden and Norway had already declared their neutrality the day before. In the following 12 days, **Japan** received declarations of neutrality from 18 nations: **Great Britain**, the **United States**, Italy, and Spain on 11 February; **France**, the Netherlands, Denmark, **China**, and Siam [Thailand] on 12 February; **Germany**, Brazil, and Mexico on 13 Feb-

ruary; **Austro–Hungary** on 17 February; Argentina on 19 February; Portugal on 21 February. Belgium and Switzerland informed Japan that they would maintain their permanent neutrality on 15 and 16 February respectively. Neutral nations were expected to strictly observe their obligations and not to assist either of the two belligerents. During the war the issue of neutrality came into question particularly in regard to war contraband and the internment of warships. Russian warships on several occasions sought shelter in neutral ports, such as Manila, Shanghai, and Saigon. The nations in charge of the ports were supposed to intern the ship and her crew until the end of hostilities, and due to Japanese tight control they indeed fulfilled this obligation. War contraband was more difficult to control, and Japanese authorities did not hesitate to confiscate transport from neutral nations if they were caught smuggling supplies to the Russians.

NEWCHWANG. *See* NIUCHUANG.

NICHOLAS II, TSAR [ROMANOV, NIKOLAI ALEKSANDROVICH] (1868–1918). Emperor of **Russia** and a major figure in Russian politics and military during the Russo–Japanese War. He was son of Alexander III and the Danish-born Marie Fedorovna, a sister of Queen Alexandra of England, and he reigned from 1894 to 1917. As a crown prince, Tsarevich Nicholas undertook a world tour including a visit to **Japan**. After narrowly surviving an assassination attempt in the **Otsu Incident** of 1891, he inaugurated the terminus of the **Trans-Siberian Railway** in **Vladivostok**. His interest in East Asian affairs continued into his reign. His experience in Japan and his role in the development of the Trans-Siberian Railway were closely linked to his adherence to the imperial idea that Russia bore the "historic mission" of spreading Western culture in the Orient. The death of his father at the age of 49 caught the 26-year-old Nicholas totally unprepared for the role of emperor. Soon after his accession he married Alexandra of Hesse (granddaughter of Queen Victoria), who became a fervent believer in the religious and autocratic traditions of tsardom.

In contrast to **Emperor Meiji**, Nicholas II was an absolute ruler. He alone appointed the members of the ministerial council, each of whom he held independently and personally responsible. Like his predecessors, he initially did not appoint a prime minister and rarely consulted

his ministers. His governmental style had an adverse effect on foreign affairs, splitting decision-making and actual government among several committees, ministries, and trusted aides. Historians tend to characterize Nicholas II as weak and irresolute, yet much of the historical judgment of him was based on his actions and decisions during the onset of World War I and the Bolshevik Revolution. But in the decade he ruled Russia prior to the Russo–Japanese War, his performance was much more energetic and resolute than in his later years.

Nicholas II was one of the main causes of his nation's slipping into the Russo–Japanese War. He pressed aggressively for an expansionist policy in **Manchuria** and **Korea** and specifically endorsed the scheme for timber concessions while delaying negotiations with the Japanese. Confident of his army, he was immovable throughout the war in his insistence on continuing until the final victory. Nicholas's resolution was intended to preserve the honor and dignity of Russia, but it also originated in his unshakable image of the Japanese as weak and inferior. On 10 October 1904, for example, he sent a telegram to German Emperor **William II**: "You may be sure that Russia shall fight this war to the end, until the last Jap is driven out of Manchuria." Paradoxically, this persistence made him a tough negotiator at the **Portsmouth Peace Conference** and helped Russia lose fewer assets than anticipated. During the war, Nicholas's personal life was affected too, as his wife Alexandra gave birth to a son, Alexis, who thereafter carried the title tsarevich. Alexis inherited the genetically transmitted blood disease hemophilia and consequently became a source of ongoing anxiety for his parents.

The Russo–Japanese War can be regarded as a turning point in Nicholas's life. Due to internal pressures following the events of the **Revolution of 1905**, he summoned the **Duma** in 1906 but continued to distrust representative government. That year too he and Alexandra became unduly influenced by the charlatan monk Grigorii Rasputin, who initially attempted to cure Alexis. Although Russia seemed to recover under Prime Minister Petr Stolypin in the following years, Nicholas II lost some of the fervor and willpower he had had before the war. In the first stages of World War I, he won support for the war against **Germany**, but he unwisely assumed supreme command on the Russian front in September 1915, leaving the government to his wife and Rasputin. Mismanagement of the war and chaos in the govern-

ment led to his forced abdication at his headquarters in Pskov 18 months later. Thereafter, the imperial family was kept under guard at Tsarskoe Selo until August 1917, then at Tobolsk in Siberia, and from 30 April 1918 at Ekaterinburg in the Urals. The possibility of rescue by White counter-revolutionaries seems to have prompted the execution of Nicholas together with his wife, three daughters, and son, on the orders of the local Bolshevik commanding officer on 17 July 1918. The fall of the Soviet Union restored to the tragic figure of Nicholas II some of his lost fame, and he and his family were canonized by the Russian Orthodox Church in 2000.

NICHOLSON, WILLIAM GUSTAVUS (1845–1918). British army officer who served as a senior **military observer** during the Russo–Japanese War. He joined the Royal Engineers in 1865 and took part in the Afghan War of 1879–1880. Nicholson later became a member of Lord Roberts's clique, served as his aide from 1882 to 1890, and took part in his Egyptian Expedition of 1882 and the Burmese Expedition of 1886. Nicholson was promoted to colonel in 1891 and was appointed adjutant-general of **India** and military secretary to the commander-in-chief of India. In 1899 he was promoted to major general and two years later to lieutenant general, and simultaneously appointed director-general of mobilization and military intelligence. During the Russo–Japanese War, Nicholson served as chief of the British military mission with the Japanese forces in **Manchuria** from July to December 1904. Subsequently he was appointed quartermaster-general and third member on the Army Council in 1905. In 1908 he became chief of the imperial general staff and first member on the Army Council. He was promoted to field marshal prior to World War I and retired in 1915.

NIHONKAI KAISEN. *See* TSUSHIMA, BATTLE OF.

NIHYAKUSAN KÔCHI. *See* 203-METER HILL.

NIITAKA*.** Japanese protected **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was one of two ships of the ***Tsushima class and entered service on the eve of the war. This was the second cruiser class entirely of Japanese design; it differed from the earlier ***Suma*** class in having heavier, lower-sited armaments. The *Niitaka*

was lost to a typhoon off the shores of Kamchatka in 1922.

Technical data: Builder: Yokosuka Navy Yard, Japan, 1902–1904; Displ.: 3,366t; LBD: 102.00×13.44×4.92m [334×44×16ft]; Machinery: 2-shaft reciprocating compound, 9,500ihp; Speed: 20kt; Fuel: 250/600t coal; Armament: 6×152mm [6-inch] QF (6×1), 10×12pdr QF (10×1), 4×2.5pdr QF (4×1); Armor: deck: 62mm [2.5in.], CT: 102mm [4in.]; Comp.: 320.

NIJUROKU NENSHIKI KENJÛ. *See* TYPE 26 REVOLVER.

NIKOLAI II, TSAR. *See* NICHOLAS II, TSAR.

NISHI, KANJIRÔ (1846–1912). Japanese army officer who served as commanding officer of a division during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in the Satsuma domain (now Kagoshima Prefecture) and served with his clan forces in the Boshin War against the shogunal regime during the Meiji Restoration; then he joined the new government army. In 1871 Nishi was promoted to lieutenant, and six years later he took part in suppressing the Satsuma Rebellion. His first substantial command was during the **First Sino–Japanese War**, and in 1895 he was made a baron. After the war he was promoted to lieutenant general and in 1896 was appointed commander of the **2nd Division**. In the early stages of the Russo–Japanese War, he led his division as part of the **First Army** and participated in the **battle of the Yalu**, where he captured **Antung**, and the **battle of Liaoyang**. In June 1904 he was promoted to general and in September was appointed commander-in-chief of the evolving Liaotung garrison. He was made a viscount in 1907 and transferred to the reserves in 1911.

NISHI–ROSEN AGREEMENT (1898). Agreement between **Japan** and **Russia** concerning their respective interests in **Korea**. It was signed in **Tokyo** on 25 April 1898 by the Russian minister to Tokyo, **Roman Rosen**, and Japanese Foreign Minister Nishi Tokujirô. The agreement originated in the competition between the two nations over influence in the Korean peninsula, which escalated after the **First Sino–Japanese War** and the **Three-Power Intervention** that followed it. The agreement specified that both sides would refrain from political intervention in Korea and would seek each other's ap-

proval in providing military or financial advisors as requested by the Korean government. Russia also explicitly acknowledged Japan's special position in Korea, allowing it free commercial and industrial activity in the area in return for implicit Japanese acknowledgment of Russian influence in **Manchuria**.

NISSHIN*.** Japanese armored **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was one of the two ships of the newly built *Giuseppe Garibaldi* class (renamed ***Kasuga class), designed and built in Italy for the Argentine navy. She was originally named *Rivadavia* and was purchased by **Japan** to prevent purchase by the **Imperial Russian Navy** immediately prior to the war. *Nisshin* arrived in Japan together with her sister ship *Kasuga* on 16 February 1904, shortly after the outbreak of the war, and was attached to the 1st Battle Division of the **First Fleet** following the loss of the **battleships *Yashima*** and ***Hatsuse***. As part of this prime unit, she participated in all subsequent major naval operations of the war, including the **battle of Tsushima**, where she served as the flagship of Vice Admiral **Misu Sôtarô**, the commander of the division. *Nisshin* was partly disarmed in the 1920s, served thereafter as a training ship, and was used as a target in 1936.

Technical data: Builder: Ansaldo, Genoa, Italy, 1902–1904; Displ.: 8,364t; LBD: 111.73×18.71×7.40m [341×57×22.5ft]; Machinery: 2-shaft VTE, 8 boilers, 14,896ihp; Speed: 20kt; Fuel: 1,190t coal; Range 5,500nm on 10kt; Armament: 4×203mm/45, 14×152mm/45 [6in.], 10×47mm QF, 4×457mm [18in.] TT; Armor: Krupp steel, belt: 76–152 [3–6in.], barbettes: 102–152mm [4–6in.], turrets: 152mm [6in.], casemates: 152mm [6in.], CT: 152mm [6in.], deck: 25–37mm [1–1.5in.]; Comp.: 600.

NITOBE, INAZÔ (1862–1933). Japanese writer, educator, and civil servant who became an influential figure in shaping the image of **Japan** and its fighting spirit before and after the Russo–Japanese War. Nitobe studied agricultural economics at the Sapporo Agricultural College and English literature and economics at the Imperial Tokyo University. He then continued his studies in the **United States** and **Germany** for three years each, as a means to becoming "a bridge between Japan and the West." At the time of his return to Japan, Nitobe had earned a doctorate and already published two non-Japanese books (one in English and

one in German). Thereafter he became a professor at the new Sapporo College until he left again for the United States in 1897. Two years later he published his famous book *Bushido: The Soul of Japan*, in which he saw **bushido** as a means of halting the materialistic trend engulfing Japan. The book became a bestseller in the West during the Russo–Japanese War and was read by many influential figures, including U.S. President **Theodore Roosevelt**. After the war, Nitobe was appointed head of the First Higher School in **Tokyo**, and in 1913 he became a professor at the Imperial Tokyo University. In 1918 he attended the Versailles Peace Conference and remained there as the under-secretary-general of the League of Nations. Returning to Japan in 1926, he became chair of the Japan Council of the Institute of Pacific Relations.

NIUCHUANG [NEWCHWANG, NIUZHUANG; YINGKOU, *EIKÔ*]. Port city in the Chinese province of **Liaoning** in the south of **Manchuria** that was seized by Japanese forces during the Russo–Japanese War. It is located at the mouth of the Hun River [Hunhe] on the Gulf of Liaotung. It developed as a river port toward the mid-19th century, as under the Treaty of Tientsin [Tianjin] it replaced the settlements of Niuchuang and Tienchuangtai upstream. In 1864 it became the first port open to the West in northeastern **China**. Although originally called Yingkou, it was known in the West under the name of the original port upstream, Niuchuang. The city had a considerable foreign population, mostly Japanese, and in the late 19th century it grew to become a major port and principal outlet of goods from Manchuria. The Russian construction of railways in Manchuria diverted much of its trade and importance to the port of **Dalny**, but some trade was restored when Niuchuang was linked by a branch line to Dalny and **Mukden** and exported mass quantities of agricultural products, soybeans in particular. During the Russo–Japanese War, Niuchuang was seized by Japanese forces on 7 August 1904. The city was reoccupied by Japanese forces during 1931–1945 and remained an important secondary industrial city afterward. Yingkou (as it is known today) was designated an "open city" in 1985 to attract foreign investment; at present it has a population of 650,000 and a metropolitan population of about 2.4 million.

NOGI, MARESUKE (1843–1912). Japanese army officer, who served as commander of the **Third Army** during the Russo–Japanese War

and was the conqueror of **Port Arthur**. Nogi was born in Edo (now **Tokyo**) at the residence of a Chôshû clan samurai. He followed his father and fought against the shogunal forces in the Boshin War during the Meiji Restoration. He was commissioned into the new Imperial Army as a major, served in command of the 14th Infantry Regiment in Kokura, and took part in quelling the Hagi Rebellion of 1876. During the Satsuma Rebellion a year later, Nogi defended Kumamoto castle from Saigô Takamori's rebels but was disgraced as his unit lost its colors to the enemy. Following this seminal event in his career, Nogi offered to commit suicide but was forbidden to do so by a decision of **Emperor Meiji**. In the next decade he was promoted to major general and was sent to study in **Germany**. He returned to command a brigade during the **First Sino–Japanese War**. His greatest achievement in that war was the capture of the Chinese fortress at Port Arthur at the cost of only 16 of his soldiers. Nogi's troops were implicated in a massacre of Chinese soldiers and non-combatants in the town, but neither his name nor his career suffered in consequence. In 1895 he was assigned governor-general of the newly acquired island of Taiwan [Formosa] and was charged with quelling local resistance there. He was made a baron and went into virtual retirement three years before the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War.

Because of his experience, however, Nogi was called up to command the **Imperial Guards Division** of the **First Army** on 5 February 1904, but soon he was replaced by Lieutenant General **Hasegawa Yoshimichi**. For several more weeks, Nogi was at loose ends, but on 2 May he was appointed to command the Third Army and a month later promoted to general. With his reinforced army, which totaled more than 100,000 men, he again besieged Port Arthur in a long campaign of six months that cost 15,400 Japanese lives. In view of his repeated failure to break through the Russian defenses, especially in September and October 1904, there was strong pressure in the army staff to replace him. He prevailed and in January 1905 conquered the fortress and thereafter joined the main Japanese forces to take part at the **battle of Mukden**. During the war he lost his two sons. The elder, Katsunori [Shôten], was killed in **Nanshan**, the younger, Yasunori [Hoten], at 203-meter Hill, near Port Arthur. After the war, Nogi was made a count and president of the Peers School. His austere manner and personal loss won him public veneration equal only to that of Admiral **Tôgô Heihachirô**, and it grew

more after his sudden death. Following the death of Emperor Meiji in 1912, Nogi and his wife committed suicide (*junshi*), an act that made them a living symbol of **bushido** spirit and won him nationwide fame throughout the following decades.

NORTHEAST PROVINCES. *See* MANCHURIA.

NOVIK. Russian protected **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. The only ship of the newly built and very fast *Novik* class, she served in the **Pacific Fleet** at the outbreak of the war. After surviving the **battle of the Yellow Sea**, her commanding officer, Captain **Maximilian Schultz**, decided to join the **Vladivostok Independent Cruiser Squadron**, rather than returning to **Port Arthur** internment in a neutral port. To avoid the Japanese blockade at the **Tsushima Straits**, he took a long route around **Japan** but was spotted off Yakushima, south of the Van Diemen Straits, on 19 August 1904. As the *Novik* steamed north, two Japanese cruisers, the ***Chitose*** and the ***Tsushima***, joined the hunt. Next morning they passed through the La Perouse [*Sôya*] Straits and at 16:00 spotted the *Novik* at the Russian port of Korsakovsk in **Sakhalin**. When the *Novik* tried to escape, *Tsushima* opened fire and scored a hit. As half her boilers were damaged and her steering compartment flooded, the *Novik* was forced to return to Korsakovsk.

On her retreat she still returned fire, striking *Tsushima* with two hits on the waterline that flooded two compartments. Due to her list, *Tsushima* was forced to give up the chase and stop for emergency repairs. The Japanese cruisers watched the port all night, during which time Schultz concluded that it was impossible to save his ship, so he decided to scuttle her in shallow water. At dawn on 21 August, the *Chitose* entered the port and found the *Novik* beached on a sandbank with boats and launches busy removing her gear and crew. She shelled the scuttled ship until she was a total wreck. Soon after the war and following the Japanese **conquest of Sakhalin**, the *Novik* was salvaged by the **Imperial Japanese Navy**, recommissioned as the *Suzuya*, and served until 1913.

Technical data: Builder: Schichau, Germany, 1898–1901; Displ.: 3,080t; LBD: 109.86×12.20×5.00m [360.5×40×16.5ft]; Machinery: 12 Schultz-Thornycroft boilers, 3-shaft VTE, 17,000ihp; Speed: 25kt; Fuel: 500t coal; Armament: 6×120mm/45 [4.7in.],

6×3pdr, 5×381mm [15in.] TT; Armor: deck: 32–76mm [1.25–3in.]; Comp.: 337.

NOZU, MICHITSURA (1841–1907). Japanese army officer who served as commander of the **Fourth Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in the Satsuma domain (now Kagoshima Prefecture) and took part in the fighting against the shogunal forces in the Boshin War during the Meiji Restoration. Nozu was made a major in the new **Imperial Japanese Army**, was later promoted to colonel, and served as chief of staff of the 2nd Infantry Brigade during the Satsuma Rebellion of 1877. Following visits to Europe and the **United States** during the 1870s and 1880s, Nozu returned to serve as commanding officer of the **5th Division**. During the **First Sino–Japanese War**, he played an important part in the Japanese victory at **Pyongyang**. During the war he received command of the **First Army** when its commanding officer, Marshal **Yamagata Aritomo**, fell ill. Nozu was subsequently promoted to general in March 1895. During the Russo–Japanese War, he commanded the **landing operations** of the Fourth Army and its advance to link up with the other mainland forces. In the course of the war, he took part in the **battle of Liaoyang**, the **battle of Sha-ho**, and the **battle of Mukden**. His success during the war won him the title of field marshal in January 1906. He was made a marquis in 1907 and died that year.

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OBSERVERS. *See* MILITARY OBSERVERS.

OCTOBER MANIFESTO (1905). A proclamation by the tsarist government granting civil and political rights at the height of the **Revolution of 1905** soon after the end of the Russo–Japanese War. The manifesto was a reaction to a large-scale strike known as the "October all-Russian political strike," which began in the latter half of September 1905. The strike began in Moscow, spread to **St. Petersburg** and then to other major cities, and stopped all rail traffic. Unable to suppress the strike by force, Tsar **Nicholas II** and his government decided to concede somewhat by ostensibly relinquishing some of their

autocratic powers. Published on 30 October 1905, the manifesto proclaimed the granting of civil liberties as well as recognition of the **Duma**'s legislative powers. Despite the opposition of the Bolsheviks, by and large the strike ended within a week. In the following weeks, however, the government began an all-out offensive against the revolution, resulting in the slaughter of about 4,000 people.

OGAWA, MATAJI (1848–1909). Japanese army officer who served as commanding officer of a division during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in Kurume domain (now Fukuoka Prefecture) and became an officer in 1872; two years later he took part in the Taiwan expedition. His first substantial command was during the **First Sino–Japanese War**. Ogawa was made a baron in 1895 and promoted to lieutenant general in the inter-war period. During the Russo–Japanese War, he served as the commanding officer of the **4th Division** in General **Oku Yasukata**'s **Second Army**. In this role he took part in the **battle of Nanshan**, the **battle of Telissu**, and the **battle of Liaoyang**. Later in 1905 Ogawa was promoted to general, retired, and was made a viscount in 1907.

OGURA, BYOICHIRÔ (1853–1928). Japanese naval officer who served as commanding officer of a battle division during final stages of the Russo–Japanese War. Ogura was born in Edo (now **Tokyo**) and graduated from the fifth class of the Naval Academy in 1878. He was promoted to lieutenant commander in 1891 and served as deputy commander of a **cruiser** during the **First Sino–Japanese War**. Soon after that war, Ogura received his first command, the **gunvessel** *Chokai*, and was promoted to captain in 1897. In the following years he served as commanding officer of several cruisers as well as the **battleship *Asahi***. In 1903 he was appointed commander of the naval base in Yokosuka and in 1904 was promoted to rear admiral. After the **battle of Tsushima**, he was appointed commanding officer of the 1st Battle Division of the **First Fleet** until November 1905. Ogura was promoted to vice admiral in 1908 and a year later was transferred to the reserves.

OKU, YASUKATA (1846–1930). Japanese army officer who served as commander of the **Second Army** during the Russo–Japanese War.

Oku was born in Kokura (now in the Fukuoka Prefecture) and served as a samurai of his clan. After the Meiji Restoration, he joined the new **Imperial Japanese Army**. During the Satsuma Rebellion of 1877, he took part in suppressing the rebels, receiving special notice of distinction. In the following decade, Oku rose through the ranks to become a major general. He was sent for studies and observation in Europe and upon his return received command of the **5th Division**, with which he took part in the **First Sino–Japanese War**. Oku was promoted to general in November 1903. During the Russo–Japanese War, he commanded the Second Army.

Oku landed with his forces in **Pitzuwo** and subsequently cut off the **Kwantung peninsula** during the **battle of Nanshan**. He turned north and attacked Lieutenant General **Georgii Stakelberg**'s troops in the **battle of Telissu**. He proceeded north to another engagement against the Russians in the **battle of Tashihchiao** and led the advance of the major Japanese force toward **Liaoyang**. He fought the right flank of the Russian defenses in the **battle of Liaoyang** and also took part in the **battle of Sha-ho**. Then he left his troops for a time, only to return for the final **battle of Mukden**. After the war, Oku received the title of viscount and was appointed army chief of staff, then promoted to the rank of field marshal in 1911. He was placed on reserve in 1912.

ÔKUBO, HARUNO (1848–1915). Japanese army officer who served as commanding officer of a division during the Russo–Japanese War. Ôkubo was born in Shizuoka and took part in the Boshin War against the shogunal forces during the Meiji Restoration in 1868. He subsequently entered the military boarding school in Osaka; later he continued his studies in **France**. In 1902 Ôkubo was promoted to lieutenant general and appointed commanding officer of the **6th Division**. During the Russo–Japanese War, he led this division initially as part of the **Third Army**, in July 1904 as part of the **Second Army**, and in January 1905 as part of the **Fourth Army**. Ôkubo was made a baron in 1907 and promoted to general in 1910. He then commanded the Korean garrison for a year, after which he retired.

OLEG. Russian protected **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. One of four ships of the ***Bogatyr*** class, she served in the **Baltic**

Fleet at the outbreak of the war. She left Libau on 20 November 1904 in a small detachment, together with the ***Izumrud***, under the command of Captain Leonid Dobrotvoskii and later joined the rest of the **Second Pacific Squadron** in the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet**. During the **battle of Tsushima**, the *Oleg* served as the flagship of Rear Admiral **Oskar Enkvist** and Dobrotvoskii. Despite some fierce engagements with Japanese cruisers, she survived the first two days of the battle. During the night of 28 May 1905, Enkvist decided to withdraw his three surviving cruisers, including the legendary ***Aurora***, to the south, and together they reached Manila on 6 June 1905. The *Oleg* was interned by the American authorities the next day and was released after the war. She subsequently returned to service in the Baltic Fleet but ultimately was hit by a **torpedo** from a British **torpedo boat** and sank in 1919.

Technical data: Builder: New Admiralty, St. Petersburg, Russia, 1901–1904; Displ.: 6,645t; LBD: 134.00×16.60×6.29m [439.5×54.5×20.5ft]; Machinery: 16 Normand boilers, 2-shaft VTE, 23,000ihp; Speed: 23kt; Fuel: 720/1,100t coal; Armament: 12×152mm/45 [6in.] (2×2, 8×1), 12×11pdr, 8×3pdr, 2×1pdr, 2×381mm [15in.] TT sub; Armor: deck: 76mm [3in.], CT: 152mm [6in.], casemates: 76mm [3in.]; Comp.: 576–589.

OPEN-DOOR POLICY. American principle on the equal commercial opportunities that powerful countries have when trading with colonial or developing countries, with specific regard to **China**. **John Hay**, the American secretary of state, developed the idea of an "open door" in 1899. At that time several Western powers as well as **Japan** had special interests in China, and each of them was trying to obtain all the trading rights for itself. Hay requested assurances from **Great Britain**, **France**, **Russia**, **Germany**, Japan, and Italy that within their respective spheres of interest they would not interfere with any treaty port or vested interest, that no preferential harbor dues or railway charges would be given to their subjects, and that the Chinese government should collect the customs duties and only according to the Chinese tariffs. In other words, the policy enabled Western and Japanese merchants and investors to trade freely in China. The powers active there, such as Great Britain, France, Germany, Russia, and Japan, acknowledged this principle and mentioned it in various

treaties signed during the early stages of the 20th century. The Nine-Power Treaty of 1922 reaffirmed it but failed to set regulations for enforcing the principle. An open-door policy ran counter to Russia's goal of its own economic hegemony in **Manchuria** before the Russo–Japanese War and also to Japanese conduct after the war. Hence, competition for influence in China, **Manchuria** in particular, continued throughout the period, culminating in Japan's violation of Chinese territory in the 1930s.

OREL. Russian **battleship** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. One of five ships of the newly built but ill-fated ***Borodino*** class, she served in the **Baltic Fleet** at the outbreak of the war. She took part in the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet**, during which some of her crew mutinied at Cam Ranh Bay in French Indochina (today Vietnam). In the ensuing **battle of Tsushima**, the *Orel* escaped damage to her forward decks but nowhere else, and eventually she surrendered to the **Imperial Japanese Navy** on 28 May 1905. Later she was extensively refitted and entered service in the Imperial Japanese Navy as the *Iwami* in 1907. She took part in the attack on the German base in Tsingtao [Qingdao] in 1914, was disarmed in 1922, and was broken up in 1924.

Technical data: Builder: Galernii Island, St. Petersburg, Russia, 1899–1904; Displ.: 16,800t; LBD: 121.00×23.22×7.97m [397×76×26ft]; Machinery: 20 Belleville boilers, 2-shaft VTE, 16,300ihp; Speed: 17.8kt; Fuel: 2,450t coal; Armament: 4×305mm/40 [12in.] (2×2), 12×152mm/45 [6in.] (6×2), 20×11pdr, 20×3pdr, 4×381mm [15in.] TT (2AW 2sub); Armor: KC, belt: 152–191mm [6–7.5in.], belt ends: 102–146mm [4–5.75in.], turrets: 102–254mm [4–14in.], secondary turrets: 152mm [6in.], 11pdr battery: 76mm [3in.], CT: 203mm [8in.]; Comp.: 835–850.

ÔRYOKKÔ. *See* YALU RIVER.

ÔRYOKKÔ NO TATAKAI. *See* YALU, BATTLE OF THE.

ÔSAKO, NAOMICHI (1855–1934). Japanese army officer who served as chief of staff of the **Second Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. Ôsako was born in the Satsuma domain (now Kagoshima

Prefecture), the younger brother of **Ôsako Naotoshi**. In the **First Sino–Japanese War**, he served as a staff officer of the **First Army**. During the Russo–Japanese War, Ôsako, by then a major general, served as commanding officer of an **artillery** regiment of the **1st Division**. In September 1904 he was appointed chief of staff of the Second Army. In 1915 he was promoted to general and in 1919 was transferred to the reserves.

ÔSAKO, NAOTOSHI (1845–1927). Japanese army officer who served as commanding officer of a division during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in the Satsuma domain (now Kagoshima Prefecture) and during the **First Sino–Japanese War** served as commanding officer of a brigade. In 1895 he was made a baron and five years later was appointed commanding officer of the **7th Division**. During the Russo–Japanese War, he commanded this division as part of the **Third Army** and sustained great losses during the **siege of Port Arthur**. He was promoted to general in 1906 and was made a viscount a year later. After his retirement, he headed the Gakushûin Peers School from 1912 to 1917.

ÔSHIMA, HISANAO (1848–1928). Japanese army officer, who served as commanding officer of a division during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in Akita, northern Honshu, and fought against the shogunal forces in the Boshin War during the Meiji Restoration. Ôshima subsequently joined the new **Imperial Japanese Army** and was promoted to lieutenant. During the Satsuma Rebellion of 1877 he commanded a battalion, and during the First **Sino–Japanese War** he was in charge of a brigade. During the Russo–Japanese War a decade later he was commanding officer of the **9th Division** as part of the **Third Army** under General **Nogi Maresuke**. Throughout the **siege of Port Arthur** Ôshima proved his excellence as a field officer and played a critical role in capturing the **203-Meter Hill**. After the war he was promoted to general in 1906, and was appointed inspector-general of military training. He was subsequently appointed military councilor and retired in 1913.

ÔSHIMA, YOSHIMASA (1850–1926). Japanese army officer who served as commanding officer of a division during the Russo–Japanese

War. He was born in the Chôshû domain (now Yamaguchi Prefecture) and graduated from the Osaka Youth School. During the Satsuma Rebellion of 1877, Ôshima served as commanding officer of a battalion. During the **First Sino–Japanese War**, he led the 9th mixed brigade even before the actual start of hostilities, through the battle of **Pyongyang** and the campaign in **Manchuria**. His exploits won him great fame as a solid field officer, and consequently he was promoted to lieutenant general in 1898. During the Russo–Japanese War, he commanded the **3rd Division** of the **Second Army** under General **Oku Yasukata**. He took part in the **battle of Liaoyang**, the **battle of Sha-ho**, and the **battle of Mukden**. At the end of the war, Ôshima was promoted to general and was made the first governor-general of the newly leased **Kwantung territory**, where he laid the foundations for the future Guangdong [Kwantung] Army. He subsequently served for half a decade as military councilor before his retirement.

OSLIABIA*.** Russian **battleship** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was one of three ships of the relatively new ***Peresviet class, which was characterized by relatively poor armor and armament. The *Osliabia* served in the **Baltic Fleet** and was sent hastily, together with a detachment under the command of Rear Admiral A. Virenius, in November 1903 to reinforce the squadron in **Port Arthur**, but she was recalled after reaching the Red Sea. She eventually took part in the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet**. She crossed the **Tsushima Straits** while leading the secondary column of the Russian force and its 2nd Division and was sunk by gunfire during the early stages of the **battle of Tsushima**.

Technical data: Builder: New Admiralty, St. Petersburg, Russia, 1895–1901; Displ.: 12,683t; LBD: 132.43×21.79×7.92m [434.5×71.6×26ft]; Machinery: 32 Belleville boilers, 3-shaft VTE, 15,000ihp; Speed: 18.5kt; Fuel: 1,500/2,100t coal; Armament: 4×254mm/45 [10in.] (2×2), 11×152mm/45 [6in.], 20×11pdr, 8×1pdr, 5×381mm [15in.] TT (3AW 2sub); Armor: KC and Harvey, belt: 127–229mm [5–9in.], CT: 152mm [6in.], turrets: 127–229mm [5–9in.], casemates: 12mm; Comp.: 752.

***OTOWA*.** Japanese protected **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was the only ship of the *Otowa* class, which was a

smaller and faster version of the ***Tsushima*** class, and entered service in the middle of the war. The *Otowa* took part in the **battle of Tsushima** as part of the 3rd Battle Division of the **First Fleet**. She remained in active service after the war but was lost when she ran aground near the Shima peninsula in 1917.

Technical data: Builder: Yokosuka Navy Yard, Japan, 1903–1904; Displ.: 3,000t; LBD: 98.00×12.62×4.8m [321.5×41.5×16ft]; Machinery: 2-shaft reciprocating VTE, 10,000ihp; Speed: 21kt; Fuel: 250/575t coal; Armament: 2×152mm [6in.] QF (2×1), 6×120mm [4.7in.] QF (6×1), 4×12pdr QF (2×1); Armor: deck: 50–76mm [2–3in.], CT: 102mm [4in.], gun shield: 37mm [1.5in.]; Comp.: 312.

OTSU INCIDENT [*ÔTSU JIKEN*] (1891). An assassination attempt made on the life of Russian Crown Prince Nicholas Aleksandrovich (later Tsar **Nicholas II**) during his tour of **Japan**. In later years the incident was believed to have shaped Nicholas II's desire to take revenge on Japan, thereby affecting **Russia**'s disposition before the Russo–Japanese War. The Otsu Incident occurred at a time of increasing Russian involvement in northeast Asia. With their eyes on **Korea**, the Japanese regarded the impending construction of the **Trans-Siberian Railway** as a means for further Russian expansion in the region. They were also aware that the visiting crown prince was to inaugurate, soon after, the rail terminus in **Vladivostok**. Therefore the enthusiasm for his visit was mixed with deep suspicion. On 11 May 1891, while Nicholas was traveling in the town of Otsu, Shiga Prefecture, he was suddenly attacked and lightly wounded by an escorting policeman named **Tsuda Sanzô**. In the aftermath of the attack, Japanese government pressure was exerted on the court to sentence the assailant Tsuda to death for acts against emperors and crown princes. Withstanding the pressure, Judge Kojima Korekata sentenced Tsuda to life imprisonment for attempted homicide. The resignation of Home Minister Saigô Tsugumichi and Foreign Minister Aoki Shuzo concluded the incident to Russia's satisfaction. The verdict was further used as an argument in favor of abolishing the extraterritorial rights of Western nations in Japan dictated by the unequal treaties. Several historians have argued that this violent incident influenced Nicholas II's dealings with Japan, but there is no clear evidence of this.

OTTOMAN EMPIRE. *See* TURKEY.

ÔYAMA, IWAO (1842–1916). Japanese army officer and a leading statesman who served as commander-in-chief of the **Manchuria Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in the Satsuma domain (now Kagoshima Prefecture) and was closely related to the eminent Saigô family. Ôyama fought under Saigô Takamori against the shogunal forces in the Boshin War during the Meiji Restoration and then joined the new **Imperial Japanese Army**. In 1870 he traveled to study in Europe, mainly in **France**, where he observed the Franco–Prussian War. Upon his return to **Japan**, Ôyama led a unit of conscripts during the Satsuma Rebellion of 1877, fighting against Saigô's forces and playing an instrumental part in suppressing the rebellion. In the following years he served in a variety of senior positions, such as deputy chief of the general staff, army minister, and navy minister. These roles made him one of the leading military figures of the middle and late Meiji era, and he used his influence to further the modernization of the army. Ôyama was also appointed **genro** and thereby took part in the political decision-making before and during the war.

During the **First Sino–Japanese War**, Ôyama was in command of the **Second Army**, which laid siege to and conquered **Port Arthur**, and subsequently he received the rank of field marshal for his efforts. On the eve of the Russo–Japanese War, he was appointed commander-in-chief of the Japanese forces in **Manchuria** and was in charge of the execution of Japanese military plans on land. Ôyama directed personally the tactics and maneuvers of the Japanese land forces in all the major engagements in Manchuria. He won a costly victory in the **battle of Liaoyang**, repulsed the Russian forces in the **battle of Sha-ho**, and drove back another Russian counter-attack in the **battle of Sandepu**. In early 1905 he was replaced briefly by General **Kodama Gentarô** due to sickness, but he returned in time for the grand confrontation with the Russians in the **battle of Mukden**. His initial endeavor to turn the Russian right flank failed, but his steady pressure eventually forced General **Aleksei Kuropatkin** into another retreat, thus adding this battle to the long list of engagements that Ôyama won during the war. He retired after the war and was made a prince. In later years he held a position as senior officer of the Satsuma army faction but avoided further politics.

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PACIFIC FLEET. One of the three fleets of the **Imperial Russian Navy** at the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War and the epitome of the Russian naval presence in East Asia. **Russia** had maintained permanent naval forces in East Asia since the mid-19th century, when the maritime region was annexed. Russian activities in the area were led by N. N. Murav'ev, who selected Avacha Bay on the west coast of Kamchatka as the site of Russia's principal naval base, and there he built the town of Petropavlovsk. Following the annexation of the Ussuri region, Murav'ev looked for a new site for the main port in the Pacific Ocean and selected Peter the Great Bay, which became later the site of **Vladivostok**. When the Crimean War broke out, Russia's Pacific flotilla consisted of three frigates; in August 1854 they beat off a superior Anglo–French force that attempted to capture Petropavlovsk. Fourteen years after the establishment of Vladivostok in 1860, the Imperial Russian Navy inaugurated its naval base near the town.

In the mid-1890s the Russian government was determined to develop a strong Pacific Fleet, on a par with the **Baltic Fleet**, as a result of the construction of the **Trans-Siberian Railway**, the imminent disintegration of **China**, and the emergence of modern **Japan** as a naval power. The new naval policy regarding East Asia demanded changes in the deployment of warships to bigger and more heavily armed vessels, and indeed in 1896 the first five modern **pre-dreadnought battleships** were dispatched to East Asia. The growing fleet had an acute need for a base that was not obstructed by ice during winter, such as Vladivostok. For this reason Russia leased **Port Arthur** in 1898 and began to develop it as its main naval base in the region. In the few years prior to 1904, Russia completed the work at Port Arthur, began to develop a commercial port at Dalny, and deployed an impressive array of warships in the region.

At the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, the Pacific Fleet was under the command of Vice Admiral **Oskar Stark**. It consisted of a primary unit known as the **Port Arthur Squadron**, under the command of Stark, and the smaller **Vladivostok Squadron** (comprising mainly the **Vladivostok Independent Cruiser Squadron**) under the command of Captain Nikolai Reuzenstein (from 8 February 1904) and Rear Admiral **Karl Iessen** (from 15 March 1904), as well as a

small flotilla of **torpedo boats** at Nikolaevsk. Altogether, the fleet had seven battleships (***Petropavlovsk***, ***Poltava***, ***Sevastopol***, and ***Tsessarevich*** in the first sub-division under the command of Vice Admiral Stark, and ***Peresviet***, ***Pobieda***, and ***Retvizan*** in the second sub-division under the command of Rear Admiral **Pavel Ukhtomskii**) at Port Arthur, four armored **cruisers** (***Bayan*** at Port Arthur, and ***Rossia***, ***Rurik***, and ***Gromoboi*** at Vladivostok), seven protected cruisers (***Askold***, ***Diana***, ***Pallada***, ***Boyarin***, and ***Novik*** at Port Arthur, ***Bogatyr*** at Vladivostok, and ***Variag*** at **Chemulpo**), 25 **destroyers**, and 21 **torpedo boats**.

One month later, Vice Admiral **Stepan Makarov** assumed command of the fleet, but in a rare sortie on 13 April, he and nearly the entire crew of his flagship *Petropavlovsk* were lost when the ship was blown up by **mines**. Five days later, Tsar **Nicholas II** approved the navy's plan to dispatch the major warships of the Baltic Fleet to reinforce the Russian naval presence in East Asia. As such, the units of the Pacific Fleet in East Asia were renamed the **First Pacific Squadron**, whereas the designated reinforcement was named the **Second Pacific Squadron**. While waiting for Vice Admiral **Nikolai Skrydlov**, the new commander-in-chief of the fleet, to arrive, Makarov's successor as commander of the Port Arthur Squadron, Rear Admiral **Vilgelm Vitgeft**, determined that the naval force at his disposal would concentrate solely on the defense of the fortress. He undertook virtually no offensive operations. As the **siege of Port Arthur** grew tighter, the besieging Japanese **Third Army** began to bombard the harbor on 7 August 1904. Consequently Vitgeft was ordered to move the squadron to Vladivostok. During the ensuing **battle of the Yellow Sea** on 10 August, he was killed, and the return of the squadron to the besieged fort practically sealed the fate of the whole Pacific Fleet. Four days later, a Japanese cruiser intercepted the three cruisers of the **Vladivostok Independent Cruiser Squadron**. In the subsequent **battle of the Korea Straits**, they sank the *Rurik* and ended the combat activity of the Russians from Vladivostok.

Following their takeover of **203-Meter Hill**, the Japanese quickly moved 280-millimeter [11-inch] **howitzers** into place and systematically began the destruction of the First Pacific Squadron: *Poltava* was sunk on 5 December, *Retvizan* and *Peresviet* on 6 December, *Pobieda* and *Pallada* on 7 December, the cruiser *Bayan* and two smaller ships

on 8 December. At the time when Port Arthur fell into Japanese hands, the Second Pacific Squadron under the command of Vice Admiral **Zinovii Rozhestvenskii** was off Madagascar. At that stage, Rozhestvenskii was appointed the new commander-in-chief of the whole fleet, thereby replacing the helpless Skrydlov trapped in Vladivostok. Although his original plan to aid the First Pacific Squadron was now rendered meaningless, Rozhestvenskii continued to move east, intending to reform the Pacific Fleet at Vladivostok. Toward the end of this epic **voyage of the Baltic Fleet**, Rozhestvenskii's ships were joined by the old vessels of the **Third Pacific Squadron**, and on 14 May 1905 this huge armada sailed north, approaching its decisive encounter with the **Imperial Japanese Navy**.

In the aftermath of the **battle of Tsushima**, the Russian presence in the Pacific was almost eliminated. Of the 37 Russian ships that entered the **Tsushima Straits**, 33 were sunk, captured, or interned. For the next 30 years, Russia was, in effect, without a Pacific Fleet. In July 1905, Vice Admiral **Aleksei Birilev**, the new commander-in-chief of the fleet, was sent back to **St. Petersburg** and his coveted position remained vacant for the next three years. When World War I broke out, the Imperial Russian Navy had only four battleships, none of them in the Pacific Ocean. The once impressive Pacific Fleet consisted now of two protected cruisers, the ***Askold*** and the ***Zhemchug***, and a few destroyers and **submarines**. Soon the *Zhemchug* was sunk by the German cruiser *Emden*, and subsequently the *Askold* was transferred to the Mediterranean.

PACIFIC SQUADRON, FIRST. Name given to the **Pacific Fleet** on 17 April 1904, during the Russo–Japanese War, once the **Second Pacific Squadron** was formed.

PACIFIC SQUADRON, SECOND. Name given to the major squadron created of vessels of the **Baltic Fleet** during the Russo–Japanese War and which was sent under the command of Vice Admiral **Zinovii Rozhestvenskii** to reinforce the **First Pacific Squadron** at **Port Arthur**. The idea of creating the squadron arose in April 1904, but the squadron left for Asia only six months later. During the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet**, it sailed 33,000 kilometers [18,000 nautical miles] to its ultimate grave. On its way, the squadron

was reunited with the **Third Pacific Squadron** at Van Phong Bay in Indochina [present-day Vietnam], and at the end of its long voyage it was destroyed in the **battle of Tsushima**.

PACIFIC SQUADRON, THIRD. Name given to the minor squadron created out of the remaining old and slow vessels of the **Baltic Fleet**, following the departure of the **Second Pacific Squadron**, during the Russo–Japanese War. The dispatch of this squadron followed an intense campaign led by Captain **Nikolai Klado**. Despite the opposition of General Admiral **Aleksei Aleksandrovich** and Vice Admiral **Zinovii Rozhestvenskii**, it won public support, and ultimately, on 17 December 1904, the approval of Tsar **Nicholas II**. It comprised four old battleships that had been judged fit only for coastal defense: ***Imperator Nikolai I*** (flagship), ***General Admiral Graf Apraksin***, ***Admiral Seniavin***, and ***Admiral Ushakov***, as well as the **cruiser** ***Vladimir Monomakh*** and seven auxiliary vessels. The squadron was sent under the command of Rear Admiral **Nikolai Nebogatov** to reinforce the Second Pacific Squadron as it approached a decisive engagement against the **Imperial Japanese Navy**. It left Libau [Libava] on 15 February 1905, passed through the **Suez Canal**, and headed out to meet the rest of the fleet at Madagascar. At Crete, Nebogatov was informed about Rozhestvenskii's early departure, and he was instructed to continue directly to East Asia after passing through the Suez Canal. The Third Pacific Squadron ultimately caught up with the Second Pacific Squadron at Van Phong Bay in Indochina [present-day Vietnam] on 9 May 1905, and subsequently it took part in the **battle of Tsushima**, where it was destroyed.

PAKENHAM, WILLIAM (1861–1933). British naval officer who served as **naval observer** during the Russo–Japanese War. He entered the **Royal Navy** in his youth and served in various sea and staff assignments, during which he was eventually promoted to captain in 1904. In the early stages of the Russo–Japanese War, Pakenham was attached to the Japanese **First Fleet**. He became a close associate of Admiral **Tôgô Heihachirô**, but despite those personal ties, he did not dare to set foot on shore, reportedly for fear of being left behind. Eventually he stayed aboard the **battleship** ***Asahi*** for 14 months, during which he produced detailed reports supporting the use of all big-

gun **battleships** by the Royal Navy. In the midst of the **battle of Tsushima**, Pakenham was hit by flying fragments. Drenched in blood, he left his chair on the bridge but returned a few minutes later in a new set of whites. After the war he was promoted to rear admiral; at the outbreak of World War I, he was given command of the 3rd **cruiser** Squadron and later of the 2nd Battle cruiser Squadron. Surviving battle with the German High Seas Fleet, Pakenham was knighted and made commander-in-chief of the Battle Cruiser Fleet until the end of the war. He was subsequently promoted to vice admiral and served as president of the Royal Naval College and later as commander-in-chief of the North Atlantic and West Indies.

***PALLADA*.** Russian protected **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. One of three ships of the newly built *Pallada* class, she served in the **Pacific Fleet** at the outbreak of the war. The *Pallada* sustained a light **torpedo** hit in the first Japanese **naval attack on Port Arthur** on the night of 8 February 1904, and she was damaged again during an unsuccessful attempt to escape **Port Arthur** to **Vladivostok** on 8 October 1904. She was sunk by **howitzer** fire on 7 December 1904 during the final stage of the **siege of Port Arthur** but was raised by the **Imperial Japanese Navy** after the surrender of the fort. She was recommissioned as the *Tsugaru* and eventually scrapped in 1923.

Technical data: Builder: Galernii Island, St. Petersburg, Russia, 1895–1902; Displ.: 6,823t; LBD: 126.69×16.76×6.35–6.55m [415.8×55×21.5ft]; Machinery: 24 Belleville boilers, 3-shaft VTE, 13,000ihp; Speed: 19kt; Fuel: 1,430t coal; Armament: 8×152mm/45 [6in.], 24×11pdr, 8×1pdr, 3×381mm [15in.] TT (1AW 2sub); Armor: deck: 37–63mm [1.5–2.5in.], CT: 37mm [1.5in.]; Comp.: 571–581.

PEKING, TREATY OF (1905). Treaty signed between **Japan** and **China** on 22 December 1905. It recognized Japanese rights in southern **Manchuria**, thus reflecting the immediate political and territorial repercussions of the Japanese victory in the Russo–Japanese War. As soon as the war was over, the Japanese government sought to win Chinese concurrence for its territorial "rights" in Manchuria, with the support of **Great Britain** and the **United States**. A Japanese delegation headed by Foreign Minister **Komura Jutarô** began negotiations

in Beijing [Peking] on 17 November 1905. The Chinese were disappointed that their support for Japan during the war was not rewarded, but eventually they were forced to recognize the transfer of Russian rights in southern Manchuria to Japan.

***PERESVIET*.** Russian **battleship** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. One of three ships of the newly built *Peresviet* class, she served in the **Pacific Fleet** at the outbreak of the war. Her class was characterized by poor armor and armament and relatively low speed. The *Peresviet* took heavy fire during the **battle of the Yellow Sea** and was eventually sunk in the harbor after sustaining at least 23 hits of 280-millimeter [11-inch] **howitzer** shells on 6 December 1904 during the final stage of the **siege of Port Arthur**. Following the surrender of the fort, she was raised and repaired by the **Imperial Japanese Navy**, and was recommissioned as the *Sagami* in 1908. She was sold back to **Russia** in 1916, but in April 1917 she was sunk by a **mine** laid by a German **submarine** off Port Said.

Technical data: Builder: New Admiralty, St. Petersburg, Russia, 1895–1901; Displ.: 12,683t; LBD: 132.43×21.79×7.92m [434.5×71.5×26ft]; Machinery: 32 Belleville boilers, 3-shaft VTE, 15,000ihp; Speed: 18.5kt; Fuel: 1,500/2,100t coal, later 250t oil; Armament: 4×254mm/45 [10in.] (2×2), 11×152mm/45 [6in.], 20×11pdr, 8×1pdr, 5×381mm [15in.] TT (3AW 2sub), MN; Armor: KC and Harvey, belt: 127–229mm [5–9in.], CT: 152mm [6in.], turrets: 127–229mm [5–9in.], casemates: 127mm [5in.]; Comp.: 752.

PERSHING, JOHN JOSEPH (1860–1948). American Army officer who served as **military observer** during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in a small town in Missouri and graduated from West Point. Subsequently he served in several Indian campaigns in the southwest of the **United States** and in 1891 began teaching military science and tactics at the University of Nebraska. During the Spanish–American War, Pershing distinguished himself while commanding a cavalry regiment at San Juan Hill. In 1899 he was sent to the Philippines, where he caught the eye of General **Arthur MacArthur**, the new military governor of the Philippines. During the Russo–Japanese War, Pershing served as military attaché in **Tokyo** and observed the fighting while accompanying General **Kuroki Tametomo**'s **First Army** from March to September 1905.

President **Theodore Roosevelt** promoted him in 1906 to brigadier general, bypassing 862 officers senior to him. Pershing was appointed a provincial governor in the southern Philippines and completed the campaign against the rebelling Moros. In 1915–1916 he led the Mexican Punitive Expedition into Mexico to capture Pancho Villa and his Mexican rebels, and a year later he was appointed commander-in-chief of the American Expeditionary Force to Europe taking part in the final stages of World War I. After months of reinforcing the British and French, his army began operating on its own in the summer of 1918 and played a decisive role in defeating the Germans that fall. Congress honored him and his contribution to ending World War I by creating a new title, General of the Armies. Pershing was then appointed chief of staff in 1921, retired in 1924, and won the Pulitzer Prize for history in 1932.

PERSIA. *See* IRAN.

PETROPAVLOVSK. Russian **battleship** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. One of three ships of the relatively new *Petropavlovsk* class, she served in the **Pacific Fleet** at the outbreak of the war. She became the flagship of Vice Admiral **Stepan Makarov** upon his arrival. On 13 April 1904, however, while sailing about three kilometers [two miles] off **Port Arthur**, the *Petropavlovsk* struck one or two **mines** in the newly laid field. Seconds later her forward magazines exploded with such violence that the entire forward turret was hurled into the air. She sank within two minutes. **Destroyers** were sent to search the site of her sinking and found 58 survivors. The remaining 635 officers and men were lost with the ship, among them most of Makarov's staff and the famous Russian painter **Vasilii Vereshchagin**. The tsar's cousin, Grand Duke Cyril, who had joined the mission and was standing near Makarov, was found alive in the water. As for Makarov, the search team found only his overcoat.

Technical data: Builder: Galernii Island, St. Petersburg, Russia, 1892–1899; Displ.: 11,354t; LBD: 112.47×21.34×7.77m [369×70×25.5ft]; Machinery: 12–16 cylinder boilers, 2-shaft VTE, 11,250ihp; Speed: 16.5kt; Fuel: 1,500t coal; Armament: 4×305mm/40 [12in.] (2×2), 12×152mm/45 [6in.] (4×2, 4×1), 12×3pdr, 28×1pdr, 6×457mm [18in.] TT (2AW 4sub), 60 MN; Armor: Harvey nickel, belt: 127–406mm [5–16in.], CT: 203mm [8in.],

turrets: 254–356mm [10–14in.], secondary turrets: 127mm [5in.]; Comp.: 632.

PHAN, BOI CHAU (1867–1940). Vietnamese revolutionary and national leader who engaged in anti-French activity during the Russo–Japanese War. Phan was the most prominent nationalist leader of Vietnam during the early 20th century and was greatly influenced by the Japanese victory in the war. In 1904 he founded the nationalist organization Duy Tan Hoi [Vietnam Reformation Society], which focused on restoration of the old regime and dispatching students to **Japan**. Early in 1905 Phan headed a delegation to Japan to request military assistance. Japan's victory in the war turned his movement from reformist to a more radical direction. Phan believed that Japan intended to rid Asia of the West in general and Vietnam of **France** in particular. Although the appeal for Japanese assistance bore no fruit at this stage, in the following years Japan became a model country for Vietnamese revolutionaries and attracted hundreds of Vietnamese students. Under French pressure, however, the Japanese government began to oppress the students' activity in Japan, and in 1909 it expelled Phan. Three years later he organized the Vietnam Quang Phuc Hoi [Vietnam Restoration Society] in Canton [Guangzhou] and continued his anti-colonial activities. In 1925 Phan was arrested in Shanghai, extradited to the French authorities, and imprisoned until his death.

PIKOU. *See* PITZUWO.

PILSUDSKI, JOZEF (1867–1935). Polish army officer and statesman who engaged in anti-Russian activity during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born at Zulow in Vilnius Province (now in Lithuania) and quit medicine studies in 1886. After his arrest for plotting to kill Tsar Alexander III, Pilsudski was released and edited the radical underground newspaper *Robotnik* in Lodz. He was imprisoned again and sent to Siberia, but in 1901 he feigned insanity and eventually was smuggled out of the country. In July 1904, Pilsudski arrived in **Tokyo** together with Tytus Filipovicz, to solicit a Japanese alliance with **Poland** and the Polish Socialists. In a memorandum he submitted to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, he requested assistance in gain-

ing Poland's independence from tsarist **Russia**, and in return he offered to organize a Polish legion out of Russian **prisoners of war** of Polish descent to fight on **Japan**'s side. He also suggested that a guerrilla war in Poland would distract the Russian army. In return he asked for guns and held talks with **Yamagata Aritomo** and other Japanese officials. Despite the support of the Japanese diplomat **Hayashi Tadasu**, the Japanese government was extremely cautious. Under British influence and strong opposition of **Roman Dmowski**, it eventually decided to deny him material assistance.

After the outbreak of World War I in 1914, Pilsudski led Polish forces on the side of **Austro–Hungary** against Russia. The Russians were driven out of most of Poland by 1915. In the following year, Austro–Hungary and **Germany** established a small Polish kingdom under their protection. In 1917 the Germans arrested Pilsudski after he ordered his troops to refuse to swear loyalty to the German and Austrian armies. Pilsudski was released at the end of the war, and when an independent Polish republic was proclaimed, he became the first chief of state. He then cooperated with Ukrainian nationalists to invade Russia and managed later to drive back the Russian forces across the border. In 1926 he led a military overthrow of the government and served as prime minister until 1928 and again in 1930, although thereafter he held almost dictatorial powers. Pilsudski never forgot the legacy of the Russo–Japanese War. At the 20th anniversary of the war, he manifested his recognition of the Japanese efforts against Russia, decorating 51 of the top Japanese officers of the war with the highest Polish award, the *Virtuti Militari*.

PITZUWO [PIKOU]. Chinese port town on the southern coast of **Manchuria** and a site of **landing operations** of the Japanese **Second Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. It is located in the southern part of the **Liaotung peninsula**. Also near the town was the site of Japanese landing in the **First Sino–Japanese War**. In the early stages of the Russo–Japanese War, the Second Army under the command of General **Oku Yasukata** disembarked near the town, between the Tasha and Lilan Rivers. The landing began unopposed on 5 May 1904 using a fleet of 80 transports.

PLANS OF WAR. *See* WAR PLANS.

PLEHVE, VIACHESLAV KONSTANTINOVICH (1846–1904). Russian statesman who served as interior minister during the early stages of the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in Meshchovsk, Kaluga Province, to a schoolteacher who later became a minor official in the regional military government of Poland, and received a degree in law at Imperial Moscow University. Plehve entered state service in the Ministry of Justice in 1867 and held a series of positions in various district and provincial law courts. In 1879 he became prosecutor of the **St. Petersburg** Chamber of Justice, and following this appointment his career soared. He became director of the police in 1881, assistant of the interior minister in 1885, imperial secretary in 1894, and minister-state-secretary for the Grand Duchy of **Finland** in 1899. In April 1902, Plehve was appointed interior minister, a position he held for more than two years. During his tenure, he was regarded as one of the most powerful men in the empire, especially after the dismissal of his political rival, Finance Minister **Sergei Witte**, in August 1903.

In his capacity as interior minister, Plehve operated from an ever-diminishing support base; he was criticized for his attitude to the **zemstvo movement** and his efforts to strengthen the role of the bureaucracy. He was also associated with instigating pogroms against the **Jews**, such as the **pogrom of Kishinev** in April 1903, as well as other anti-nationalist policies in Finland and Armenia. Plehve was considered a supporter of the **Bezobrazov Circle** and advocated a show of strength against **Japan**. He allegedly said that a "short, victorious war" was needed to bring the country together, although it is possible that his adversaries invented this notorious expression. By the spring of 1904 he had become an emblem of autocratic oppression and was the target of several assassination attempts. In one of them, on 28 July 1904, Plehve was eventually assassinated. The perpetrator was Egor Sazonov, a terrorist and member of the Social Revolutionary Party, who threw a bomb into Plehve's carriage.

PLEKHANOV, GEORGII VALENTINOVICH (1856–1918). Russian revolutionary and Marxist theoretician involved in anti-government activities during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in Gudalovka in Tambov Province into a family of petty gentry; as a student he joined a clandestine organization. Objecting to violence, Plekhanov formed a splinter group in 1879 and immigrated a year

later to western Europe. In 1883 he founded in Geneva a small circle to spread Marxist ideas in **Russia**, while maintaining that the revolution must be the outcome of the masses. In 1900 Plekhanov collaborated with **Vladimir Lenin** in publishing the journal *Iskra* and led the Russian Social Democratic Party. Eventually, however, Lenin eclipsed him in the leadership of the Social Democratic Party, and in November 1903 the two figures parted company, as Plekhanov viewed Bolshevism as populist "Jacobinism." In August 1904 Plekhanov was elected vice chair, together with the Japanese representative **Katayama Sen,** of the Sixth Congress of the Second International held in Amsterdam, and their public hand brought about an international sensation. During the **Revolution of 1905**, Plekhanov supported collaboration with bourgeois liberals against absolutism. He ultimately returned to Russia in 1917 and headed the Social Democratic Unity group. Following the Bolshevik Revolution, Plekhanov condemned it as a betrayal of Marxist principles. In consequence he had to flee, and he died in **Finland** a year later.

POBIEDA*.** Russian **battleship** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was one of three ships of the relatively new ***Peresviet class, which was characterized by relatively low speed and inferior armament and armor, although the *Pobieda* had different armor from the other ships of its class. She was characterized by plenty of habitable space but offered a large target. She served in the **Pacific Fleet** at the outbreak of the war and suffered a **mine** hit to her coal store on 13 April 1904, which required repairs at **Port Arthur**. During the **battle of the Yellow Sea**, she suffered less damage than her sister ship *Peresviet* but was sunk by multiple gun hits on 7 December 1904, during the final stage of the **siege of Port Arthur**. The *Pobieda* was raised and repaired by the **Imperial Japanese Navy** after the surrender of the fort. She was then recommissioned as the *Suwo* in 1908 and served uneventfully until she was disarmed in 1922. She was subsequently moored in Kure and broken up in 1945.

Technical data: Builder: New Admiralty, St. Petersburg, Russia, 1895–1901; Displ.: 12,683t; LBD: 132.43×21.79×8.00m [434×71.5×26ft]; Machinery: 30 Belleville boilers, 3-shaft VTE, 15,000ihp; Speed: 18.5kt; Fuel: 1,500/2,100t coal, later 250t oil; Armament: 4×254mm/45 [10in.] (2×2), 11×152mm/45 [6in.],

20×11pdr, 8×1pdr, 5×381mm [15in.] TT (3AW 2sub), MN; Armor: KC, belt: 127–229mm [5–9in.], CT: 210mm [8.25in.], turrets: 127–254mm [5–10in.], casemates: 127mm [5in.]; Comp.: 752.

POGROMS OF KISHINEV. *See* KISHINEV, POGROMS OF.

POLAND. A divided state, mostly under the control of the Russian empire, that experienced much revolutionary activity during the Russo–Japanese War. Following its third partition in 1795, Poland no longer existed as a separate state. Despite limited revival during the Napoleonic wars, in 1815 it was divided again, among Austria (later **Austro–Hungary**), Prussia, and **Russia**. Russia established a small, self-governing kingdom of Poland, but following rebellions in 1830 and 1867, it began to russify Polish culture. In the 1880s and 1890s, Polish political parties were formed in all three parts of Poland, with increasing demands for political rights and even independence.

During the Russo–Japanese War, Polish soldiers took an active part on the Russian side, and thousands of them were killed or wounded, leading to strong resentment in Poland. At the same time, several Polish politicians, among them **Roman Dmowski** of the Polish Nationalist League, and **Jozef Pilsudski** and Tytus Filipovicz of the Polish Socialists, went to **Tokyo** seeking Japanese support against tsarist Russia. Whereas Dmowski suggested that Polish soldiers in **Manchuria** might surrender to the **Imperial Japanese Army**, Pilsudski asked **Japan** to enter into an alliance with Poland. He further asked to be provided a subsidy to obtain weapons and even to establish a Polish volunteer corps on Japan's side. Fearing the adverse consequences of an armed uprising as well as a possible hegemony of the Socialists, Dmowski expressed his concern on 20 July 1904 and informed the Japanese highest authorities that any uprising would be easily suppressed. On British advice, the cautious Japanese government decided against giving the Polish Socialists any aid.

Whereas the Japanese looked forward at that stage to ending the conflict, the Polish revolutionaries wished to maintain it as long as possible. Subsequently, Poland of 1905–1906 was one of the most turbulent parts of the Russian empire. There were frequent strikes in protest against the war, tsarist oppression, and the social state of the workers. Russian troops where dispatched to Poland, and at one time

they numbered more than in **Manchuria**. Polish workers, patriots, and agitators took an active part in the **Revolution of 1905**. A noteworthy event was the **Lodz uprising**, the first major urban revolt to occur in the Russian empire.

In the aftermath of the war and the revolution, the Polish independent movement achieved much success both politically and culturally. Political parties were legalized, and in the first Duma of 1906, Polish representatives were allocated 37 seats. Polish was readmitted as one of the languages of education, and the Polish Catholic Church gained recognition as religious toleration was proclaimed throughout the empire. After the outbreak of World War I in 1914, Pilsudski led Polish forces on the side of Austria against Russia. The Russians were driven out of most of Poland by 1915. In the following year, Austro–Hungary and **Germany** established a small Polish kingdom under their protection. In 1917 Dmowski formed the Polish National Committee in Paris to win Allied support for an independent Poland. After the Allied victory in 1918, an independent Polish republic was proclaimed. Pilsudski became the first chief of state.

POLTAVA*.** Russian **battleship** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. One of three ships of the relatively new ***Petropavlovsk class, she served in the **Pacific Fleet** at the outbreak of the war. The *Poltava* took considerable damage in the **battle of the Yellow Sea** when she was hit by 14 shells. During the final stage of the **siege of Port Arthur**, she was hit again, this time by six 280-millimeter [11-inch] **howitzer** shells that caused a magazine fire and led to her sinking in the harbor on 5 December 1904. After the surrender of the fort, she was raised by the **Imperial Japanese Navy**, recommissioned as the *Tango*, and rerated as a first-class coast defense ship in 1911. In 1916 she was resold to **Russia** and renamed *Tchesma*. She was stationed in the White Sea and eventually scrapped in 1923.

Technical data: Builder: New Admiralty, St. Petersburg, Russia, 1892–1899; Displ.: 11,354tons; LBD: 112.47×21.34×7.77m [369×70×25.5ft]; Machinery: 12–16 cylinder boilers, 2-shaft VTE, 11,250ihp; Speed: 16.5kt; Fuel: 700/1,500t coal; Armament: 4×305mm/40 [12in.] (2×2), 12×152mm/45 [6in.] (4×2, 4×1), 12×3pdr, 28×1pdr, 6×457mm [18in.] TT (2AW 4sub), 60 MN; Armor: Harvey nickel, belt: 127–406mm [5–16in.], CT: 203mm [8in.],

turrets: 254–356mm [10–14in.], secondary turrets: 127mm [5in.]; Comp.: 632.

PORT ARTHUR [LÜSHUN; PORT ARTUR; *RYOJUN*]. A port city, and **Russia**'s main naval base and fort in East Asia from 1898 to 1905; site of a major siege and battle during the Russo–Japanese War. It is located at the southern tip of the **Liaotung peninsula** southwest of **Dalny**, southern **Manchuria**, **China**, about 320 kilometers [200 miles] south of **Liaoyang** and 385 kilometers [240 miles] from **Mukden** (38° 48' north and 121° 20' east). The site was known in Chinese as Lüshun and in Japanese as Ryojun. Its modern history began during the Arrow War, when an Anglo–French force cleared the Chinese obstruction on the river approaches of the city of Tientsin [Tianjin]. In August 1860 the British **Royal Navy gunvessel** HMS *Algerine*, under the command of Lieutenant William C. Arthur, towed a damaged frigate into Lüshun harbor, where there was a small fishing village. Named Port Arthur by Westerners, Lüshun's strategic importance was recognized only 20 years later, when a German engineer, Captain Constantin von Hannekin, suggested that the narrow entrance and the rugged hills around the harbor, when properly fortified, could make the site nearly impregnable. Consequently the site was selected as a base for the newly formed Peiyang navy, the brainchild of **Li Hongzhang**, the Chinese governor-general of Chihli [Zhili] Province. Construction of the docks and shipyards began in 1882, and the harbor was dredged and deepened. At the same time, the site was developed as a land fortress, and by 1894 it consisted of 22 forts and over 70 guns.

During the **First Sino–Japanese War**, the town was taken over by **Japan** after a one-day siege. The Japanese made their possession of Port Arthur a condition of peace in the **Treaty of Shimonoseki**. **Russia**, in search of an ice-free port and recognizing the military significance of the site, and urged on by **France** and **Germany**, demanded of Japan a few days after the signing of the treaty that it evacuate Liaotung. Accepting British advice, the Japanese reluctantly agreed to this ultimatum, known later as the **Three-Power Intervention**. In March 1895, Tsar **Nicholas II** and Foreign Minister Aleksei Lobanov-Rostovskii agreed on the need to link the **Trans-Siberian Railway** to a warm-water port. In June 1896, Russia signed the

Li–Lobanov agreement with China, pledging to protect China's territorial integrity, while China permitted Russia to construct the **Chinese Eastern Railway** through Manchuria. In December 1897, Russia decided on a unilateral step and sent its warships to Port Arthur. On 27 March 1898, Russian forces occupied the town; on that same day, the Chinese reluctantly succumbed to the Russian demand for a concession and granted it a renewable 25-year lease over Port Arthur and Dalny.

Russia began to construct the **South Manchurian Railway** linking these ports to the Chinese Eastern Railway. It did not allow foreign ships to enter Port Arthur but permitted them to use the newly built commercial port at Dalny. The Russians continued to enlarge Port Arthur's berthing facilities, but they had little time to improve the shipyard or fortifications, and as a result the only dry-dock in the port could not accommodate the arriving **battleships**. Moreover the Russian engineers could not modify the narrow entrance, which allowed the passage of only one large ship at a time, and then only at high tide with the use of tugs. The tsar approved plans to cut a second entrance through the protective peninsula, but they were not implemented before the war. While the Russians began to construct a new residential and commercial center (known as New Town), the old main town remained as it had been under the Chinese, lacking paved streets, sewerage, a water supply system, and good lighting. In 1901 they also began reconstruction of the fortress, but by 1904 they had completed work on only one of the original Chinese forts.

The main line of defense followed the outer edge of the semicircle of hills around the harbor (for a glossary of the names of sites at Port Arthur, see appendix 2). The total length from sea point to sea point was about 19 kilometers [12 miles], of which the weakest part was a stretch of 4,500 meters northwest of the harbor and New Town. Overlooking both was **203-Meter Hill**, which was replete with trenches and redoubts on either flank. In 1904 the fortress of Port Arthur was the first to be put to the test of modern warfare. Although it was redesigned at the turn of the century, its permanent defenses were of the 1870 detached-fort type. On the eve of the Russo–Japanese War, there were in the garrison of Port Arthur about 18,000 soldiers, a similar number of sailors, and more than 20,000 civilians, mostly Chinese. As for the defense of the town, only 116 of the 552 guns

planned were in place, and of these all but eight were installed facing the sea. Following the **battle of Nanshan** and at the beginning of the **siege of Port Arthur**, about 47,000 men were available for the defense of the place.

In the aftermath of the Russo–Japanese War, the lease of Port Arthur was passed to the Japanese, and it was made the capital of the leased **Kwantung peninsula** and headquarters of the Kwantung Army [Guandong Army; *Kantôgun*]. In mid-August 1945, Port Arthur changed hands again, when the Soviet army took over the area. At the Teheran conference in 1943, U.S. President Franklin Roosevelt and British Prime Minister Winston Churchill were both sympathetic to the Soviet desire for a warm-water outlet in Asia, but they thought in terms of an internationalized commercial port. Following the Yalta conference in February 1945, the Soviet Union and the Nationalist government of China signed in August 1945 a Sino–Soviet treaty in which the Soviets acquired a 30-year lease and military control of Port Arthur, and similar arrangements for Dalny and the railway zone. In the aftermath of the Communist takeover in 1949, China's leader Mao Zedong demanded the return of Manchuria to Chinese sovereignty. Despite Stalin's reluctance, the two leaders signed in February 1950 the Treaty of Friendship, in which the Soviet Union consented to return all railway rights and property without compensation to the Chinese by the end of 1952. The Korean War postponed the transfer of the Manchurian concessions to China, but ultimately it was completed in May 1955.

PORT ARTHUR, NAVAL ATTACK ON (1904). The first Japanese attempt to strike the naval base of **Port Arthur** during the Russo–Japanese War. The attack aimed to destroy the main units of the **Pacific Fleet** at the first hours of the war. For this purpose the **Combined Fleet** under the command of Admiral **Tôgô Heihachirô** left **Sasebo** on 6 February 1904 and headed toward the Russian main naval base in East Asia. Two days later, at 19:00, Tôgô released his five flotillas of **destroyers**. The 1st, 2nd, and 3rd flotillas headed to Port Arthur, while the 4th and 5th flotillas headed out for a similar attack on **Dalny**. At 22:50 the 10 destroyers sailing for Port Arthur encountered Russian warships, which neither opened fire nor reported to their base but broke the Japanese sense of surprise. An hour later, when the de-

stroyers were near the entrance of the harbor, they received a signal to attack and increased their speed to the maximum. Each destroyer released two **torpedoes**, which hit first the Russian **cruiser *Pallada*** and then the **battleship *Retvizan***. At 02:00 six destroyers returned for another attack and hit the battleship ***Tsessarevich***. Altogether the 10 Japanese destroyers fired 16 torpedoes for three hits against an unprepared force at anchor. At that point the **Imperial Japanese Navy** instructed its destroyers to attack individually because of the high risk of collision in mass night attacks. It also had overexpectations of the torpedo, as often it was shot from too long a range.

The three damaged Russian warships hurried to shallow water and were able to return to active service soon after. While the Russians in the harbor were taken completely by surprise, this initial attack failed to yield any significant result. The next day, 9 February, the Japanese main force opened fire on the harbor at 12:15, using the battleships' 305-millimeter [12-inch] main guns. In an attempt to confront the Japanese, the cruiser ***Novik*** steamed out and was hit by several shells, and so were the battleship ***Poltava*** and two additional cruisers within the confines of the harbor. Russian hits on the main Japanese warships, on the other hand, forced Tôgô to call off the mission. His force headed back to Sasebo, following a reunion with the task force under the command of Rear Admiral **Uryû Sotokichi**, which had just accomplished its mission in **Korea**, winning the **battle of Chemulpo**.

PORT ARTHUR, NAVAL BLOCKADE OF [*RYOJUN KÔKÔ HEISOKU SAKUSEN*] (1904). Japanese attempts to block the harbor of **Port Arthur** during the early stages of the Russo–Japanese War. The plans to block the entrance of the harbor were formulated initially in October 1903, four month before the outbreak of the war. The chief planner was Commander **Arima Ryôkitsu**, who had personal knowledge of the place and was aware that it had one narrow and shallow entrance channel. In December 1903 he prepared in **Sasebo** five blockships ready for action. On the eve of the war, Admiral **Tôgô Heihachirô**, commander-in-chief of the **Combined Fleet**, opposed the use of blockships, since he doubted a Russian desire for a showdown and preferred to control the **Pacific Fleet** at Port Arthur at some distance. The failure of the initial **naval attack on Port Arthur** using **destroyers**, as well as several attempts to

shell the harbor from the sea, brought Tôgô and the **Imperial Japanese Navy** planners back to Arima's plan. Volunteers were solicited for the mission, yielding a response from about 2,000 sailors. The first blockade attempt took place on the night of 23 February 1904 under the command of Arima. The blockships were five transports of average 2,000 gross tons each; they were ballasted with cement and stones and incorporated a detonating system. The ships were discovered as they approached the harbor mouth and all were summarily sunk by heavy fire of the **battleship *Retvizan*** and the coastal **artillery** before making any significant contribution to the blockade. Their seamen, about 70 volunteers, 14 to each ship, were taken off safely by Japanese **torpedo boats**, with light casualties of one killed and three injured.

Five weeks later, on the night of 26 March, another blockade attempt took place under the command of Arima. This time the operation comprised four larger vessels. Again, they were detected about three kilometers from the harbor mouth, but the commander of one of them, Lieutenant Commander **Hirose Takeo**, succeeded in bringing his vessel, the *Fukui Maru*, very close to the channel. He was killed during the action, electrifying by his sacrifice the Imperial Japanese Navy and the nation as a whole. Tôgô insisted on a third operation, and against the opinion of the navy staff he assembled eight blockships, mostly faster and larger than the previous ones, ranging from 1,780 to 4,200 gross tons. This final attempt took place on the night of 3 May 1904 under the command of Commander Hayashi Mineo. In the face of intensive Russian preparations, no blockship was able to approach the harbor, and about half of the 158 volunteers involved in the action, including Hayashi, were lost. All in all, the Imperial Japanese Navy spent 17 blockships and the lives of about a hundred volunteers in these fruitless attempts to block the harbor of Port Arthur. Tôgô, however, declared that the final mission had been successful, thus clearing the way for the **landing operations** of the **Second Army** in nearby **Pitzuwo** two days later.

PORT ARTHUR, SIEGE OF [*RYOJUN KÔISEN; RYOJUN YÔSAI KÔRYAKUSEN*] (1904–1905). The crucial victory of **Japan**'s land forces and the major siege of the Russo–Japanese War. Japanese determination to take the naval base and fortress of **Port Arthur** at all

costs resulted in one of the greatest sieges in history. It lasted about seven months and cost both sides over 100,000 **casualties**.

From the onset of the Russo–Japanese War, it was apparent that Port Arthur was not only the major naval base and strongest fortress that **Russia** had in East Asia but also a symbol of its power. Admiral **Tôgô Heihachirô**, the naval commander of the Japanese **Combined Fleet**, had a special incentive to hurry, since he was aware of the rumors regarding the preparations of the **Baltic Fleet** to sail for Asia and join the **Pacific Fleet**. Such a combination could eliminate the naval advantage he had, especially in view of the losses sustained by the **Japanese Imperial Navy** in May 1904. In addition, the commander-in-chief of the Japanese forces in **Manchuria**, Field Marshal **Ôyama Iwao**, was in urgent need of reinforcements. The conquest of Port Arthur, he hoped, would allow the **Third Army**, which had been assigned to besiege the fortress, to join his own forces. Finally, the takeover of Port Arthur also had great psychological and symbolic significance for both military and public morale.

The siege began once the **Imperial Japanese Army** gained control of southern Manchuria. On 26 May 1904 the **Second Army** cut off Port Arthur from the mainland, following the seizure of **Nanshan**. Next the Third Army, under the command of General **Nogi Maresuke**, assumed the mission of capturing the site. Nogi, who had commanded the occupation of Port Arthur in 1894 during the **First Sino–Japanese War**, began **landing operations** with his fresh troops at **Dalny** in early June. Following a month spent there in preparing a base, the Third Army, comprising initially the **1st** and **11th Divisions**, gradually separated itself from the Second Army and deployed north of Port Arthur. At this stage, Nogi had at his disposal about 80,000 men in 63 battalions, three squadrons, 17 companies of engineers, and 474 guns. Opposing him was the commanding officer of the fort, Lieutenant General **Anatolii Stoessel**, who disposed of about 42,000 men in two full divisions (the 4th and 7th Siberian Rifle Divisions and one regiment of the 2nd Siberian Rifle Division), consisting of nine infantry regiments as well as a reserve. They were supported by 646 guns and 62 **machine guns**.

The defenders of Port Arthur had by then been at war for five months, and had experienced intense fluctuations in their fighting spirit. Earlier, their low morale had climbed again with the arrival on

8 March 1904 of Vice Admiral **Stepan Makarov**, the new commander of the Pacific Fleet. After a few brave sorties, however, Makarov's flagship, the ***Petropavlovsk***, struck a **mine** on 13 April, the admiral perished, and consequently the navy unit became idle again. On 23 June the Russian naval force at Port Arthur made a desperate attempt to escape for **Vladivostok** under the command of Rear Admiral **Vilgelm Vitgeft**. Not far from the port, however, they again realized the superiority of Tôgô's waiting fleet and returned quickly to their safe haven. The attempts of the fleet to escape the naval siege culminated in the **battle of the Yellow Sea** on 10 August, and thereafter it remained passive inside the harbor until the fall of the fortress. During 3–4 July 1904, the Russians checked Nogi's initial attack by a resolute though unsuccessful counter-stroke, and they repeated their doughty defense in the face of another Japanese attack on the fortified Green Hills line on 26 July. Despite assistance from the warships' guns in the harbors, the Japanese succeeded in breaking through on the night of 27–28 July. During the next two days, they forced the defenders to withdraw to an inner line, which had been reinforced in the previous months.

The five days of fighting cost the Third Army more than 4,000 casualties, which forced Nogi to look for a less costly approach. Hence on 7 August he started shelling the city and its defense line from land and sea. The bombardment went on for 13 days, while the Japanese infantry encroached along the front and gained ground where it could. During the night of 19–20 August, the Japanese **9th Division** together with the seasoned 11th Division began a frontal assault on the center of the northeastern front and the two forts of East and West Panlung in particular, defended by troops under the command of Major General **Vladimir Gorbatovskii**. Despite some initial gains, the Japanese forward movement was checked gradually by incessant Russian **artillery**, under the command of Major General **Vasilii Belyii**, as well as deteriorating weather conditions, but ultimately they took over the two forts. At the same time, Nogi's attempts to capture Wantai [Eagle's Nest] not only failed but cost him many casualties. By now the Third Army had lost 18,000 men, with gains of two forts dominated by the unconquered Wantai.

The unyielding siege provided abundant opportunity for violation of the Geneva Convention, to which both parties were committed.

During the fierce attacks against Wantai, thousands of soldiers, most of them Japanese, were left wounded and dead between the lines of the two sides. The Japanese were agitated about the fate of their soldiers lying on the battlefield, since it was impossible to get them out. Yet the proximity of the belligerents, and the desire of each to keep its dispositions as secret as possible, rendered futile any discussion of a temporary armistice. While the Russians did not allow the Japanese to enter the area, they attempted to gather their own wounded. The Japanese were furious at what they considered a breach of military decorum and opened fire on some of the Russian burial parties, forcing them to withdraw. Under these circumstances about 7,000 dead and wounded Japanese and an unknown number of Russians were left exposed between the lines. Eventually many were rescued, but hundreds lying higher up the mountain, closer to the Russian lines, were left to die slowly. Bolstered by the Japanese casualties during August, Stoessel delivered a counter-attack against the two forts on the night of 27–28 August but failed to recapture these positions.

In view of his heavy losses, and under pressure from Ôyama, Nogi required a new tactic and chose thereafter a slow advance using elaborate sapping. At this stage, the Japanese siege efforts were directed against the Water Work Redoubt. After almost three weeks of preparation, with hardly any interference by the Russians, the Japanese 9th Division stormed the redoubt at dawn of 19 September and again during the night, whereas the 1st Division engaged the Temple Redoubt, Long Hill, and **203-Meter Hill**. Suffering heavy losses, the defenders of Long Hill eventually retreated, and at the end of four days' fighting the Water Work and the Temple Redoubt also fell into Japanese hands. 203-Meter Hill, however, remained invincible, albeit exposed to fire on its northern flank. Another turning point in favor of the Japanese was 1 October, when the heavy 280-millimeter [11-inch] **howitzers** sent from Japan were ready for action. Still, during October the sapping continued incessantly and all three Japanese divisions were engaged. The 1st Division strove to capture Fort Sungshu, the 9th Division aimed at Forth Erhlung, and the 11th Division engaged Fort Chikuan. Nevertheless, Nogi's efforts to crush the fortress in time for Emperor Meiji's birthday on 3 November failed, although his forces were steadily advancing despite fierce counter-attacks.

During November, Nogi's inability to capture the forts, combined with his heavy losses, again stimulated much vexation at the Japanese general staff, and news of the departure of the Baltic Fleet was not encouraging either. For this reason, Ôyama sent his chief of staff, General **Kodama Gentarô**, who urged Nogi on to renewed efforts. The latter received additional manpower, and with the arrival of the fresh **7th Division**, he had more than 100,000 men at his disposal. In another Japanese frontal attack, led by Major General **Nakamura Satoru** on 26 November, however, about 4,500 men were lost, as against some 1,500 Russian casualties, and Nogi was forced to turn his attention back to 203-Meter Hill. On 28 November he directed his first full-scale attack against the hill, and in the following week he sacrificed over 10,000 men to accomplish his goal. Finally, on December 5 the defenses of the hill collapsed. The Japanese takeover of 203-Meter Hill was a turning point in the siege. On 6 December the 280-millimeter howitzers, directed by observers from this high position, began the methodical destruction of the Russian warships in the harbor. Except for the battleship ***Sevastopol***, which moved to the safety of the White Wolf harbor, all the other capital ships were sunk or severely damaged.

The defenders suffered another significant loss on 15 December, when Lieutenant General **Roman Kondratenko** was killed while overseeing the defense of Fort Chikuan. With the death of Kondratenko, who had shared the views of his superior, Lieutenant General **Konstantin Smirnov**, regarding the need to continue to fight, the defenders' morale was at a low ebb, whereas Stoessel's position became stronger than ever. Fort Chikuan fell into Japanese hands four days later; Fort Erhlung was blown up and subsequently stormed by the 9th Division on 28 December. Finally, the entire defense of the eastern front collapsed, following the seizure of Fort Sungshu on 31 December and of Wantai on 1 January 1905. As his principal line of defense collapsed, Stoessel decided there was no use in further fighting. Notwithstanding the willingness of most of the officers in Port Arthur, among them Smirnov and Belyii, to keep fighting, he sent a messenger to Nogi, and following short negotiations, the fort surrendered on 2 January 1905. Although the surrendering officers were allowed to keep their swords and return to Russia, the majority of them chose to go along with the rank and file to **prisoner camps** in Japan.

Nogi took great care that the Russians would not be harmed, and his respectful treatment of Stoessel in particular was highly appreciated. (For the terms of the capitulation of Port Arthur, see appendix 1.)

The Japanese forces found in the vanquished fort 878 officers and 23,481 rank and file effective or slightly wounded (including the wounded, there were 33,200 military and naval men), 546 guns, 82,000 shells, and 2.25 million small-arm rounds. In addition, 15,000 Russians were wounded and sick. In sum, about 40,000 of the original 47,000 men available at the beginning of the siege survived. The total losses of the Japanese Third Army during the siege were about 93,000 men, consisting of 15,400 dead, 44,000 wounded, and 34,000 sick, a toll incomparably higher than the Russian total figure of 31,306 (of whom 12,660 were killed and missing). The fall of Port Arthur was heralded around the world with joy and fear. For many this victory was symbolic, either as a sign of liberty for an Asian people or as a harbinger of the **Yellow Peril**. Others, such as **Vladimir Lenin**, saw it as the onset of the collapse of the Russian empire. Three weeks later, **St. Petersburg** witnessed the massacre known as **Bloody Sunday**, which sparked the **Revolution of 1905**. From the strategic perspective, however, the main contribution of the Japanese capture of Port Arthur was felt at the front near **Mukden**. It enabled nearly 100,000 Japanese troops of the Third Army to join the other corps of the Imperial Japanese Army and consequently to defeat the Russians at the **battle of Mukden** two months later.

PORT ARTHUR SQUADRON. The primary unit of the Russian **Pacific Fleet** during the Russo–Japanese War. It was stationed in **Port Arthur** and was under the command of Vice Admiral **Oskar Stark** (8–26 February 1904), Rear Admiral **Pavel Ukhtomskii** (temporary), Vice Admiral **Stepan Makarov** (8 March until 13 April 1904), Vice Admiral **Evgenii Alekseev** (temporary), Rear Admiral **Vilgelm Vitgeft** (5 May until 10 August 1904), Rear Admiral Ukhtomskii (10 August until 4 September 1904), and Rear Admiral **Robert Viren** (4 September 1904 until 2 January 1905). On the eve of the war it comprised a **battleship** division of seven battleships, a division of long-distance scouts of five **cruisers** and a division of short-distance scouts of two cruisers, two destroyer flotillas of 25 **destroyers**, and a number of **gunvessels** and auxiliary vessels.

PORTSMOUTH. A port town in New Hampshire, **United States**, and the site of the **Portsmouth Peace Conference**. It is located on the Piscataqua River, near its estuary on the Atlantic Ocean, and was founded by David Thomson in 1623. Portsmouth was the seat of a naval hospital and the nearby Portsmouth navy yard, and served as the place of imprisonment of several prominent Spanish officers and sailors during the Spanish–American War. During the final stages of the Russo–Japanese War, it was chosen as the site for the peace conference, since it was cooler there than in Washington during the hot summer.

PORTSMOUTH, TREATY OF (1905). Treaty signed between **Japan** and **Russia** on 5 September 1905 at the **Portsmouth Peace Conference**, concluding the Russo–Japanese War. The treaty included Russian recognition of Japan's hegemony over **Korea**, which made it a Japanese protectorate. Japan won control of the **Kwantung territory**, of total surface 3,462 square kilometers [1,337 square miles], and of the southern half of **Sakhalin**, of total surface 36,090 square kilometers [13,934 square miles], while Russia was forced to remove all its armed forces from **Manchuria**. Japan also won territory leased to Russia and railway rights in the **Liaotung peninsula**, including **Mukden**, **Port Arthur**, and **Dalny** (for the terms of the Treaty of Portsmouth, see appendix 1).

PORTSMOUTH PEACE CONFERENCE (1905). Peace conference between **Japan** and **Russia** conducted in **Portsmouth**, **United States**, at the final stages of the Russo–Japanese War. The conference lasted from 6 to 30 August 1905, ending with the signature of the **Treaty of Portsmouth**, which concluded the Russo–Japanese War. The decision of both belligerents to negotiate the end of the war closely followed the loss of the **Baltic Fleet** in the **battle of Tsushima**. At that stage, Russia lost the slightest hope of even a single victory in the war. While the war was still far from decided, the series of Russian land defeats earlier ended with the ousting of Russia's presence from southern **Manchuria**. Still, no Russian territory had yet been conquered, and the **Trans-Siberian Railway** continued bringing reinforcements from Europe, thereby increasing constantly the number of troops at the disposal of the **Imperial Russian Army**

in Manchuria. The **Imperial Japanese Army** was incapable of routing them, and were it not for fear of a revolution at home, the Russian forces might have been propelled into another attack. For the first time, both sides recognized that diplomacy might be less painful than the continuation of the armed struggle. As early as July 1904, the Japanese Foreign Ministry had prepared an initial draft on the terms of peace, and the possibility of a peace agreement between the warring sides was raised once more after the fall of **Port Arthur** in January 1905.

The war enjoyed very little support among the Russian public, although the political leadership, especially the tsar, were prepared to continue the fight on the assumption that time would be in their favor. However, as the Japanese Foreign Minister **Komura Jutarô** correctly judged, the Russian decision-makers were prepared to sit at the negotiating table only after the land defeat at the **battle of Mukden** and the naval defeat at the **battle of Tsushima**. The peace initiative was the brainchild of U.S. President **Theodore Roosevelt** and his ambassador in **St. Petersburg**, George von Lengerke Meyer. At the beginning of February 1905, Roosevelt sent messages to the Russians stating his readiness to serve as mediator. Although at the beginning of the war Roosevelt had professed pro-Japanese views, as time went on he began to fear the strengthening of Japan, in particular the loss of the system of political checks and balances the United States had maintained in East Asia until the outbreak of the war. Already in October 1904 he had expressed his opinion that the best thing for the United States would be for the Russians and the Japanese to continue balancing and weakening each other.

Roosevelt nonetheless tried to persuade the Japanese representatives that in the long run a settlement with Russia would be profitable for Japan as well. Initially, not only the Russians were unresponsive to the peace initiative; the Japanese were not interested in it either, and they were certainly not going to be the first to suggest it. The initial shift in the Japanese stance on negotiations occurred during the battle of Mukden. Despite their continuous victories, the battle could not be regarded as decisive. Both sides suffered heavy losses, but the effect was more significant on the Japanese side, where there were increasing difficulties in recruiting additional reserve soldiers. Reports from the front at this stage described the army as being in an al-

most depleted state, pleading for trained officers, while the Russian army was growing more powerful day by day. Japan's military considerations were compounded by financial distress, particularly growing difficulties in obtaining funds abroad.

On 8 March 1905, a day before the Japanese army entered **Mukden**, War Minister **Terauchi Masatake** called up the American minister in **Tokyo**, **Lloyd Griscom**, and asked him to inform Roosevelt that Japan was ready to negotiate a peace. This view was confirmed at a meeting of the Japanese oligarchy on 17 April. In Russia, however, the turning point regarding the termination of warfare occurred after the **battle of Tsushima**. Two days later, Tsar **Nicholas II** gathered the grand dukes and his military commanders to discuss the conditions for peace. On 7 June 1905, Roosevelt met with the Japanese diplomat, **Kaneko Kentarô**, and on the following day he received the tsar's reply. Encouraged by the sweeping support, Roosevelt sent an official invitation to both sides to attend peace talks and eventually chose **Portsmouth** as the site for them.

Japan assigned Komura and the Japanese ambassador in Washington, **Takahira Kogorô**, to represent it, while Russia sent former Finance Minister **Sergei Witte** and former minister to Japan **Roman Rosen**. Before the Russian delegates left, the tsar forbade them to yield any Russian territory or to promise reparations, to accede to the demilitarization of **Vladivostok**, to agree to limit Russian naval forces in the Pacific Ocean, or to forgo the use of the railway line to Vladivostok. The tsar's obstinate stance obliged the Japanese to give their opponents a substantial reminder that the military option was well in hand. Following Roosevelt's suggestion, they did not hesitate to invade **Sakhalin** in July 1905; following the **conquest of Sakhalin**, their troops were deployed in a position to conquer Vladivostok. Eventually, the two delegations arrived at Portsmouth on 8 August. The Japanese initially demanded recognition of their absolute interests in **Korea**, the departure of the Russians from Manchuria, control over Sakhalin, and reparations.

From the very start of the negotiations, it was clear that the question of reparations would be crucial, since both parties saw it not only as having serious economic significance but also as a symbolic issue. Twelve sessions were held between 9 August and 30 August. During the first eight meetings, the two sides agreed on eight provisions: peace

was established between Russia and Japan; Japan's interests were recognized in Korea; Manchuria was to be evacuated and restored; **China**'s freedom was acknowledged with respect to measures to be taken to develop commerce and industry in Manchuria; the area of Manchuria leased by Russia was to be returned to China; the southern section of the **South Manchurian Railway**, as well as mining concessions previously obtained by Russia from China, were to be handed over to Japan, conditional on China's consent; the Russians were to retain the northern sections of the **Chinese Eastern Railway**, along with a spur to the south as far as Kuanchengtze; Manchurian railways were not to be exploited by either party to obtain strategic objectives.

The remaining four sessions were concerned with the two thorniest issues confronting the negotiators, namely an indemnity and territorial concessions by Russia to Japan. On 18 August, Roosevelt summoned Rosen and proposed a division of Sakhalin as a territorial solution. On 23 August, Witte proposed that the Japanese keep all of Sakhalin and drop their claim for indemnity, but Komura rejected this proposal. On 26 August, Witte proposed a division of Sakhalin and warned Komura that he was instructed to cease negotiations if the Japanese insisted on the indemnity. Russia's growing conviction that Japan desperately wanted peace caused Witte to present Russia's "last concession." It included recognition of Japan's control of the southern half of Sakhalin but no indemnity or any other financial compensation. Outmaneuvered by Witte's negotiating skills, and under pressure of the media and the American representatives, Komura yielded. A refusal, he believed, might lay the blame for the breakdown of the talks on Japan.

The next day the Japanese surprisingly agreed to the offer; the two parties signed the **Treaty of Portsmouth** on 5 September 1905. In the capitals of Europe, there was an obvious sense of relief at the conclusion of the war, although London was disappointed at the Japanese concessions. In Tokyo the agreement was received with anger, and newspaper articles used the term betrayal. Unaware of the military and economic strain on the nation, the Japanese public believed that Russia would have yielded to all the demands or at least have been prepared to pay heavy reparations. On the day that the peace agreement was signed, 30,000 demonstrators gathered and the **Hibiya Riots** broke out. All in all, the two parties had good reason to be satisfied with the outcome. Japan was pleased to expel its arch-rival

from Korea and southern Manchuria, while Russia, which was defeated in the field, left with its honor intact. The success of the conference was further demonstrated in the subsequent **Russo–Japanese agreements** that strengthened the relations between the two nations in the following decade.

POTEMKIN. *See KNIAZ POTEMKIN TAVRICHESKII.*

POTEMKIN MUTINY (1905). A revolt aboard an **Imperial Russian Navy** warship during the Russo–Japanese War. The mutiny of the sailors of the ***Kniaz Potemkin Tavricheskii***, a **battleship** of the **Black Sea Fleet**, is one of the most notorious episodes of the Russian **Revolution of 1905**. The mutiny originated in revolutionary circles in Sevastopol, the main naval base of the fleet. The influence of these circles grew after the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, and probably every warship in the base had a revolutionary cell. On 25 June 1905, the commanding officer of the *Kniaz Potemkin Tavricheskii*, Captain Evgenii Golikov, received orders to depart for the Tendra Straits near Odessa for target practice. Due to weather conditions, the *Kniaz Potemkin Tavricheskii* waited at anchor for the renewal of training and received provisions, which allegedly included meat infested with maggots. On 27 June, Golikov requested the chief surgeon to inspect it. After a superficial examination, he found it fit for consumption. The meat was served for lunch, but the 600 sailors refused to eat it. Golikov assembled the crew on the quarter-deck and ordered them to step two paces forward to signify their willingness to eat the meat, and declared he would report the matter to the fleet commanding officer.

At this stage, however, the executive officer, Commander Ippolit Giliarovskii, decided to act on his own, fearing that Golikov's leniency would lead to further disobedience. He reassembled the crew, summoned the armed guard, and ordered a firing squad to shoot the leading mutineers. The squad refused to obey orders, presumably because of the moving appeal of the leading revolutionary figure in the ship, Afanasii Matiushenko. The executive officer snatched a rifle from one of the guards and fired at a mutineer but was gunned down by Matiushenko. Consequently dozens of crewmen seized weapons and shot a number of the officers, including Golikov, while the re-

maining officers fled from the ship. The mutineers elected a People's Committee of 30 men, headed by Matiushenko, which assumed control of the warship. The same evening, the *Kniaz Potemkin Tavricheskii* returned to Odessa and issued an ultimatum to the military authorities, threatening to bombard the city unless the garrison surrendered its arms. The next day, a huge crowd gathered at the quay to look at the battleship; people began to riot and were charged by a company of mounted **Cossacks**.

Most of the subsequent clashes occurred at the head and foot of the long Richelieu steps overlooking the harbor. On them, several hundred demonstrators were killed or wounded. The turmoil continued through the night of 28 June, culminating in a pogrom against the Jewish population of Odessa, with about 6,000 casualties altogether. On 29 June the crew of the *Kniaz Potemkin Tavricheskii* buried one of their comrades, but three more sailors were killed in a clash after the funeral. In retaliation, the ship fired a shell from one of her 152-millimeter [6-inch] guns at the municipal theater but missed the target. On 30 June, three battleships of the Black Sea Fleet confronted the *Kniaz Potemkin Tavricheskii* outside the harbor, but realizing the determination of the mutineers, they retreated. Expecting a naval engagement, the crew of the warship *Georgii Pobedonosets* suddenly mutinied too and joined with the *Kniaz Potemkin Tavricheskii*. The two battleships sailed into Odessa harbor. While the remaining battleships retreated to Sevastopol, the crews argued among themselves about the actions to follow.

As supplies were running low and the city did not offer full support, the crew of the *Kniaz Potemkin Tavricheskii* decided to sail for Romania. The ship reached the port of Constanza on 2 July. Rejecting the authorities' request for their surrender, the People's Committee on board decided to leave for the small Crimean port of Feodosiia. Although the authorities there declined to provide the ship with any supplies, the mutineers began to load coal they found in the port. While coaling, government troops opened fire on the sailors, killing some of them, and the survivors decided to return to Constanza to surrender. On 7 July 1905, the Romanian government granted the mutineers asylum, but a few dozen of them decided to return to Sevastopol. Among the latter, a few were sentenced to death and the rest exiled to Siberia. The leader Matiushenko returned to **Russia** in

1907, supposedly under the terms of an amnesty, but was tried and hanged. Most of the remaining crewmen returned to Russia only after the Bolshevik Revolution in 1917; in the following decades, the Soviet government held their mutiny up as a heroic episode.

POW. *See* PRISONERS OF WAR.

PRE-DREADNOUGHT BATTLESHIPS. The common type of **battleship** constructed between 1890 and 1905, and the most powerful capital ships in the Russo–Japanese War. While this term may be applied to any battleship that was designed and built prior to the launching of the legendary battleship HMS *Dreadnought* in 1906, it is usually used to define battleships that directly preceded the **dreadnoughts** and were completed in 1890–1905 in particular. Equipped with a limited number (usually four) of heavy guns, numerous lighter guns (secondary and tertiary armament), and heavy armor on vital portions of the ship, pre-dreadnought battleships had only a few guns that could penetrate the armor of their peers. The typical pre-dreadnought, a standard set by the British **Royal Navy** in the ever-improving series of classes *Royal Sovereign*, *Majestic*, *Canopus*, *Formidable*, and *King Edward VII*, boasted a displacement of 10,000–15,000 tons. It was armed with four guns of 305 millimeters [12 inches] in two armored rotating turrets (one fore, one aft) and a secondary battery of 12 to 16 guns of 152 millimeters [6 inches], and it had a speed of 12–18 knots. With several variations, most battleships of the Russo–Japanese War had similar characteristics. With the emergence of the HMS *Dreadnought*, more than 100 pre-dreadnought battleships became obsolete, including all the battleships that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. In a few years, dreadnought battleships became the measure and standard of naval supremacy.

PRESS. *See* WAR CORRESPONDENTS.

PREWAR MILITARY BALANCE. *See* MILITARY BALANCE.

PREWAR RUSSO–JAPANESE TREATIES. *See* RUSSO–JAPANESE TREATIES, PREWAR.

PRISONER CAMPS. Areas for the internment of **prisoners of war** captured during hostilities. During the Russo–Japanese War, the Russians had relatively few prisoners, whereas the Japanese captured tens of thousands and were forced to create large facilities for incarcerating them already in the early stages of the war. Russian prisoners were sent to 29 camps in **Japan**, the biggest in Hamadera (now in the city of Sakai), with 28,174 prisoners (as of 30 April 1904). Kanazawa had 5,580, and Fukuoka, Himeji, and Sendai housed 2,000–3,000 prisoners each. The most famous cluster of camps was located near the town of **Matsuyama** on the island of Shikoku, where a decade earlier Chinese prisoners had been held. The Japanese authorities, and representatives of the Japanese **Red Cross** in particular, were more than willing to volunteer their facilities and demonstrate their generous hospitality. The 4,043 prisoners there (as of 30 April 1904) were given relatively plenty of food, kept under adequate sanitary conditions, and allowed to stroll freely in the town. Visitors to the camps attributed the fine mental condition of the prisoners to the Japanese treatment, and described the Russian prisoners as cheerful and happy. The testimony of Russian prisoners indicates that the conditions in Matsuyama were not only a show for visitors. The prisoners had expected cruelty, an American observer noted, but "were astonished to find themselves surrounded by what they were pleased to call paradise." Many of them attested that "they had never fared better in their lives." Japanese prisoners were sent initially to detention camps in Siberia, particularly in Tomsk, and eventually transferred to a prisoner camp in Medved [Medvage], about 480 kilometers [300 miles] southeast of **St. Petersburg**.

PRISONERS OF WAR. Members of the regular or irregular armed forces of the two belligerents held captive by the enemy, exceeding 80,000 men during the Russo–Japanese War. Compared with later and earlier conflicts of both nations, this war was remarkable for the decent treatment of combatant and civilian prisoners. This difference is particularly evident in the positive attitude both sides held to prisoners of war, especially since the Russians captured relatively few men whereas the Japanese were burdened with tens of thousands. This numerical imbalance suggests that the fair treatment the Japanese meted out to their Russian prisoners was not aimed at mitigating

the enemy's treatment of the limited number of Japanese prisoners held in **Russia**. With the outbreak of the war, the Japanese government issued regulations regarding the humane treatment of enemy prisoners and established a Prisoners of War Information Bureau in the Army Ministry. These rules were followed strictly, especially in light of the international uproar about the massacre at Port Arthur immediately after it fell to the Japanese in 1894 during the **First Sino-Japanese War**.

In sum, the Japanese held 79,454 Russian prisoners, whereas Russia held 2,088 Japanese prisoners. The Russian prisoners consisted of 63,243 men of the **Imperial Russian Army** and 16,211 men of the **Imperial Russian Navy**. Among them, 72,418 men were held in **prisoner camps** and the remainder were released or died shortly after being captured. Japanese prisoners were composed of 1,602 men of the **Imperial Japanese Army**, 24 men of the **Imperial Japanese Navy**, and 462 noncombatants, mainly crewmen of ships of the Japanese merchant marine. Among the Japanese prisoners, about 2,000 were held in Russian prisoner camps, 44 were released, and 44 died before being sent to camps in European Russia. The Japanese prisoners were kept in Russia in reasonable conditions and in Medved were allowed to go out of the camp for shopping, using their monthly allowances of 50 rubles. In January 1905 they were visited by the American consul, whose petition to the Russian government for the release of the Japanese noncombatants, in accordance with the Geneva Convention, was approved in the following months. In addition to its treatment of enemy prisoners, the Russian government deported a few thousand Japanese civilians residing in Siberia during the first months of the campaign. Those living in Irkutsk, for example, were deported as early as 15 February 1904 to Chita, and then, following an order of viceroy **Evgenii Alekseev**, they were sent farther to the west and far from the front.

The relatively low number of Japanese prisoners suggests that already at this stage, Japanese soldiers acted according to **bushido** dictates. However, there were still no clear-cut rules prohibiting surrender, nor were there legal measures that could be taken against prisoners after their release. Following the Treaty of Portsmouth, the prisoners began to be repatriated in December 1905. The Japanese prisoners returned on 15 December, while the repatriation of the Rus-

sians was not completed before 20 February 1906. International circumstances were reflected in Japan's willingness to adhere to international codes of conduct in battle. Prior to the war, Japan adopted the obligations regarding land warfare and human rights of prisoners of war, which were determined in the first Geneva Convention of 1864, the Brussels Declaration of 1874, and the Hague Convention of the **Hague Peace Conference** of 1899. Japan followed the rules and boasted of its fair play. Its strictly proper conduct led Western nations, **Great Britain** and the **United States** in particular, to recognize Japan as a "civilized nation." This attitude was maintained during World War I, when Japan held several thousand German prisoners captured at Tsingtao [Qingdao] and treated them generously as well. In 1929, however, Japan refused to adopt the new Geneva Convention, claiming that the differential approach to prisoners of war would impose duties only on Japan. Having refused to follow Western conventions, Japan thereupon embarked on the path of fanaticism, at least in the eyes of the West, regarding the treatment of the enemy's prisoners as well as its own soldiers captured by the enemy. During World War II this attitude led to high rates of mortality among Allied prisoners held by the Japanese as well as very low numbers of Japanese soldiers being taken prisoner until the final stages of the war.

PROPAGANDA. Dissemination and promulgation of information designed to influence wartime public opinion to favor a particular belligerent or cause; practiced by both sides during the Russo–Japanese War. **Russia** and **Japan** used every medium available to their culture and technology at that time, such as newspapers, periodicals, books, paintings, photographs, poems, leaflets, posters, and monumental sculptures to mobilize public opinion at home and abroad. In both nations, the common people were also dependent on popular media to characterize the enemy, and much of the information came in graphic form. Whereas Russian propaganda used *lubki* prints that tended to ridicule the enemy, in Japan the most popular format for war prints was *nishiki-e* triptychs, which like newspaper accounts manifested the epitome of Japanese bravery. In the same vein, the Russian soldiers received playing cards that presented the Japanese as miniature monkeys being beaten by giant Russians, whereas the Japanese soldiers were under growing patriotic and militant indoctrination in the

spirit of **bushido** and **Yamato damashii** in schools throughout the decade since the **First Sino–Japanese War**. Moreover, during the war the Japanese government and local authorities exploited public gatherings and mass rallies to boost patriotic feelings, whereas in Russia such events were viewed after January 1905 as promoting revolutionary ideas.

The Japanese government was better prepared to mobilize public opinion not only at home but also abroad. Japan's campaign to promote a respected image in the West began in 1898, when a small group of Foreign Ministry officials conducted a systematic survey of Western public opinion about Japan in the foreign press. Japan took an active role in shaping Western perceptions. The primary goal of its public relations campaign was to reshape its lingering images as semi-civilized. A secondary goal was to mitigate Western criticism of Japan's military conduct during the First Sino–Japanese War, like that voiced after a massacre of Chinese civilians at **Port Arthur**, as well as any rising **Yellow Peril** fears in connection with Japan's newfound military might following that war. Critically, Japan also wished to thwart any international opposition such as occurred when a victorious Japan saw most of its spoils taken away by the European powers.

To this end, in 1900 officials established a communications network in Europe designed to gather information on Japan published in the European press and to promulgate the Japanese government's official line. As the conflict with Russia approached, the Japanese cabinet met on 30 December 1903 to discuss ways to prevent the clamor of Yellow Peril from rising again in the West. Consequently the government appointed two special envoys to coordinate public relations activities. The envoys, **Suematsu Kenchô** in Europe and **Kaneko Kentarô** in the **United States**, attempted to put a positive face on Japanese actions, meeting with correspondents and politicians and writing promotional articles.

While the Japanese authorities were apprehensive about **war correspondents** during the early stages of the war, they were aware of their importance to the propaganda campaign and became more cooperative with them, as well as with other influential groups. They granted approval to a number of American missionaries, nurses, and medical personnel, such as the physician **Anita McGee**, to assist in

their war effort by visiting military hospitals and conducting other charitable activities. Awake to the role missionaries played in American society, Japanese officials and clergy encouraged them to promote the view that the war was neither a religious nor a racial conflict, but only a war between two nations. These pro-Japanese missionaries were instrumental in attenuating American affinity for Russia as they stressed the differences between the Russian Orthodox Church and the Christianity of the "progressive nations in the West," as well as the lack of freedom of thought and religious practice in Russia. In contrast, although Japan was a non-Christian state once depicted as "heathen," missionaries now presented Japan as "Christianity's proxy in Northeast Asia."

Russian authorities, on the other hand, did very little to reshape their international image as a harsh and expansionist nation during the war. Their only attempt to affect this image occurred during the **Portsmouth Peace Conference**, and was masterminded by the charismatic head of the Russian delegation, **Sergei Witte**. His ability to mobilize partial support by the American public can be attributed to his awareness of the importance of propaganda but also to growing fears of Japanese power toward the end of the hostilities. As soon as the war ended, the now militarily secure Japanese government became less interested in its intentional image, and Japan was gradually perceived in the West, as well as in **China**, as an aggressive and dangerous state.

Combat propaganda was not yet developed during the Russo–Japanese War, and the two belligerents did little to affect the motivation of each other's troops. While modern means such as broadcasts and airborne pamphlets did not yet exist, the **Imperial Japanese Army** attempted in the latter half of the war to employ propaganda to demoralize Russian soldiers. In the trench front prior to the **battle of Mukden**, it distributed pamphlets in Russian about the disturbances in European Russia and launched balloons with posters depicting the leisure awaiting **prisoners of war** in the Japanese **prisoner camps**.

PROTECTORATE AGREEMENT [KOREAN–JAPANESE CONVENTION OF 1905; ULSA TREATY] (1905). A convention signed between **Japan** and **Korea** in the aftermath of the Russo–Japanese War. The agreement was concluded on 18 November 1905, after

Japanese troops occupied the Royal Palace in **Seoul**. It made Korea into a Japanese protectorate and is considered a major step toward the annexation of Korea five years later. The agreement covered several issues: Japan was to assume complete responsibility for Korean foreign affairs, a Japanese resident-general was to be appointed to control the Korean government, and trade in Korean ports was to be placed under Japanese control. By some accounts the Japanese coerced the agitated Korean acting prime minister to sign the agreement, an act that induced other ministers to consent as well. To please the Korean sovereign **Kojong** and gain his approval, the Japanese representative **Itô Hirobumi** added with his own brush a clause stating that the treaty would expire once Korea was strong enough to maintain its own independence. Korean protests against the agreement were brought to the **Hague Peace Conference** of 1907 and consequently led to the forced abdication of Kojong.

PUTILOV M-1903 FIELD GUN. Main field gun of the **Imperial Russian Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. It was designed by N. A. Zabudskii and manufactured at the Putilov Iron Works in **St. Petersburg**. An ordinary **artillery** regiment consisted of 36 guns, divided into six batteries in two battalions. The gun was first introduced at the **battle of Telissu** and partly replaced the slightly older model Putilov M-1900 and the French model 1897 75-millimeter gun.

Technical data: Caliber: 76.2mm [3in.]; Battle station weight: 1,960kg; Muzzle velocity: 589m/sec; Max range: 7,750m, effective range: 4,500m; Ammunition weight: 7.45kg.

PYONGYANG [*HEIJÔ*]. Major Korean city in the northern part of the Korean peninsula (now the capital of North Korea); occupied by Japanese forces during the Russo–Japanese War. It is located on the banks of the Taedong River, inland of the Korea Bay of the Yellow Sea (39° 02' north and 125° 75' east), about 240 kilometers [150 miles] north of the capital, **Seoul**. Pyongyang is the oldest city extant in **Korea** today, and it was largely destroyed during the **First Sino–Japanese War**. During the first stages of the Russo–Japanese War, it was held by a small unit of **Cossacks**. On 21 February 1904, a transport party of the **12th Division** of the Japanese **First Army** arrived in the town and drove the Russians out. The main body of the

division began to enter Pyongyang four days later and vacated the town on 18 March 1904. During March and April 1904, it became a recruiting center for more than 10,000 Korean coolies, needed for the supplies of the advancing Japanese troops. Additional units of the First Army arriving from Chinampo [Nampo] in late March reoccupied Pyongyang and made it a supply center for the troops due to take part in the **battle of the Yalu**. During the subsequent Japanese occupation of Korea, Pyongyang was rebuilt and became an industrial center, but it was later destroyed by American air raids. After World War II, it became the capital of North Korea. During the Korean War, it was taken over for a short time by forces of the United Nations. Soon, however, it was taken by Chinese forces and rebuilt with Chinese and Soviet help.

– Q –

QUEEN MIN, ASSASSINATION OF. *See* MIN, ASSASSINATION OF QUEEN.

– R –

RADIO. A system of wireless **communications**; used by both belligerents during the Russo–Japanese War for military applications, and by **war correspondents** to transmit news of the war.

RED CROSS. An international organization designed primarily to care for the sick, the wounded, and **prisoners of war**, with branches with both belligerents during the Russo–Japanese War. Founded in 1864, the Red Cross wished to bring the spirit of humanitarianism to warfare by organizing medical and nursing teams to aid soldiers. The organization advanced the goal that every civilized society should respect and care for all those who were wounded and killed in battle, regardless of which side they fought for. During the latter half of the 19th century, this purpose began to materialize through the creation of international volunteer societies. The Russian Red Cross Society was established in 1867 and

was one of the first branches, whereas **Japan** organized a benevolent society to care for sick and wounded troops during the Satsuma Rebellion of 1877. Over the next decade, this group was transformed into the Red Cross Society of Japan (Nippon Sekijûjisha) and in 1887, with about 100,000 members, became officially recognized by the International Committee of the Red Cross at its annual meeting in **Germany**.

On the eve of the Russo–Japanese War, the Japanese Red Cross Society was the largest in the world, numbering about 1 million members. This impressive growth was due to the direct involvement of the Japanese imperial family as well as the centralization of the activities of the organization. The attendance of the Emperor Meiji and his consort at general meetings of the organization attracted to it other members of the aristocracy and high-ranking officials and made membership socially desirable. The positive image of the organization as enlightened and "modern" led to a change of attitude about women acting as nurses. Women nurses were allowed for the first time to serve at the front during the **First Sino–Japanese War**. A decade later, during the Russo–Japanese War, their presence and role became evident.

The Japanese Red Cross hosted groups of volunteer nurses from the **United States**, **Great Britain**, **France**, and Germany, thereby helping to shape the image of Japan as a civilized nation. The activities of the Japanese Red Cross during the Russo–Japanese War shattered some implicit Western notions regarding the exclusiveness of humane behavior to Christian nations alone. Many **military observers** praised the Japanese for their care of injured Russian soldiers and prisoners. Furthermore, admiring reports of visiting American medical staff, notably the physician **Anita McGee**, prompted U.S. President **Theodore Roosevelt** in 1905 to sign into law a bill that empowered the government to reorganize and revitalize the American Red Cross Society. In the aftermath of the Russo–Japanese War, and more especially after World War I, the development of the Red Cross movement showed a worldwide tendency to regard the alleviation of human suffering, whatever its source, as falling within the purview of the Red Cross.

REIZENSTEIN, NIKOLAI. *See* REUZENSTEIN, NIKOLAI.

RENNENKAMPF, PAVEL [PAUL] KARLOVICH VON (1854–1918). Russian army officer who served as commanding officer of a **cavalry** division and a corps during the Russo–Japanese War and became an important military figure during World War I. Rennenkampf was born into a family of the Baltic German nobility, graduated from a military school in Helsinki, and entered the cavalry in 1873. Subsequently he enrolled in the General Staff Academy and after graduation was appointed to the general staff in 1882. In 1895 he received command of a cavalry regiment and in 1900 was promoted to major general. During the **Boxer Uprising**, he commanded a small detachment in **Manchuria**, and the exploits of his **Cossack** unit against superior forces earned him an unmerited reputation for daring and decisiveness. At the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, Rennenkampf commanded the Trans-Baikal Cavalry Division. In the ensuing campaign, he took part in several major battles and commanded successively larger combined army groups, by and large protecting one of the Russian army's flanks.

During the engagement around the pass of Motienling [Motien Pass; *Matenrei*] in June–July 1904, Rennenkampf assisted Lieutenant General **Fedor Keller** in an attempt to halt the Japanese **First Army**, but he was shot through the thigh and temporarily relieved of his duty until the **battle of Liaoyang**. At the **battle of Sha-ho** he commanded a detachment of the left flank reserves. In February 1905 he was appointed commander of the cavalry corps, and during the **battle of Mukden** he commanded about two-thirds of the total Russian cavalry. His performance in this battle was considered relatively good, as he stabilized the situation and successfully held the left flank. Despite Rennenkampf's failure during the war to employ his troops in reconnaissance missions and shock attacks, or to influence positively any of the campaigns he took part in, his career was in no way hindered and his fame as a bold and intrepid commander grew greater.

In July 1905, Rennenkampf assumed command of the newly formed **Seventh Siberian Army Corps** and held this position until September that year. In late 1905 he was chosen to command a punitive detachment to restore order along the Trans-Baikal Railroad and in the city of Chita, which were in the hands of mutinous soldiers. He accomplished this task, but in the following years, revolutionaries made several attempts on his life. In 1913 he was appointed commander of the troops

in the Vilna Military District; at the outbreak of World War I, he was in command of the First Army, which invaded Eastern Prussia. His inaction during the **battle of Tannenberg**, in which the adjacent army of General **Aleksandr Samsonov** was annihilated, was a bitter disappointment, and he was even suspected of treachery. At the beginning of 1915, however, he was recalled and served as commander of the northern front. Under the pressure of public indignation, he was eventually dismissed from service and soon after killed by the Bolsheviks.

***RETVIZAN*.** Russian **battleship** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. The only ship in the new *Retvizan* class, she was deemed one of the best Russian battleships of her time. Following her commission, she was stationed in **Port Arthur** as part of the second sub-division of the **Pacific Fleet** before the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War. During the initial Japanese **naval attack on Port Arthur**, she was hit by a **torpedo**. In the **battle of the Yellow Sea**, she was further damaged by 18 hits of gun shells. She ultimately sank in the harbor on 6 December 1904 during the final stages of the **siege of Port Arthur** after taking 13 hits of 280-millimeter [11-inch] **howitzer** shells. She was raised and repaired by the **Imperial Japanese Navy** after the surrender of the fort, recommissioned as the *Hizen* in 1908, and served uneventfully until she was sunk as a target in 1924.

Technical data: Builder: William Cramp, Philadelphia, United States, 1898–1902; Displ.: 12,900t; LBD: 117.85×22.00×7.92m [387×72×26ft]; Machinery: 24 Niclausse boilers, 2-shaft VTE, 17,000ihp; Speed: 18kt; Fuel: 1,000/2,000t coal; Armament: 4×305mm/40 [12in.] (2×2), 12×152mm/45 [6in.], 20×11pdr, 8×1pdr, 6×381mm [15in.] TT (4AW 2sub), 45 MN; Armor: KC, belt: 127–229mm [5–9in.], belt ends: 51mm, CT: 254mm [10in.], turrets: 203–229mm [8–9in.], battery and casemates: 127mm [5in.]; Comp.: 738.

REUZENSTEIN [REIZENSTEIN], NIKOLAI KARLOVICH (1854–1916). Russian naval officer who served as commander of the **Vladivostok Squadron** at the beginning of the Russo–Japanese War and subsequently fulfilled various senior assignments with the **Pacific Fleet**. He graduated from the Naval College in 1872 and served as a **mine** and **torpedo** warfare flag officer on the Pacific Fleet staff in 1886–1887. From 1891 to 1895, Reuzenstein was executive officer on

the clipper *Razboynik*. He commanded the **gunvessel** *Ersh* and was then made flag-mine officer of the Practice Squadron of the **Baltic Fleet**, often stationed in the Mediterranean Sea. In 1895–1898 he commanded the navy transport *Evropa* and in 1899 was appointed commander of the **cruiser** ***Askold***. On the day the Russo–Japanese War broke out, Captain Reuzenstein was appointed commander of the small squadron stationed in **Vladivostok**. On 15 March 1904, however, he was assigned by the new commander of the Pacific Fleet, Vice Admiral **Stepan Makarov**, to command the cruisers at **Port Arthur** and was promoted to rear admiral. During the **battle of the Yellow Sea**, Reuzenstein was aboard the *Askold*. When he noticed that the **battleship** ***Tsessarevich*** was badly hit and out of control, and the second in command, Rear Admiral **Pavel Ukhtomskii,** was momentarily unable to take command due to loss of the signal masts of his ship, he raised the signal of assuming command of the fleet on the *Askold*. The signal, however, was either missed or ignored by the battle line, except for the cruiser ***Novik***, which ultimately headed alone to Vladivostok. Reuzenstein brought his badly damaged cruiser to Shanghai, where the ship and her crew were interned until the end of the war.

REVOLUTION OF 1905. The most significant internal event in **Russia** during the Russo–Japanese War, with unequivocal repercussions on Russian decision-making during and after the war. The revolution exerted a detrimental effect on motivation at the front and necessitated the mobilization of troops to maintain public order in the rear. It consequently affected the general capability of Russia's military power and influenced the tsar's willingness to end the war and join the **Portsmouth Peace Conference**. The origins of the revolution lay in decades of revolutionary activity that was harshly oppressed during the reign of Tsar Alexander III. The refusal of his son, Tsar **Nicholas II**, to grant concessions on his accession in 1894 and the heavy taxation during the following decade resulted in mounting distress among peasants and industrial workers. During the 1890s a series of bad harvests and consequent starvation among the peasants, as well as growing discontent among the rising middle class and industrial workers in the cities, led to renewed revolutionary activity.

In the years before the Russo–Japanese War, three political movements attracted most of the anti-tsarist Russians. At one extreme were

the liberal constitutionalists, who sought to replace tsarist rule with a Western-type parliamentary government. At the other extreme were the Marxists, who wanted to promote revolution among the urban workers. In between was the Socialist Revolutionary Party, which sought to promote a revolution among rural peasants and workers in the cities. In 1898 the Marxists established the Russian Social Democratic Labor Party, and five years later this party split into the Bolsheviks (members of the majority), under **Vladimir Lenin**, and the Mensheviks (members of the minority).

Russia's successive defeats during the first half of the Russo–Japanese War, culminating in the surrender of **Port Arthur** in early January 1905, brought the discontent into the open. Public disorder began on 22 January when tsarist troops opened fire on a non-violent demonstration in **St. Petersburg** leading to a massacre known as **Bloody Sunday**. The tsar's promise in March to summon a "consultative assembly" was insufficient to calm the mounting agitation. Throughout the spring and early summer of 1905, there were strikes, severe civil disturbances, such as the **Lodz uprising**, and assassinations of political figures, such as Grand Duke **Sergei Aleksandrovich Romanov** and Interior Minister **Viacheslav Plehve**. The **Potemkin mutiny**, which broke out aboard the **battleship *Kniaz Potemkin Tavritcheskii*** of the **Black Sea Fleet** in June 1905, affected other units in the army and navy.

The revolutionary activities continued after the conclusion of the **Treaty of Portsmouth**. At the end of October, all European Russia was paralyzed by a general strike, directed in the capital by the first workers' council (*soviet*). The tsar eventually yielded on 30 October, granting Russia a constitution that promised a legislative **Duma**. This so-called **October Manifesto** split the revolutionaries into two camps. The majority were willing to accept the tsar's concessions, believing that their revolution had won the desired outcomes. The Social Democrats, however, still sought the total overthrow of the tsarist system and continued resistance for several weeks. There was relentless street fighting, notably in Moscow, until early January 1906. This resulted in over 1,000 deaths. The revolutionaries were suppressed by the regime, which used drastic methods following the mobilization of many troops. The Revolution of 1905 is often regarded as one of the precursors of the Bolshevik Revolution in 1917, which brought down the tsarist regime and led to the rise of the Soviet Union, which existed for the next seven decades.

REVOLVERS. Small firearms equipped with a revolving cylinder or cartridge with several bullets, allowing repeated fire without loading; used by officers of both belligerents during the Russo–Japanese War. **Russia** and **Japan** provided their officers, military policemen, and some of the **infantry** non-commissioned officers with new models of revolvers during the decade before the war. Whereas most of the Japanese officers used the **Type 26 revolver** with a caliber of 9 millimeters [0.354 inches], the Russian officers used the **Nagant M-95** with a caliber of 7.62 millimeters [0.30 inches]. Some officers on both sides, however, carried foreign-made revolvers that they purchased privately.

RIFLES. Firearms designed to be carried and fired by one man from the shoulder; used extensively by **infantry** and **cavalry** forces of both sides during the Russo–Japanese War. During the late 19th century, the rifle underwent intense development, which kept it as the fundamental weapon in infantry fighting. From the 1890s, most major armies introduced small-bore, bolt-action weapons firing multiple (usually five) rounds from a spring-loaded clip inserted into the magazine. The rifles used in the war were thus of relatively modern design with practical breech loading, magazine loading, and smokeless powder. During the Russo–Japanese War, the **Imperial Japanese Army** used the **Arisaka Type 30 rifle** and toward the end of the war began to replace it with the improved **Arisaka Type 38 rifle**, both with a caliber of 6.5 millimeters [0.256 inches]. Due to the insufficient number of Arisaka Type 30 rifles during the latter stages of the war, the army also provided the obsolete 11-millimeter **Murata Type 22 rifle** to some reserve units, whereas the **Imperial Japanese Navy** used the 6.5-millimeter **Nambu Type 35 rifle**. The **Imperial Russian Army** used the somewhat older but reliable **Mosin M-1891 rifle** with a caliber of 7.62 millimeters [0.30 inches]. Infantry rifles had a **bayonet** attached, which was often used in close-contact fighting.

RIURIK. *See* RURIK.

ROMANOV, ALEKSANDR MIKHAILOVICH (1866–1933). Russian navy officer and a grand duke who took charge of dispatching the **Russian Volunteer Fleet** during the Russo–Japanese War. In 1903 he was promoted to rear admiral and appointed deputy commander of the **Black Sea Fleet**. During the Russo–Japanese War, he

commanded the preparation and activities of the auxiliary cruisers of the Russian Volunteer Fleet. Romanov headed the Special Committee of Navy Reinforcement and collected donations, which financed the construction of 19 **destroyers** and four **submarines**. After the war he took active part in the restoration of the **Russian Imperial Navy**, and in 1909 he was promoted to vice admiral. After the Bolshevik Revolution, he emigrated to **France** and died in Paris.

ROMANOV, ALEKSEI ALEKSANDROVICH (1850–1908). Russian grand duke and naval officer who was a leading figure in the **Imperial Russian Navy** during the Russo–Japanese War. Aleksei Aleksandrovich was the third son of Tsar Alexander II and was groomed for a position in the navy. He was given command of the Russian forces on the Danube River during the Russo–Turkish War of 1877–1878. In the following years, he earned promotion to adjutant general and in 1881 was appointed commander-in-chief of the Imperial Russian Navy, hence head of the Navy Ministry. In 1883 he was promoted to general-admiral of the fleet, the highest rank in the Imperial Russian Navy, held earlier in the 19th century only by Grand Duke Konstantin Nikolaevich. Aleksei Aleksandrovich held this position for the next 22 years and was a principal figure in strategic decision-making regarding naval operations during the Russo–Japanese War. Consequently he was accused of faulty planning during the conflict and poor preparations beforehand. With the defeat at the **battle of Tsushima**, he was held responsible for the destruction of the Imperial Russian Navy and resigned on 2 June 1905. Following his retirement from service, he left **Russia** and died in Paris three years later.

ROMANOV, NIKOLAI ALEKSANDROVICH. *See* NICHOLAS II, EMPEROR.

ROMANOV, SERGEI ALEKSANDROVICH (1857–1905). Russian grand duke and administrator who fell victim to a major political assassination during the Russo–Japanese War. He was the fourth son of Tsar Alexander II and took part in the Russo–Turkish War of 1877–1878 as a junior officer. Following extensive travels to Europe and Palestine in the early 1880s, Sergei Aleksandrovich became chair of semi-religious societies, and in 1884 he married Elizabeth of Hesse, a sister of the future bride of his nephew, the future Tsar

Nicholas II. In 1887 Sergei Aleksandrovich was appointed commanding officer of the Preobrazhenskii Guards. He became governor-general of Moscow and commanding officer of the Moscow Military District in 1891, holding this position until his death. In this capacity, Sergei Aleksandrovich was responsible for the celebrations planned on the occasion of Nicholas's coronation in 1896 and the consequent great massacre, which caused much resentment against him personally. During the Russo–Japanese War, Sergei Aleksandrovich opposed proposals to add elected members to the council of state, but he resigned his post as governor-general of Moscow one day before the massacre of **Bloody Sunday**. On 17 February 1905, a bomb thrown at his coach killed him instantly, and fears of further assassination attempts kept most of the imperial family from his funeral. His violent death prompted Nicholas II to issue the first manifesto promising future concessions, while simultaneously reaffirming his determination to maintain his autocratic rule in another manifesto.

ROOSEVELT, THEODORE (1858–1919). American statesman who served as the 26th president of the **United States** and whose incumbency coincided with the Russo–Japanese War. He became chief mediator between the belligerents at the **Portsmouth Peace Conference**. Roosevelt was born in New York City, graduated from Harvard, and lived for a while on a ranch in Dakota. Entering Republican politics in his home state, he served as assistant secretary to the navy, but he quit in 1898 to organize a volunteer force that he led in Cuba; soon after he became a national hero during the Spanish–American War. Roosevelt was later elected governor of New York and in 1896 ran for U.S. vice president alongside presidential candidate William McKinley.After President McKinley's assassination in 1901, Roosevelt became the youngest president in American history. At the beginning of the Russo–Japanese War, he appeared to manifest pro-Japanese tendencies, but as time passed he began to fear the strengthening of **Japan**, and especially the loss of the system of political checks and balances that had been maintained until the war in East Asia. In October 1904, Roosevelt expressed his opinion with regard to the two opponents, wishing them to balance and weaken each other, but in February 1905 sent messages to the Russian representatives regarding his readiness to mediate between the sides.

Roosevelt acted as the prime mediator at the Portsmouth Peace Conference but did not attend the sessions, although he exerted the necessary influence and pressure to accomplish the settlement. Due to his part in the conference and bringing about what was thought to be an impossible peace, in 1906 Roosevelt became the first American to win the Nobel Peace Prize. At the international conference that followed the **Moroccan Crisis**, he sided with **France** and **Great Britain**, causing **Germany** to back down on its demands. His conduct during the war, his naval expansion program, and his efforts to complete the Panama Canal made the United States a world power. After leaving the presidency, Roosevelt retired from politics and traveled to Africa. He later tried to reenter politics running as an independent candidate and splitting the Republican votes, thus allowing Woodrow Wilson's victory. During World War I he campaigned for the United States to enter the war and later welcomed the League of Nations. He died before he could offer this body any political support.

ROOT, ELIHU (1845–1937). American statesman and diplomat who served as secretary of war at the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War and secretary of state at the time of the **Portsmouth Peace Conference**. Root was born at Clinton, New York, and graduated from Hamilton College and the New York University Law School in 1867. After a stint as a corporate lawyer, he was U.S. attorney for the Southern District of New York during 1883–1885, and a delegate to the State Constitutional Convention of 1894, acting as chair of its judiciary committee. Root became **Theodore Roosevelt**'s legal advisor in 1895. Four years later, he was appointed secretary of war, a position in which he served until February 1904 in the cabinets of Presidents William McKinley and Roosevelt. During the **Boxer Uprising**, Root sent American troops to **China,** and as a secretary of state in 1905–1909, he was involved in the Portsmouth Peace Conference and the **Takahira–Root agreement** signed with **Japan** in 1908. A year later, Root was elected senator for New York and in 1910 was appointed chief counsel for the United States before the Hague Tribunal for the arbitration of the long-standing dispute with **Great Britain** concerning fisheries. He was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize in 1912 and helped to create the Permanent Court of International Justice at the Hague in 1920–1921. Following his participation in the

Washington Naval Arms Limitation Conference in 1921–1922, Root devised the Pacific agreements that resulted in the cancellation of the **Anglo–Japanese Alliance**, and he drafted the Four-Power Pacific Treaty, which took its place.

ROSEN [ROZEN], ROMAN ROMANOVICH (1847–1921). Russian diplomat who served as minister in **Tokyo** until the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War and plenipotentiary at the **Portsmouth Peace Conference**. Rosen was born into a baronial family of Swedish and German ancestry, which served the Russian crown for generations. He graduated from the University of Dorpat and the Imperial Academy of Law. Rosen joined the Asiatic Department of the Foreign Ministry, and became head of the Japanese Bureau in 1875. That year he drafted the **Russo–Japanese Treaty** over **Sakhalin** and the Kuril Islands, which was signed the same year, and subsequently he was appointed first secretary of the legation in Yokohama, where he served for eight years until 1883. A year later, Rosen was appointed consul in New York and in 1886–1889 headed the Russian embassy in Washington as temporary chargé d'affaires. In 1891 he inaugurated the Russian legation in Mexico City and served there as **Russia**'s first minister until 1893. Two years later, Rosen was appointed minister to Serbia, where he contributed to the conclusion of the Austro–Russian agreement of 1897. The same year he returned to **Japan** as minister, and a year later signed the **Nishi–Rosen agreement** concerning the respective interests of Russia and Japan in **Korea**.

Fearing that the two nations were on a collision course, Rosen criticized Russian naval activity along the Korean coast and was recalled in 1899. After assignments in Bavaria and Athens, he was ordered back to Tokyo in April 1903. Whereas in Russian eyes his reports were too alarming, in Japanese eyes he was considered ineffective since his superiors did not share his views. With the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, Rosen left Japan and in May 1905 was appointed ambassador to the **United States**. With **Sergei Witte**, he led the Russian delegation to the Portsmouth Peace Conference. He stayed in Washington as ambassador until 1911, when he retired and became a life member of the state council. During the final phases of World War I, Rosen urged Russia's foreign ministers to negotiate a general peace, and after the Bolshevik Revolution in 1917 he fled to

the United States. He spent his last two years in poverty, making a living as a translator and business consultant, and died of pneumonia after being hit by a taxi.

ROSSIA* [*ROSSIYA*].** Russian armored **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was the only ship of the relatively new *Rossia* class, which was an improvement on the design of the ***Rurik. At the outbreak of the war, she belonged to the **Vladivostok Independent Cruiser Squadron** as part of the **Pacific Fleet**. She took part in the exploits of her cruiser squadron, including the **attack on the Tsushima Straits**, and survived an engagement with Japanese cruisers in the **battle of the Korea Straits** although she suffered heavy damage. Consequently the *Rossia* remained uneventfully in **Vladivostok** until the end of the war and was rearmed in 1906. During World War I, she served in the **Baltic Fleet**, partly as a **minelayer**, and was ultimately scrapped in 1922.

Technical data: Builder: Baltic Works, St. Petersburg, Russia, 1894–1897; Displ.: 12,195t; LBD: 146.45×20.88×7.92m [480.5×68.5×26ft]; Machinery: 32 Belleville boilers, 3-shaft VTE (only 2 at full power), 15,500ihp; Speed: 20.2kt; Fuel: 2,500t coal; Armament: 4×203mm/45 [8in.] (4×1), 16×152mm/45 [6in.], 12×11pdr, 20×3pdr, 16×1pdr, 5×381mm [15in.] TT AW; Armor: Harvey nickel, belt: 102–203mm [4–8in.], battery: 127mm [5in.] bulkheads only, CT: 305mm [12in.]; Comp.: 842.

ROYAL NAVY, BRITISH. The largest navy in the world in the 19th and early 20th centuries, and somewhat affected by the conclusions derived from the naval warfare in the Russo–Japanese War. At the turn of the century, **Great Britain** realized it would not be able to sustain its naval advantage, known as the "Two-Power Standard Plus," due to intense naval construction by its main rivals, **France**, **Germany**, and **Russia**, since the early 1890s. The departure from the long-standing British policy of "splendid isolation," as manifested in the **Anglo–Japanese Alliance** of 1902, somewhat alleviated the situation. Nevertheless, in 1904 the budget of the Royal Navy was double its budget 15 years earlier, and the burden on the British empire began to have an effect. In October 1904, Admiral **John Fisher**, who that year was appointed first lord of the Admiralty, expressed his readiness for

budget cuts, although he actually had no intention of impairing the firepower of the fleet and not even its budget. During the following two years, he removed over 150 obsolete vessels from the operational list, yet at the same time he was aware not only of the need to provide high-quality substitutes for the quantitative loss, but also of the need to increase the firepower of the fleet. Willingness to reduce the number of vessels but not firepower had actually been expressed a few years previously, but the reports by British **military observers** from the war theater did not leave Fisher any room for doubt.

Because of the Anglo–Japanese Alliance, the Royal Navy could reinforce its units in Europe while entrusting part of the burden of its presence in the waters of East Asia to the **Imperial Japanese Navy**. During the Russo–Japanese War, the British commander-in-chief of the **China** station was instructed to withdraw his ships from **Weihaiwei** to avoid interference in the war. Fearing that the Chinese port might become a safe haven for fleeing Russian warships, the Japanese exerted pressure on the British to return their fleet, and the latter eventually consented. More than direct involvement, the Admiralty was interested in the technical and tactical implications of the naval engagements between the Russians and the Japanese, and dispatched several senior officers, among them captains **Ernest Troubridge**, **William Pakenham**, and **Thomas Jackson** to observe the campaign on the Japanese side.

During the war, Fisher and other naval officials noted the need for **submarines**, which could have decided the naval warfare at **Port Arthur**, and after the war the Royal Navy began to consider the submarine as an offensive weapon. The most important development that occurred during the war, however, was the decision to build the **battleship** *Dreadnought*. Her construction began later in 1905, and when she was launched exactly one year later, the *Dreadnought* seemed to satisfy Fisher's requirements of much greater firepower within the limits of the budget. She was so successful, in fact, that **dreadnoughts** made all other battleships obsolete. Although the *Dreadnought* gave some leeway to the British navy, the wide gap ahead of the Imperial German Navy quickly narrowed during the subsequent naval race between the two nations. Following the war, the Royal Navy began also to build **battlecruisers** for the first time, but this novel type of warship proved a disappointment during World War I.

ROZEN, ROMAN ROMANOVICH. *See* ROSEN, ROMAN ROMANOVICH.

ROZHESTVENSKII [ROZHDESTVENSKY], ZINOVII PETROVICH (1848–1909). Russian naval officer who served as commander of the **Second Pacific Squadron** and was in charge of the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet** during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born into the family of a physician and joined the **Imperial Russian Navy** at 17. He graduated from the Naval Academy in 1868, and the Mikhail Artillery Academy in 1873. During the Russo–Turkish War of 1877–1878, Rozhestvenskii served as a commanding officer of a **torpedo boat** and took part in an unsuccessful attack on Turkish warships at Sulina. Later in that war, he served as a senior officer on the auxiliary **cruiser** *Vesta*, which operated against Turkish merchant shipping, and was decorated with the St. George Cross for an allegedly successful engagement with a Turkish warship. After the war he admitted the false reports by his commander, but his career remained unblemished by the scandal. He was sent to reorganize the gunnery branch of the Bulgarian navy. He then returned to the **Baltic Fleet**, and in 1885 moved to London as naval attaché. After returning to **Russia**, Rozhestvenskii was appointed commanding officer of the cruiser ***Vladimir Monomakh*** in 1892, promoted captain in 1894, and then became the commanding officer of the old ironclad *Pervenets*. In 1895 he served in the **Pacific Fleet** in the same squadron as then Captain **Dmitrii von Felkerzam**.

As chief of the gunnery training division of the Baltic Fleet, Rozhestvenskii performed well at a naval gunnery display for German Emperor **William II** in July 1902, and thereafter his rise was meteoric. In a few months he was appointed aide-de-camp to Tsar **Nicholas II**, and subsequently promoted to rear admiral. In March 1903, Rozhestvenskii was appointed by the tsar as chief of the main naval staff, the third highest post in the navy after the navy minister, **Fedor Avelan**, and the general-admiral of the fleet, Grand Duke **Aleksei Aleksandrovich**. He held this post until December 1904. In April 1904 he was simultaneously appointed commander of the Second Pacific Squadron and began to prepare for the huge logistic task. After many delays, in October he sailed with his armada for Asia aboard his flagship ***Kniaz Suvorov***. During the voyage of the Baltic

Fleet, he was aware of the limited combat training of his crews and the limitations of his ships, but he could do little to remedy the situation because of logistic demands such as the constant need for coal and shortage of ammunition. His own deficiencies were apparent soon after departure when his ships opened fire on British trawlers in the **Dogger Bank Incident**. While Rozhestvenskii believed initially that his own voyage was ill-conceived, he vehemently opposed the departure of the **Third Pacific Squadron** and attempted during the voyage to avoid the ill-fitted squadron by setting out from Madagascar without informing the Admiralty of his intended course.

There are various accounts of his behavior during the voyage, and although some of them may have been distorted ideologically, it is obvious that Rozhestvenskii grew bitter and pessimistic as his armada approached Asia. Remote and arrogant, he trusted nobody, apart perhaps from his chief of staff, Captain Clapier de Colongue. With other officers, however, he kept a distance and made no attempt to share with them his battle plan, particularly not with Rear Admiral **Nikolai Nebogatov**, commander of the Third Pacific Squadron. During the **battle of Tsushima**, Rozhestvenskii was seriously wounded in the head by a shell fragment when his ship was hit by shells fired from several Japanese **battleships**. He was moved with most of his staff to the overcrowded **destroyer** *Buinii* on the evening of 27 May 1905. Subsequently he was transferred to the destroyer *Bedovii* and was captured unconscious by **Imperial Japanese Navy** warships the next morning. He recovered in a Japanese hospital, where he was visited by Admiral **Tôgô Heihachirô**. After the war, Rozhestvenskii returned to **St. Petersburg** via the **Trans-Siberian Railway** and retired in May 1906, following the decision to try him by court-martial for his surrender a year earlier. At the trial, he assumed full responsibility for the consequences of the battle but was acquitted because he had been unconscious at the time of his capture. He was a free man again but soon became sick and died in less than three years.

RUDNEV, VSEVOLOD FEDOROVICH (1855–1913). Russian naval officer who served as the commanding officer of the ***Variag*** during the **battle of Chemulpo**. He was born in Tula Province into a family whose men had served in the **Imperial Russian Navy** since the days of Peter the Great. Rudnev graduated from the Naval School

in 1873 and the Fleet Rifle School in 1876, and he was assigned to the **cruiser** *Afrika*, in which he served as senior gunnery officer during a voyage to the Pacific and back in 1880–1882. Rudnev was subsequently promoted to lieutenant, was appointed commanding officer of the steam transport *Petr Velikii* in 1888, and later commanded the **torpedo boat** *Kotlin* and the port steamer *Rabotnik.* He was promoted to commander in 1893 and was appointed executive officer of the **battleship** *Imperator Nikolai I*. Rudnev subsequently became commanding officer of the coastal defense battleship *Admiral Greig* in 1895, followed by command of the **gunvessel** *Gremiashchii*. In 1900 he was appointed senior deputy commanding officer of the naval base at **Port Arthur** and was promoted to captain a year later.

In December 1902, Rudnev received command of the cruiser *Variag* and a year later was sent with his ship to **Chemulpo**. As the most senior in rank, Rudnev was in charge of both the *Variag* and the gunvessel ***Koreets***, but this meager Russian naval presence in **Korea** could not halt the Japanese force. Still, his valiant actions in the battle of Chemulpo on 9 February 1904 won him the status of a hero on his return to **Russia** a month later. In **St. Petersburg** he was awarded the St. George Cross by Tsar **Nicholas II** and was made his aide-de-camp. In April 1904, Rudnev was given command of the new battleship *Andrei Pervozvannii*, whose construction had only recently begun, and of the Fourteenth Fleet Equipage in St. Petersburg. In Autumn 1905, however, his good fortune began to wane with his failure to prevent his crew from holding a meeting to protest the tsar's **October Manifesto**. He was urged to submit his resignation in November 1905 and was placed on the inactive list, although he was promoted simultaneously to rear admiral. Rudnev published several articles in the years until his death eight years later. The Soviet government erected a monument to his memory in Tula in 1956.

***RURIK* [*RYURIK*, *RIURIK*].** Russian armored **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. This barque-rigged vessel was the only ship of the *Rurik* class and was considered unsatisfying in design, with poor compartmentation, inadequate protection, and only half of her armament available on the broadside. On the eve of the war, she belonged to the **Vladivostok Independent Cruiser Squadron** as part of the **Pacific Fleet**. She took part in the exploits of her cruiser

squadron, including the **attack on the Tsushima Straits**, but her luck ran out in the **battle of the Korea Straits**, when she was sunk despite the gallant fight by her crew against two Japanese cruisers.

Technical data: Builder: Baltic Works, St. Petersburg, Russia, 1890–1895; Displ.: 10,933t; LBD: 132.58×20.42×8.30m [435×67×27ft]; Machinery: 8 cylinder boilers, 2-shaft VTE (4 engines), 13,250ihp; Speed: 18.7kt; Fuel: 2,000t coal; Armament: 4×203mm/34 (1×4), 16×152mm/45 [6in.], 6×120mm/45 [4.7in.], 6×3pdr, 10×1pdr, 4×381mm TT AW; Armor: steel, belt: 127–254mm [5–10in.], battery: 229–254mm [9–10in.] bulkheads only, CT: 152mm [6in.]; Comp.: 817.

RUSSIA. One of the two belligerents of the Russo–Japanese War. Tsarist Russia was an empire that stretched from the borders of **Germany** and Sweden in the west to Kamchatka on the edge of Siberia in the east. Its area, which was 22,419,700 square kilometers [8,662,944 square miles], was greater than that of the Soviet Union at its height, and its population of 146 million is comparable to the population of Russia a century later. Russia's history until the Russo–Japanese War was characterized by incessant growth halted occasionally by military setbacks. In the aftermath of the defeat in the Crimean War (1853–1856), Russia signed the Treaty of Paris in 1856. This obliged Russia to cede some of the territory it had taken earlier from the Ottomans, and the pact forbade its warships in or its fortifications around the Black Sea. As a result Russia renewed its expansion in Asia, with growing disputes with **China**. In 1858 and 1860 the Chinese signed treaties giving Russia lands north of the Amur River and east of the Ussuri River. In 1864 Russian forces defeated Muslim rebels in the Caucasus. Central Asia was won during a series of military campaigns from 1865 to 1876. In 1867 Russia sold its Alaskan territory to the **United States** for $7.2 million.

The newly enthroned Tsar Alexander II (reigned 1855–1881) began a series of reforms in an attempt to modernize the nation and catch up with the West. At his inspiration, railroads were developed, the banking system was organized, and reforms were carried out in the education system and the military. In 1861 he freed the serfs and distributed land among them, and subsequently established forms of self-government known as **zemstvo** in towns and villages. Nonetheless, in the mid-1860s

social discontent spread in Russia, leading to a wave of revolutionary activities and terror, and culminating in the assassination of the tsar in 1881. His son, Alexander III (reigned 1881–1894), soon inflicted harsh rule and oppression but continued to develop the Russian economy, with special emphasis on East Asia. He approved the **Trans-Siberian Railway** project in 1891 but died prematurely three years later.

His son, Tsar **Nicholas II** (reigned 1894–1917), bolstered Russia's involvement in East Asia. Following his major involvement in the **Three-Power Intervention** in 1895, a year later he secured from the Chinese the right to extend the Trans-Siberian Railway network into northern **Manchuria**. The construction of the **Chinese Eastern Railway** intensified Russian involvement in Manchuria. In 1898 Russia leased Chinese territory in southern Manchuria, comprising **Port Arthur** and **Dalny**. Internally, in the 1890s a series of poor harvests and famine in the rural areas, as well as growing discontent among the rising middle class and workers in the cities, led to renewed revolutionary activity. The discontent increased in the five years before the Russo–Japanese War, and strikes and other forms of protest took place in the capital, **St. Petersburg**, and other major cities.

In early 1904 the Russian empire was ruled by a small group. It included prominent figures such Foreign Minister **Vladimir Lamsdorf**, Interior Minister **Viacheslav Plehve**, and the weakened but still significant ex-finance minister and now chair of the council of ministers, **Sergei Witte**. In addition there were the representatives of the military branches: Army Minister **Aleksei Kuropatkin** and Navy Minister Fedor Avelan. An equal or even greater role was played by the grand dukes of Russia, the tsar's uncles, such as **Aleksei Aleksandrovich Romanov** and **Sergei Aleksandrovich Romanov**, who meddled in politics and were involved in every major decision. Above all, however, stood the tsar, Nicholas II, who bore ultimate responsibility due to his absolute power, dictated by the form of his regime. "The Emperor is an autocratic and unlimited monarch," read Article I of the Fundamental State Laws laid down by Tsar Nicholas I. His great grandson, Nicholas II, was determined to uphold this principle.

On the eve of the Russo–Japanese War, Russia's power seemed far more impressive than its rival's in nearly every respect. The acclaim given to the Russian forces was due not only to its military might but also to geographic, demographic, and economic factors. Its population

was three times greater than **Japan**'s, and it enjoyed a high birthrate and a high proportion of young population. This enormous demographic gap with Japan was reflected in its army and navy and in the number of reserve forces it could draw on during the war. Russia also underwent a major economic revolution during the half-century before the war, and from 1860 onward its economy grew at the considerable rate of about 5 percent annually. Indeed, in the 1890s it was nearly 8 percent annually, a rate far higher than in any other economy in Europe. The economy had undergone extensive industrialization: it manufactured most of its weaponry, including **battleships**, and continually increased its production of coal. Trade expanded, and it attracted a high level of foreign investment which, together with taxation and customs duties, helped to channel large sums of money to infrastructure.

Yet the Russian economy also suffered many weaknesses. Only slightly more than 1 percent of the population was engaged in manufacture, with most of the people concentrated in villages. The agricultural sector in Russia remained backward, and to a large extent illiterate and unmotivated. Because of the low production in this sector and the high birthrate, real growth of national output per capita for most of the Russian population was only 1 percent. In the industrial sector as well, most of the factories were engaged in food and textile manufacture and not in strategic fields such as processing metals, machinery production, or chemicals. Moreover, a significant portion of the industries was in foreign hands, and Russia had the highest national debt in the world. The acute changes in the Russian economy had a social price. Rapid industrialization, together with extreme exploitation of workers, population density caused by accelerated urbanization, the need to maintain agricultural exports to pay debts even in times of food shortage, and the heavy expenses on defense at the expense of welfare—all this led to growing dissatisfaction within the Russian population, mainly among the working classes. In the decade that preceded the war, revolutionary activity increased, and the number of people accused of political activity rose from fewer than a thousand in 1894 to 5,590 in 1903.

Russia had earlier suffered from the highest mortality rate in Europe and from extreme illiteracy, but an industrial class was now emerging in the cities that had opinions and expectations, and even in the villages there was less tolerance for the lower living standards.

Dissatisfaction in the different sectors was expressed in strikes, riots, and underground activities that had to be suppressed by ever expanding forces. The upshot ultimately was the **Revolution of 1905**. In spite of the obvious inferiority of the Russian economy in comparison with that of other leading powers, in comparison with Japan it was way ahead. Russia's energy needs were six times greater than its rival's; steel production in the two countries cannot even be compared because the Japanese produced steel in very small quantities. On the eve of the war, the Russian industrial potential was fourth in the world and about three times larger than that of Japan. Russia's economic superiority, along with its large population, had obvious ramifications concerning the size of its army and navy.

The successive defeats in the Russo–Japanese War prompted the Revolution of 1905, but the conclusion of the **Treaty of Portsmouth** did not immediately halt the decline of the power of the government. The strikes and chaos of October 1905 seemed to signify the collapse of the tsarist regime but ultimately they became a turning point, with the appointment of Witte as prime minister and the promulgation of the **October Manifesto** by the tsar. Thereafter, growing fears by the middle and upper classes, and even by the **zemstvo movement**, of anarchy, and the diminished prospects of military revolt, enabled the regime to seize firm control again and in the following year to crush the opposition. The tsarist grant of greater political rights was reversed soon after the establishment of the first **Duma**. The following years were characterized by profound political instability, but surprisingly also by economic prosperity under Prime Minister Petr Stolypin. While the Russo–Japanese War did not bring about the fall of the tsarist regime, the disorder during 1905 permanently damaged the tsar's reputation, and Russia's revolutionaries maintained their lethal potential, which was manifested fully during World War I and the Bolshevik Revolution.

Russia's diplomatic isolation during the Russo–Japanese War, together with its military weakness, led the tsar momentarily to a rapprochement with Germany, as manifested in a secret agreement with **Austro–Hungary** in October 1904 and the July 1905 **Treaty of Bjorko**. Nevertheless, soon after the war Russia recognized these two nations as its main enemy, and vice versa. Russia's defeat in East Asia caused it again to meddle in the Balkans and champion the

cause of the Slav peoples there. In the following years Russia improved its relations with its earlier arch-rival **Great Britain**. By concluding the **Anglo–Russian Entente** in 1907, Russia joined the **Triple Entente**, including France. Simultaneously it sought to restore its relations with Japan and succeeded in stabilizing its position in East Asia in a series of **Russo–Japanese agreements** from 1907 to 1916. The diplomatic developments of 1907 remained intact until 1914. On the eve of World War I, Russia was a member of the nations known as the Allies and held a key role against the Triple Alliance.

RUSSIAN IMPERIAL ARMY. *See* ARMY, IMPERIAL RUSSIAN.

RUSSIAN IMPERIAL NAVY. *See* NAVY, IMPERIAL RUSSIAN.

RUSSO–JAPANESE AGREEMENTS, POSTWAR (1907, 1910, 1912, 1916). A series of diplomatic agreements signed by **Russia** and **Japan** in the aftermath of the Russo–Japanese War. The first postwar diplomatic agreement between the two erstwhile belligerents was signed in **St. Petersburg** in 1907. The agreement was achieved due to the interest of the tsarist government to secure for itself an interlude of peace, through accords with its main rivals, at a time of weakness following the war and the **Revolution of 1905**. Russia's new approach was supported by **France** and **Great Britain**, which were interested in engaging it in European affairs. Accordingly, the first negotiations with Japan began in early 1907 and the agreement was signed on 30 July 1907. Russia sought guarantees for its interests in northern **Manchuria** and Mongolia, whereas Japan aimed to expand its positions in East Asia. The final agreement consisted of a disclosed and a secret part. By the first part of the accord, each side promised to respect the territorial integrity of the other and to honor all privileges that stemmed from the treaties they had concluded earlier. The secret section of the agreement provided for the division of Manchuria into a Russian sphere of influence in the north and a Japanese sphere in the south. In addition, the Russian government promised not to place obstacles in the way of Japanese relations with **Korea**, while Japan recognized the existence of Russian "special interests" in Outer Mongolia (see appendix 1). The agreement, along with a commercial

treaty and a convention on fishing that were signed almost simultaneously, helped to lessen somewhat the tensions in Russo–Japanese relations. During the following year, the two sides negotiated the partition of **Sakhalin** and eventually reached an agreement on 6 August 1908.

On 4 July 1910 the two nations signed the second postwar diplomatic agreement in St. Petersburg, in which Russia indicated its approval of the impending Japanese annexation of Korea. The agreement comprised two parts: one public, the other secret. In the public agreement, Russia and Japan pledged to accord each other friendly cooperation in the task of improving their railroad lines in Manchuria, and to support the status quo in that part of **China**. In the secret section of the agreement, the two sides pledged not to violate each other's special interests in the spheres of influence in Manchuria and to consult on joint efforts to defend these interests in Manchuria whenever they were threatened (see appendix 1). On 8 July 1912 the two nations signed the third and entirely secret agreement in St. Petersburg. The revolution that occurred in China in 1911 and the announcement by Outer Mongolia that it was independent of China caused Japan to increase its efforts to bring Inner Mongolia into its sphere of influence. In early 1912 Japan proposed to Russia a new line of demarcation in Manchuria, and after negotiations the two sides reached agreement. Inner Mongolia was divided along the Beijing meridian into an eastern zone of Japanese special interests and a Russian western zone (see appendix 1).

On 3 July 1916 Russia and Japan signed the fourth diplomatic agreement in Petrograd (St. Petersburg). During the years of World War I, the Japanese government took new steps to consolidate its positions in East Asia. Japan demanded the entire southern branch of the **Chinese Eastern Railway**, for which it offered 100 million yen (equal then to $200 million US). The agreement consisted, as usual, of public and secret parts. In the public part, the two sides pledged not to take part in political alliances aimed against the other. The secret part reconfirmed the earlier agreements and envisaged future efforts to prevent any third power hostile to Japan or Russia from gaining political supremacy in China. The treaty was to remain in force for five years, but it was annulled by the Bolshevik Revolution in late 1917 (see appendix 1).

RUSSO–JAPANESE TREATIES, PREWAR (1855, 1858, 1875). A series of diplomatic agreements signed by **Russia** and **Japan** to regulate matters of commerce and settle territorial issues during the five decades prior to the Russo–Japanese War. The Treaty of 1855 on trade and boundaries was signed on 7 February in Shimoda, thereby establishing diplomatic relations between the two countries. In the territories controlled by both nations, Russian and Japanese nationals were to be guaranteed protection, personal security, and inviolability of their properties. The common border was drawn between the islands of Iturup and Urup in the Kuril Islands, whereas the island of **Sakhalin** was to remain undivided. The Japanese ports of Shimoda, Hakodate, and Nagasaki were opened to Russian ships. Russian citizens were granted extra-territoriality and all rights and advantages that the Japanese government had granted or would grant in the future to other nations. Regular diplomatic exchanges between Russia and Japan were arranged.

The subsequent Treaty of 1858 on trade and navigation, signed on 19 August in Edo (now **Tokyo**), reaffirmed the articles of the accord reached three years earlier, but the two nations agreed to exchange permanent diplomatic representatives. For the following five years, Japan would allow the Russians the use of three more ports, and trade between the two nations was to be conducted freely. The agreement remained in force until 1895, although a customs tariff was added to the treaty and remained in force until 1867. The Treaty of 1875 was signed on 7 May in **St. Petersburg** and dealt with the exchange of territories. The two nations determined that the southern portion of Sakhalin would pass to Russia in exchange for 18 more of the Kuril Islands. The boundary between the two countries in this area was established between Cape Lopatka on Kamchatka and the island of Shumshu.

RUSSO–KOREAN TREATY (1884). A treaty of trade and friendship between **Russia** and **Korea**, which can be regarded as the beginning of an early but significant phase in Russian involvement in Korean affairs prior to the Russo–Japanese War. The agreement was concluded in **Seoul** on 7 July 1884. It established Russian diplomatic relations with Korea, allowed Russian merchants to trade in Korea, opened Korean ports to Russian merchant ships, and allowed Russian subjects to build commercial structures and residences in the ports of

Chemulpo, Wonsan, and Pusan. The treaty served notice to other powers that Russia intended to become a major player and contestant for trade and political influence in Korea.

RYOJUN. *See* PORT ARTHUR.

RYOJUN KÔISEN. *See* PORT ARTHUR, SIEGE OF.

RYOJUN KÔKÔ HEISOKU SAKUSEN. *See* PORT ARTHUR, NAVAL BLOCKADE OF.

RYÔTÔ. *See* LIAOTUNG.

RYÔYÔ. *See* LIAOYANG.

RYÔYÔ KAISEN. *See* LIAOYANG, BATTLE OF.

RYURIK. *See RURIK.*

– S –

SADO MARU*.** Japanese military transport ship that was attacked by the **Vladivostok Independent Cruiser Squadron** during the **attack on the Tsushima Straits**. This big transport of 6,227 gross tons left Shimonoseki for **Dalny** unescorted in the early morning of 15 June 1904. She carried a large amount of stores and over 1,000 men who belonged to a railway battalion and electrical engineers. At about 09:00 she was stopped by the Russian **cruiser *Rurik, which gave the crew 40 minutes' grace. Soon after, however, the *Rurik* was notified of approaching Japanese warships and in haste fired a **torpedo** into the transport. As the *Sado Maru* did not sink, she took another torpedo on the other side and was flooded. However, she survived the attack and even took part in the **battle of Tsushima** a year later as a scouting vessel.

SAIONJI, KIMMOCHI (1849–1940). Japanese statesman and major political leader during and after the Russo–Japanese War. Saionji was born to a court noble in Kyoto and was adopted into the Saionji fam-

ily. At the age of 18 he was appointed junior councilor and took part in battle as an imperial representative in the Boshin War during the Meiji Restoration. In 1871 Saionji left for **France** to study European institutions and law. On his return to **Japan** in 1880, he founded the Meiji Law School. He subsequently accompanied **Itô Hirobumi**'s group of constitutional investigation to Europe, and later became minister to **Austria** and then **Germany**. During the 1890s he was appointed to the Privy Council and became vice president in the House of Peers as well as minister of education. Saionji was among the founding members of Itô's Rikken Seiyûkai party and succeeded him as its president in 1900. Following an agreement made in 1901, Saionji and **Katsura Tarô** alternated as prime minister. Consequently, Saionji replaced Katsura soon after the conclusion of the Russo–Japanese War, and he served as prime minister in 1906–1908 and again in 1911–1912. Following his removal by the army, he was nominated as **genro**. In the following years he was made a prince and exerted much political influence, but despite his moderate approach, he was unable to block Japan's road to war during the 1930s.

***SAI YEN*.** Japanese protected **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was the only Japanese ship of the *Sai Yen* class and served in the 7th Division of the **Third Fleet** at the outbreak of the war. Originally the Chinese cruiser *Chi Yuan*, she was captured by the **Imperial Japanese Navy** in February 1895 in the port of **Weihaiwei** during the final stages of the **First Sino–Japanese War**. She was refitted later in the 1890s but was relegated to support tasks. During the Russo–Japanese War, this relatively old warship hit a **mine** and sank on 30 November 1904.

Technical data: Builder: Vulcan, Stettin, Germany, 1882–1885; Displ.: 2,440t; LBD: 72.00×10.70×4.67m [236×35×15ft]; Machinery: 2-shaft reciprocating compound, 2,800ihp; Speed: 15kt; Fuel: 230t coal; Range 2,200nm on 10kt; Armament: 2×208mm/22 [8.2in.] (1×2), 1×150mm [5.9in.], 4×6pdr QF, 6×2pdr QF, 4×381mm [15in.] TT; Armor: turret: 51mm [2in.], deck: 76mm [3in.]; Comp.: 230.

SAKAI, TOSHIHIKO (1871–1933). Japanese journalist and socialist leader who became an anti-war activist during the Russo–Japanese

War. Born in Fukuoka Prefecture, he joined the newspaper *Yorozu Chôhô* in 1899, where he was exposed to socialist ideas. In 1903 Sakai left the newspaper and established the socialist organization **Heimin-sha** together with **Kôtoku Shûsui**. During the Russo–Japanese War, he opposed the conflict through his articles in the newspaper *Heimin-sha Shimbun*. In 1906 he established the Japan Socialist Party but was imprisoned for his activities in 1908; he was released two years later. In 1922 Sakai co-founded the Japanese Communist Party and was arrested again a year later. Following his release, he continued to play a role in various socialist and pacifist movements until his death.

SAKA KAISEN. *See* SHA-HO, BATTLE OF.

SAKHALIN [*KARAFUTO*]. An elongated island under Russian control that was occupied by **Japan** during the Russo–Japanese War. It lies off the east coast of Siberia and north of the Japanese island of Hokkaido, and was originally inhabited by the Ainu and Gilyaks tribes. During the 19th century, **Russia** and Japan vied for control of the island, and efforts by either side to divide or buy it were rejected by the other. However, in 1875 Japan relinquished Sakhalin to Russia in return for control of the Kuril Islands. It remained under Russian control until the Russo–Japanese War. On the eve of the war, the island had a population of about 30,000 Russians, the majority convicts and their families, as well as about 4,000 indigenous inhabitants, mainly Ainu and Gilyaks.

On 7 June 1905, U.S. President **Theodore Roosevelt** met with Japanese diplomat **Kaneko Kentarô** and recommended, as the latter reported, that the island be invaded to expedite the Russian decision regarding the Japanese peace terms for the **Treaty of Portsmouth**. Accordingly, Japanese forces landed on the island on 7 July 1905 and completed the **conquest of Sakhalin** on 7 August. By the terms of the peace treaty, Sakhalin was divided between the two belligerents at the 50th parallel, but it was reoccupied by Japanese forces during the Nikolaevsk Incident of 1920. The northern part was returned to the Soviet Union with the restoration of diplomatic relations between the two countries in 1925 in exchange for oil and coal concessions. The Japanese part of Sakhalin ceased to be a colony and was made an integral part of Japan in 1942. But it was taken over by Soviet forces in 1945 and was integrated into the Soviet Union in 1947.

SAKHALIN, CONQUEST OF [*KARAFUTO SENRYÔ SAKUSEN*] (1905). A Japanese operation of occupying the Russian island of **Sakhalin** in the final stages of the Russo–Japanese war. The expeditionary force consisted of the newly formed **13th Division** under the command of Lieutenant General Haraguchi Kanezane as well as a naval force under Vice Admiral **Kataoka Shichirô**. The naval force assembled in Aomori Bay in the northern part of the main island of Honshu. It consisted of four armored **cruisers** under Vice Admiral **Dewa Shigeto**, four cruisers under Rear Admiral **Tôgô Masaji**, four coastal defense ships under Kataoka, nine **destroyers**, and 12 **torpedo boats**. The Japanese force left on 5 July 1905, and the first **landing operations** commenced two days later, encountering opposition, in Aniwa Bay [Higashi Fushimi Bay], Sakhalin. Another party landed near the port of Korsakovsk and silenced a battery of field guns after a short engagement. The next day the Japanese took over Korsakovsk, after the town was set on fire by the retreating Russian garrison, estimated at 2,000 men. On 8 July a Japanese destroyer flotilla cleared Rohosee Bay [Chitose Bay], and on 10 July a Japanese naval force occupied Notoro Cape [Kondo Cape]. On 13 July the entire island was in Japanese hands; for the following month, the infantry troops cleared the island of any Russian opposition and established its authority over the local population.

SAKHAROV, VIKTOR VIKTOROVICH (1848–1905). Russian army officer and statesman who served as war minister during the Russo–Japanese War. Lieutenant General Sakharov was appointed chief of the main staff of the **Imperial Russian Army** in 1898 and held this position for the next six years. On 24 March 1904 he was appointed war minister and held this position ad interim, replacing General **Aleksei Kuropatkin**, who became commander-in-chief of the Russian land forces in **Manchuria**. Despite his prominent position, Sakharov remained in **St. Petersburg** throughout the conflict and exerted little influence on the Russian military actions or the selection of officers during the war. He was replaced by Lieutenant General Aleksandr F. Rediger on 4 July 1905, two months before the conclusion of the war.

SAKURAI, TADAYOSHI (1879–1965). Japanese army officer and a writer, whose book on the Russo–Japanese War won world acclaim. He

was born in Ehime Prefecture and became an army officer. During the early stages of the war, Sakurai served as a first lieutenant in the **Third Army** and participated in the **siege of Port Arthur**. He was severely wounded during the first general attack on the fort and returned to **Japan**. In 1906 Sakurai published *Nikudan* [flesh bullets], a book about his wartime experiences around **Port Arthur**. This is one of the seminal Japanese memoirs of the war, together with Mizuno Hironori's naval memoir *Kono Issen*. The following year, Sakurai's book was translated into English (*Human Bullets*) and several other languages as well. The book established the image of the modern Japanese warrior as brave, dauntless, and also humane, and thereby it became highly popular in Japan as well as abroad. Sakurai continued his literary career with another bestseller in 1913. At the same time, he returned to active service, in which he reached the rank of major general in 1930.

SAMEJIMA, KAZUNORI (1845–1910). Japanese naval officer who served as commander of the **Sasebo** naval base during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in the Satsuma domain (now Kagoshima Prefecture) and joined the **Imperial Japanese Navy** soon after the Meiji Restoration. Samejima was promoted to lieutenant in 1877, lieutenant commander in 1882, commander in 1886, and captain later that year, while assuming various staff and sea roles. He was the commanding officer successively of the *Kongo*, the ironclad *Fuso*, and the **cruiser** ***Matsushima*** in the years from 1889 to 1893. He was appointed chief of staff of the Yokosuka naval base during the **First Sino–Japanese War**. Samejima was promoted to rear admiral in 1897 and a year later was made commander of the Yokosuka naval base. In 1899 he was appointed commander-in-chief of the Readiness Fleet, and in 1900 he assumed the same post at the Sasebo naval base. For the next five years, he remained in Sasebo, where he reorganized the base and prepared it for the impending war. During the Russo–Japanese War, he commanded efficiently this foremost naval base. As recognition of his achievement, Samejima was promoted to admiral in November 1905. In early 1907 he was made a baron and transferred to the reserves.

SAMEJIMA, SHIGEO (1849–1928). Japanese army officer who served as commanding officer of a division during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in the Satsuma domain (now Kagoshima Pre-

fecture) and took part in the suppression of the Satsuma Rebellion of 1877 and in the **First Sino–Japanese War**. In December 1904, Lieutenant General Samejima was appointed commanding officer of the **11th Division** and headed his unit in the final stages of the **siege of Port Arthur.** Under his command, the 11th Division subsequently formed the core of the newly created **Fifth Army**. Samejima was made a baron in 1907 and promoted to general in 1911.

SAMSONOV, ALEKSANDR VASILIEVICH (1859–1914). Russian army officer who served as commanding officer of **cavalry** forces during the Russo–Japanese War and became an important military figure during World War I. He graduated from the Nikolaevskoe Cavalry School in 1877 and from the Academy of the General Staff in 1884. In between he fought in the Russo–Turkish War of 1877–1878. Samsonov served as commanding officer of the St. Petersburg Cavalry School from 1896 to 1904, during which time he was promoted to major general. In the early stages of the Russo–Japanese War, he was sent to **Manchuria** and was appointed commanding officer of the Ussuri Cavalry Brigade. Following the Russian defeat at the **battle of Telissu**, he assumed command of the cavalry forces under the ailing Lieutenant General Simonov and was attached to the **First Siberian Army Corps**. He also took part in the **battle of Liaoyang**, where his cavalry provided flank protection. Subsequently he was appointed commandeer of the Siberian **Cossack** Cavalry Division and participated in the **battle of Mukden**.

After the war, Samsonov was appointed chief of staff of the Warsaw Military District in 1906, and he was made *ataman* of the Don Cossacks in 1909. That year he was appointed governor-general of Turkestan and commander-in-chief of the armed forces of the Turkestan military district. At the outbreak of World War I, he was given command of the Second Army on the northwestern front and took part in the East Prussia military operation of 1914. His forces were virtually annihilated by German encirclement in the **battle of Tannenberg**, partly due to serious errors made by General **Yakov Zhilinskii**, commander of the North East Army Group and in charge of that front, and General **Pavel Rennenkampf**, commander of the Russian First Army. Samsonov died while attempting to break free of the German encirclement, most likely killing himself in despair over his defeat.

SANDEPU, BATTLE OF [*KOKKÔDAI KAISEN*] (1905). Medium-scale land engagement between Japanese and Russian forces during the Russo–Japanese War. It was fought 25–29 January 1905 around the villages of Sandepu and Heikoutai, located about 58 kilometers [36 miles] south of **Mukden**, and it preceded the final land engagement of the war, the **battle of Mukden**. The general impetus for this engagement was General **Aleksei Kuropatkin**'s order, issued three days after the massacre known as **Bloody Sunday**. Kuropatkin set the immediate object as driving the Japanese behind the Taitzu River. He instructed the commanders of his three armies, General **Nikolai Linievich**, commander of the **First Manchurian Army**, General **Oskar Grippenberg**, commander of the **Second Manchurian Army**, and General **Aleksandr Kaulbars,** commander of the **Third Manchurian Army**, to launch an enveloping operation on the Japanese positions.

The leading role in this short campaign was entrusted to Grippenberg, who had about 75,000 men at his disposal. He faced three divisions of the **Japanese Second Army**, as well as the newly arrived **8th Division** under the command of Lieutenant General **Tatsumi Naobumi**. In severe weather conditions, Grippenberg's forces began to move on 25 January, and after crossing the Hun River [Hunhe] southward, the **First Siberian Army Corps** under the command of Lieutenant General **Georgii Stakelberg** took Heikoutai. The next day, however, Russian efforts to take the village of Sandepu located three kilometers away failed, due to the stalwart defense by the Japanese **5th Division**. Despite orders to the contrary, Stakelberg attacked the Japanese positions again on 27 January, and lost about 6,000 men; the village remained in Japanese hands.

The Russian initial success dissolved in failure, especially after Field Marshal **Ôyama Iwao** ordered up reinforcements and threatened a counter-attack. Kuropatkin refused Grippenberg's requests for further assistance and ordered him to retreat on 29 January. The following day Grippenberg asked to be relieved of his command, and Kuropatkin replaced him with Kaulbars. Stakelberg was also castigated for his incompetence and insubordination and was removed from his command. Altogether the Russian **casualties** in this short battle were over 12,000 killed and wounded, including over 7,000 from the First Siberian Army Corps alone, versus Japanese losses of about 9,000 men, of whom less than 2,000 were killed. The losses on

both sides, proportionate to the number of men and the time involved, were perhaps the worst of the entire war. The lines, however, had not changed, and both forces, deeply entrenched, were reinforced during the interlude until the decisive battle.

SANJÛGO NENSHIKI SUIHEIJÛ. *See* NAMBU TYPE 35 RIFLE.

SANJÛHACHI NENSHIKI HAHEIJÛ. *See* ARISAKA TYPE 38 RIFLE.

SANJÛICHI NENSHIKI SOKUSHA YAHÔ. *See* ARISAKA TYPE 31 GUN.

SANJÛ NENSHIKI HAHEIJÛ. *See* ARISAKA TYPE 30 RIFLE.

SASEBO. Japanese port city in Nagasaki Prefecture in eastern Kyushu; major naval base during the Russo–Japanese War. The port became a naval base in 1886, and during the Russo–Japanese War it served, under the command of Vice Admiral **Samejima Kazunori**, as the main supply and repair base of the **Combined Fleet**. The city and the port facilities suffered great damage during World War II but were rebuilt and modernized by the U.S. Navy during the Korean War and made suitable for shipbuilding. Since the 1950s, Sasebo has been a naval base of the Japanese Maritime Self-Defense Force.

SATÔ, TETSUTARÔ (1866–1942). Japanese naval officer who served as staff officer of the **Second Fleet** during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading figure in the **Imperial Japanese Navy** after the war. Satô was born in the Tsuruoka domain (now Yamagata Prefecture) and graduated from the Naval Academy. Subsequently he served as **gunvessel** navigator and was wounded in combat during the first battle of the Yalu in the **First Sino–Japanese War**. While serving under Admiral **Yamamoto Gonnohyôe** in the Navy Ministry's Naval Affairs Department, he was sent to **Great Britain** and the **United States** to study naval strategy. Upon his return to **Japan**, Satô became a naval staff college instructor and completed the first systematic Japanese exposition of navalism in a book titled *On the Defense of the Empire*. On the eve of the Russo–Japanese War, he

was assigned to sea duty to protect him from political retaliation, and during the war he served as staff officer of the Second Fleet under Vice Admiral **Kamimura Hikonojo**. Satô saw action in both the **battle of the Korea Straits** and the **battle of Tsushima**.

After the war, Satô commanded a gunvessel and returned in 1906 to the Naval Staff College as an advanced student and later instructor. In 1907 he was promoted to captain and continued to expand and promote his theories, advocating expansion to south seas and maintenance of Japan's shipbuilding capacity to within 70 percent of the U.S. Navy's. Satô, ahead of his time, considered the United States a potential enemy. In 1912 he was promoted rear admiral and became deputy chief of the navy general staff and president of the Staff College. He was further promoted to vice admiral and left the college, serving as commander of Maizuru naval base. Following his retirement in 1922, Satô led opposition to the naval limitation treaties signed with the United States and Great Britain. In the 1930s he advocated an aggressive naval policy, which was adopted during World War II.

SCHIFF, JACOB HENRY (1847–1920). American banker who was involved in granting financial securities to **Japan** during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born to a Jewish family in Frankfurt-am-Main in **Germany** and later emigrated to the **United States**. He joined the New York–based Kuhn, Loeb and Co. brokerage firm and rose to become its president. Schiff was involved in the financing of many important railroads and industries, and he worked with Lord Rothschild to block Russian loans in London and Paris. In April 1904 he met **Takahashi Korekiyo**, the deputy governor of the Bank of Japan, in London, and subsequently provided Japan with its first major flotation of foreign securities offered in New York. All in all, during the Russo–Japanese War, Schiff helped Japan to sell Americans four bond issues totaling $200–350 million. This sum, about half of the total Japanese war loans, enabled the Japanese government to finance **war expenditures**.

Whereas Japanese loans marked the elevation of Wall Street to an important factor in international diplomacy, Schiff's full motives in helping Japan remained somewhat obscure. He stated after the war that he wanted to take revenge on **Russia** for its policy against the **Jews**, the **pogrom of Kishinev** in particular, but apparently the loans suited his

economic schemes as well. In 1906 Schiff was invited to **Tokyo** and received the Order of the Rising Sun from **Emperor Meiji**. In the following years, he established the Semitic Museum of Harvard University, as well as a department of Semitic Literature in the New York Public Library and in the Library of Congress. He also founded the American Jewish Committee and supported Jews in need during World War I.

SCHLIEFFEN PLAN (1905). German operational war plan against **France**, designed soon after the Russo–Japanese War and affected by its outcome. The plan was prepared in December 1905 by General Alfred von Schlieffen (1833–1913), the German chief of staff, and formed the basis for the German attack in 1914, with regular annual revision. Following the Russian defeat in the Russo–Japanese War, Schlieffen argued that in the coming war the decisive theater would be in west Europe, and that the relatively weak armies of **Russia** could be held by defensive operations during the first weeks. In addition, if France were speedily defeated, its allies would soon conclude peace. Furthermore, French forts facing **Germany** should be outflanked by a scythe-like attack through Holland, Belgium, and Luxembourg. Modified slightly by Moltke, the plan nearly succeeded in 1914 but was defeated by French Field Marshal Joseph Joffre's counter-offensive on the Marne, as well as by the decision to withdraw forces from the western front due to the Russian advance into East Prussia.

SCHULTZ, MAXIMILIAN FEDOROVICH (1862–1921). Russian naval officer who commanded the **cruiser *Novik*** during the early stages of the Russo–Japanese War. At the outbreak of the war, he served as commanding officer of the destroyer *Smelii* stationed in **Port Arthur**. He then replaced Captain **Nikolai Essen** as commander of the *Novik* when Essen was appointed to command the **battleship *Sevastopol***. Schultz took part in the attempt to escape Port Arthur and the subsequent **battle of the Yellow Sea** in August 1904. Realizing that the main fleet had broken up and fled back to Port Arthur, rather than do likewise or seek internment in a neutral port, he decided to press on alone to **Vladivostok**. He successfully guided the *Novik* to **Sakhalin**, but following a fierce engagement off the coast with two Japanese warships, he ordered his crew to scuttle his damaged cruiser. Then he walked with them to Vladivostok.

SEA OF JAPAN, BATTLE OF THE. *See* TSUSHIMA, BATTLE OF.

SECOND FLEET, JAPANESE. *See* FLEET, JAPANESE SECOND.

SECOND JAPANESE ARMY. *See* ARMY, JAPANESE SECOND.

SECOND MANCHURIAN ARMY. *See* MANCHURIAN ARMY, SECOND.

SECOND SIBERIAN ARMY CORPS. *See* CORPS, SECOND SIBERIAN ARMY.

SEMENOV, VLADIMIR IVANOVICH (1867–1910). Russian naval officer who served in the unique position of senior commanding officer in both the **Pacific Fleet** and the **Baltic Fleet** during the Russo–Japanese War. He graduated from the Naval College in 1887 and from the Hydrographic Department of the Naval Academy in 1894. Subsequently Semenov served in the Baltic Fleet and participated in hydrographic expeditions to the Enisei river and **Korea**. In 1898 he was appointed chief navigator of the Pacific Fleet, then adjutant to Vice Admiral **Stepan Makarov**. At the outbreak of the war, Commander Semenov served as the commanding officer of the **cruiser *Diana***. In the aftermath of the **battle of the Yellow Sea**, he decided to break through, and ultimately he got his ship to Saigon, where she was interned until the end of the war. Semenov traveled back to **St. Petersburg** and there joined Vice Admiral **Zinovii Rozhestvenskii**'s **Second Pacific Squadron** as one of his flag officers. He took part in the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet** and during the **battle of Tsushima** was badly wounded and became a **prisoner of war**. Semenov retired in 1907 and devoted the rest of his life to writing about the naval aspects of the war in books such as *The Naval Department before and after Tsushima*, *Admiral Stepan Osipovich Makarov*, the trilogy *Rasplata* [Retribution] in which he depicted his experience in the war, and a book specifically on the battle of Tsushima. His trilogy was translated into English and was considered a critical though balanced study of the **Imperial Russian Navy** during the war.

SEOUL [*KEIJÔ*]. Korean city and capital of the kingdom of **Korea** during the Russo–Japanese War. It is located in the lower part of the

Han River basin, inland of the Yellow Sea (37° 57' north and 127° 00' east), and is surrounded by hills. Seoul was strategically placed near the center of the previously undivided Korea, serving as its capital since the middle of the 14th century. During the Russo–Japanese War, it was occupied by Japanese forces in February 1904, and it became the seat of the Japanese general-governor in the following years under the name Keijô. After the end of the Japanese occupation of Korea in 1945 and the subsequent division of the Korean peninsula, Seoul became the capital of the Republic of South Korea.

SERGEI ALEKSANDROVICH. *See* ROMANOV, SERGEI ALEKSANDROVICH.

SEVASTOPOL. Russian **battleship** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was one of three ships of the relatively new ***Petropavlovsk*** class but was designed with shorter funnels and slightly lighter but newer armor than her two sister ships. She served in the **Pacific Fleet** and at the outbreak of the war was stationed at **Port Arthur**. After some mishandling, her commanding officer Captain Tchernishev was replaced in the early stages of the war by Captain **Nikolai Essen**. While under his command, the *Sevastopol* was damaged by a **mine** that she struck during the abortive sortie of the fleet on 23 June 1904, and she was hit again during the **battle of the Yellow Sea**. She was further damaged by Japanese **artillery** during the **siege of Port Arthur**. To save his ship, Essen decided during the later stages of the siege to take her out of the inner harbor, where other battleships were already sunk, into the White Wolf harbor. There she provided fire support for the defending ground forces while withstanding numerous **torpedo** attacks conducted by a Japanese **destroyer** flotilla. In one such attack, a torpedo hit her propellers and immobilized her. For three weeks she coped with these incessant attacks, sinking two Japanese **destroyers** and damaging six. Upon surrender on 2 January 1905, Essen ordered her to be towed out to deep water and then scuttled by a skeleton crew. She was thus the only capital ship of the Pacific Fleet that the **Imperial Japanese Navy** did not capture among those remaining in Port Arthur in the final stages of the siege.

Technical data: Builder: Galernii Island, St. Petersburg, Russia, 1892–1899; Displ.: 11,842t; LBD: 112.47×21.34×7.77m [369×70×

25.5ft]; Machinery: 12–16 cylinder boilers, 2-shaft VTE, 11,250ihp; Speed: 16.5kt; Fuel: 1,500t coal; Armament: 4×305mm/40 [12in.] (2×2), 12×152mm/45 [6in.] (4×2, 4×1), 12×3pdr, 28×1pdr, 6×457mm [18in.] TT (2AW 4sub), 60 MN; Armor: Harvey nickel, belt: 127–368mm [5–14.5in.], CT: 203mm [8in.], turrets: 254–356mm [10–14in.], secondary turrets: 127mm [5in.]; Comp.: 632.

SEVEN PROFESSORS INCIDENT [*SHICHIHAKASE JIKEN; SHICHIHAKASE KAISENRON*]. A newspaper statement written by esteemed Japanese professors urging the government to declare war on **Russia** in June 1903. The group, consisting of Tomii Masaaki, Tomizu Hirondo, and five others, most of them members of the law faculty of Tokyo University, was instrumental in swaying public opinion in favor of military action on the eve of the Russo–Japanese War. Following the war, Tomizu was dismissed from his post by the government but was reinstated through faculty pressure; the upshot was the resignation of Education Minister Kubota Yuzuru.

SEVENTEENTH EUROPEAN ARMY CORPS. *See* CORPS, SEVENTEENTH EUROPEAN ARMY.

SHA-HO, BATTLE OF [*SAKA KAISEN*] (1904). Large-scale land engagement during the Russo–Japanese War. This second largest battle of the war was fought 10–17 October 1904 on the route from **Liaoyang** to **Mukden** near the Sha River (Sha-ho). The backdrop of the battle began with the retreat northward of Russian forces following the **battle of Liaoyang** at the order of General **Aleksei Kuropatkin**. He repositioned them just south of Mukden, around the Sha River. The Japanese forces were positioned about 30 kilometers [19 miles] to the south. They comprised the **First Army** under General **Kuroki Tametomo** to the east, the **Fourth Army** under General **Nozu Michitsura** in the center, and the **Second Army** under General **Oku Yasukata** to the west, as well as four brigades in reserve. Altogether Field Marshal **Ôyama Iwao** disposed of 170,000 men in 170 battalions. Kuropatkin, who by the end of September had replaced all his losses with fresh corps arriving from Europe, had 210,000 men in nine full corps comprising 261 battalions. About a third of them, however, were kept in reserve, so once again the Russians lost much

of their numerical advantage. The Russian forces comprised a Western Detachment under General **Aleksandr Bilderling** and an Eastern Detachment under Lieutenant General **Georgii Stakelberg**. Their General Reserve comprised the **Fourth Siberian Army Corps** under Lieutenant General **Nikolai Zarubaev**, the **First European Army Corps** under Lieutenant General Feofil Meyendorf, the **Sixth Siberian Army Corps** under Lieutenant General L. N. Sobolev, and the Independent Trans-Baikal **Cossack** Brigade under Lieutenant General **Pavel Mishchenko**.

The battle was planned as part of Russian endeavors to block any further Japanese advance northward toward Mukden following the **battle of Liaoyang**. The main attack was to be delivered by Stakelberg, whose Eastern Detachment was to advance southward, turn the Japanese right flank, and attack westward toward Liaoyang. As Stakelberg was pushing the Japanese back, Bilderling was to strike and cut off the Japanese First Army. The Russian maneuver began on 5 October with the Western Detachment advancing 25 kilometers [16 miles] across open terrain and reaching the Shli River two days later. The Eastern Detachment advanced about 32 kilometers [16 miles] through the mountains and on 8 October halted north of Bianyupusa. On 10 October, Ôyama decided to attack before Kuropatkin could deploy his entire force, while aiming at the center of the Russian lines. Aware of the Russian advantage in manpower, Ôyama resolved to tie up Stakelberg's three corps with an inferior force of Kuroki's First Army, in order to meet Bilderling's Western Detachment with equal strength.

As the battle unfolded, Japanese forces recaptured lost ground in the west, while the Russians suffered heavy **casualties** when storming Kuroki's position on 10 October. Kuropatkin was forced to use part of his reserve to create a Central Detachment under the command of Zarubaev in order to fill the gap between the Eastern and Western Detachments. The new detachment consisted of his Fourth Siberian Army Corps and the First European Army Corps. On 11 October, the Japanese **4th Division** turned the Russian right flank. Bilderling, denied reinforcements, fell back to prepared positions along the river. That evening, Stakelberg ordered his forces into defensive positions. On 12 October, the initiative shifted to Ôyama, who employed Prince **Kanin Kotohito**'s 2nd Cavalry Brigade to strike the Russian left. The Japanese drove off the detachment under

Lieutenant General **Pavel Rennenkampf** and cleared the south bank of the Taitzu. The Russian positions opposite Penhsihu [Benxihu], now exposed to flanking fire, had to be abandoned.

At the dawn of 13 October, Stakelberg began to withdraw his Eastern Detachment northward. But Ôyama helped Kuroki's attempts to cut off Stakelberg's force by sending him the **5th Division** under Lieutenant General **Ueda Arisawa** out of his reserves. The next day, the First Army gained the southern bank of the Sha River, and the Second Army broke through the Russian front. Although the Russian forces retreated in order, and were assisted by Mishchenko's rearguard **cavalry**, they risked breaking their line. For this reason, the Sixth Siberian Army Corps moved forward against the Japanese left flank and held the line at enormous cost. Except for three points, most notably Putilov Hill [*Manbôyama*], all the southern front south of the river was now in Japanese hands. On 15 October, the Japanese took these last three points south of the river, and on the following two days, the Russians endeavored to recapture them. Their eventual success restored some of the Russians' waning morale, but it was achieved with a heavy toll of about 3,000 men killed, and it led to the replacement of Ueda.

In the aftermath of the battle, both Ôyama and Kuropatkin realized they had not secured their objectives. Winter forced a stalemate, and both sides dug in, constructing their trenches in some places only a few meters apart. Whereas the Japanese advanced about 25 kilometers [16 miles] during the campaign and made further progress en route to Mukden, the Russians lost their last opportunity to move southward and relieve the **siege of Port Arthur**. Tactically, however, the overall results were not as decisive, although the Russian casualties were double their rivals'. On the Russian side, there were about 41,350 casualties, consisting of about 11,000 killed or missing (including about 700 **prisoners of war)** and about 30,400 wounded, whereas on the Japanese side there were just over 20,000, comprising about 4,000 killed and 16,400 wounded.

SHENYANG. *See* MUKDEN.

SHIBAYAMA, YAHACHI (1850–1924). Japanese naval officer who served as commander of naval bases in Kure and Ryojun [**Port Arthur**] during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in the Satsuma domain (now Kagoshima Prefecture) and in 1872 was sent to

the **United States** for two years of studies. Shibayama joined the **Imperial Japanese Navy** in 1876, and was promoted to lieutenant in 1879, lieutenant commander in 1882, commander in 1886, and captain later that year. In 1886 he was sent to the United States again and to Europe for a year, and between 1889 and 1893 was given successive commands of the screw corvettes *Tsukuba* and *Kaimon*, and the **cruiser *Takachiho***. In 1893 he was appointed director of the Naval Academy. During the **First Sino–Japanese War**, he served as commander-in-chief of the **Sasebo** naval base.

Shibayama was promoted to rear admiral in 1894 and to vice admiral in 1897. During that year, he was appointed commander-in-chief of the Readiness Fleet. In 1900 he was appointed commander-in-chief of the Kure naval base, a role he retained during the first half of the Russo–Japanese War. In January 1905, however, a few days after the fall of Port Arthur, which the Japanese renamed Ryojun, Shibayama was appointed commander-in-chief of the fortress, now a new, important naval base of the **Imperial Japanese Nav**y. In this role he was in charge of salvaging the sunken or scuttled Russian warships and reorganizing the base for combat operations. In November 1905 he was promoted to admiral. In early 1907 he was transferred to the reserves and shortly after was made a baron.

SHICHIHAKASE JIKEN. *See* SEVEN PROFESSORS INCIDENT.

SHIKISHIMA*.** Japanese **battleship** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was one of two ships of the newly built *Shikishima* class, an improved British *Majestic* design, and when completed was among the most powerful afloat. She was considered a great improvement on the ***Fuji class in armor and armament. The *Shikishima* served in the 1st Battle Division of the **First Fleet** at the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, and participated in most of the major operations of the **Imperial Japanese Navy** during the war. In the **battle of Tsushima**, she suffered 10 hits, causing the loss of 13 killed. In 1923 she was disarmed and immobilized under the terms of the Washington Treaty and became a seamen's training ship in **Sasebo**. She was eventually scrapped in 1947.

Technical data: Builder: Thames Ironworks, Blackwall, Great Britain, 1897–1901; Displ.: 15,453t; LBD: 133.50×23.00×8.29m [438×75.5×27ft]; Machinery: 2-shaft VTE, 25 boilers, 14,667ihp;

Speed: 18kt; Fuel: 1,400t coal; Range 5,000nm on 10kt; Armament: 4×305mm/40 [12in.], 14×152mm/45 [6in.], 20×76mm [3in.] QF, 12×47mm, 5×457mm [18in.] TT; Armor: Harvey nickel steel, belt: 102–229mm [4–9in.], barbettes: 152–356mm [6–14in.], turrets: 203–254mm [8–10in.], casemates: 152mm [6in.], CT: 76–356mm [3–14in.], deck: 51–102mm [2–4in.]; Comp.: 741.

SHIMAMURA, HAYAO (1858–1923). Japanese naval officer who served as chief of staff of the **First Fleet** during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading figure in the **Imperial Japanese Navy** after the war. He was born in the Tosa domain (now Kochi Prefecture), graduated from the seventh class of the Naval Academy, and was selected for staff work as a junior officer. Shimamura served as an observer on board vessels of the British **Royal Navy** and was later assigned to the standing fleet staff during the **First Sino–Japanese War**, where he was wounded in the battle of the Yalu. In the following decade he was given a variety of staff and sea assignments and served as the commanding officer of the **cruiser *Suma*** at the capture of Tientsin [Tianjin] during the **Boxer Uprising**. At the onset of the Russo–Japanese War, Shimamura was promoted to rear admiral and served as chief of staff for the First Fleet and as the commanding officer of the 2nd Battle Division of the **Second Fleet** aboard the cruiser ***Iwate*** during the **battle of Tsushima**. After the war, he served as president of the Naval Staff College, chief of the navy general staff, and naval councilor. He was promoted to vice admiral in 1908, to admiral in 1915, and to fleet admiral upon his death.

SHIMONOSEKI, TREATY OF (1895). Treaty concluding the **First Sino–Japanese War** and affecting Sino–Japanese and Russo–Japanese relations in the decade preceding the Russo–Japanese War. In the aftermath of the speedy and absolute Japanese victory during the First Sino–Japanese War (1894–1895), Prime Minister **Itô Hirobumi** demanded that **China** pay reparations to the sum of 300 million taels, hand over to **Japan** the southern area of **Liaoning** province, grant **Korea** its independence, and allow Japan the same rights granted to the European nations by the Unequal Treaties, in addition to manufacturing rights at ports named in the treaty. China's leading statesman and chief negotiator, **Li Hongzhang**, rejected the demands, and during the

negotiations in the Japanese city of Shimonoseki, Li was shot by a Japanese fanatic. The international reaction obliged Itô to grant the Chinese a temporary respite; Li's nephew and adopted son Li Jingfang concluded the negotiations and signed the treaty on 17 April 1895. In the eventual treaty, Japan settled for 200 million taels and the **Liaotung peninsula**, in addition to Korean independence and trade privileges. The treaty enraged **Russia**, which together with **Germany** and **France** forced Japan, in an ultimatum known as the **Three-Power Intervention**, to revise the treaty and return the Liaotung peninsula to China.

SHIMOSE, MASACHIKA (1859–1911). Japanese naval engineer who developed the **shimose gunpowder** used by the **Imperial Japanese Navy** during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in today's Hiroshima Prefecture. He graduated from Tokyo University College of Engineering in 1884 as one of **Japan**'s earliest holders of a doctorate in engineering. In 1887 Shimose became a naval chemical engineer and a year later developed his special gunpowder known as "shimose." In 1899 he was appointed head of the research unit for gunpowder, which made the powder suitable for use in shells.

SHIMOSE GUNPOWDER. Japanese-made gunpowder used during the Russo–Japanese War. It was developed by **Shimose Masachika** in 1888 and contained picric acid. The shimose generated more heat and had greater blast power than any other powder of the time. This relatively reliable and strong gunpowder was used mainly in naval shells, and it is considered one of the key technical advantages of the **Imperial Japanese Navy** during the Russo–Japanese War in general and at the **battle of Tsushima** in particular.

SHTACKELBERG, GEORGII KARLOVICH. *See* STAKELBERG, GEORGII KARLOVICH.

SIEGE OF PORT ARTHUR. *See* PORT ARTHUR, SIEGE OF.

SINO–JAPANESE WAR, FIRST (1894–1895). War between **Japan** and **China** over **Korea** and a stimulus to growing Russian interest in Korea in the decade before the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War. The war, formally declared on 1 August 1894, was fought in Korea,

Manchuria, and the Shantung [Shandong] peninsula. It was concluded by the **Treaty of Shimonoseki** on 17 April 1895. This great Japanese victory over the larger Chinese army resulted in extensive political and territorial concessions that afforded Japan membership in the circle of imperialist nations at the turn of the century. It also marked Japan's entry into international power politics and defined the framework in which Japan was to deal with its external problems in the next half-century. The war broke out as a result of military escalation and Chinese fear that the Korean king **Kojong** was about to lose his throne. A year earlier a rebellion of the farmers in Korea had erupted, caused by heavy taxes and inflamed by the Tonghak [Eastern Learning], a new religious cult that promised far-reaching reforms. The rebellion spread in May 1894, when the rebels marched toward **Seoul**, the capital, and the king was powerless to stop them.

Fears that the rebellion might lead to the loss of Korean independence and deeper Chinese interference made the Japanese government send a small marine force to Seoul on the pretext of protecting Japanese citizens residing there. Although the Korean government wanted to end the rebellion by means of an agreement with the rebels, Japan continued to augment its forces with the intention of preempting any other force, and thus being in a key position to demand administrative and political reforms in Korea as well as privileged economic rights. Kojong rejected the Japanese demands and insisted on the removal of the Japanese troops. In response, Japan positioned its troops at central locations in Seoul in an attempt to prevent the overthrow of the king. During the summer of 1894, it became clear that the European powers would not intervene for China in case of a military conflict, and therefore Japan began its preparations for war, which indeed broke out soon after at the Japanese initiative. On 23 July 1894, Japanese forces in Seoul seized control of the palace after a Korean attempt to eject the pro-Japanese faction, and two days later a Japanese expeditionary force attacked a convoy of Chinese ships transporting troops to Korea.

Japan officially declared war on 1 August 1894 and the two nations continued to move their forces into Korea. Soon, however, Japan gained the upper hand, and by mid-September its forces controlled **Pyongyang**. Toward the end of October, Japanese forces completed the conquest of Korea and crossed the **Yalu River** to Chinese territory in Manchuria. At the beginning of November, Japanese forces landed in

the **Liaotung peninsula** south of Manchuria and took over the fortress of **Port Arthur**. The turning point in the war came in January 1895, when Japanese forces executed **landing operations** on the Shantung [Shandong] peninsula on Chinese soil "proper," and began to threaten the capital, Beijing, from the south. This astounding landing was followed by destruction of the Chinese fleet at **Weihaiwei** on 12 February 1895. At this stage, negotiations were held between the two sides with the support of the European powers, who feared for the safety of their interests in the area more than for the integrity of China. Eventually, in April 1895, the two sides signed the Treaty of Shimonoseki, but less than a week later, **Russia** managed to obtain the support of **France** and **Germany**, and together they relayed a message to Japan "advising" it to restore to China the territories it had conquered in southern Manchuria. Following this **Three-Power Intervention**, Japan withdrew its forces from the Liaotung peninsula by the end of the year.

SINO–RUSSIAN TREATY (1896). *S*ee LI–LOBANOV AGREEMENT.

***SISSOI VELIKII*.** Russian **battleship** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was the only ship of the *Sissoi Velikii* class and was characterized by her small size relative to her armaments. At the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, the *Sissoi Velikii* served in the **Baltic Fleet** and was attached to **Second Pacific Squadron**, with which she sailed a shortened course of the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet** via the **Suez Canal** as the flagship of Rear Admiral **Dmitrii von Felkerzam**. During the subsequent **battle of Tsushima**, she sustained gunfire and a **torpedo** hit, and she eventually was scuttled by her crew upon surrender.

Technical data: Builder: New Admiralty, St. Petersburg, Russia, 1892–1896; Displ.: 10,400t; LBD: 107.23×20.73×7.77m [351.5×68×25.5ft]; Machinery: 12 Belleville boilers, 2-shaft VTE, 8,500ihp; Speed: 15.7kt; Fuel: 500/800t coal; Armament: 4×305mm/40 [12in.] (2×2), 6×152mm/45 [6in.], 12×3pdr, 18×1pdr, 6×457mm [18in.] TT AW; Armor: nickel steel, belt: 102–406mm [4–16in.], CT: 203mm [8in.], turrets: 305mm [12in.], secondary guns: 127mm [5in.]; Comp.: 586.

SIXTEENTH EUROPEAN ARMY CORPS. *See* CORPS, SIXTEENTH EUROPEAN ARMY.

SKRYDLOV, NIKOLAI ILLARIONOVICH (1844–1918). Russian naval officer who served as nominal commander-in-chief of the **Pacific Fleet** during much of the Russo–Japanese War. His first major combat experience was the Russo–Turkish War of 1877–1878, in which he commanded the small **mine** vessel *Shutka*. On 8 June 1877, he attacked and sank a Turkish monitor on the Danube River. From 1894 to 1898, Skrydlov was director of the **Torpedo** Section of the Naval Technical Department, and in 1897–1899 he served as the commander of the Mediterranean Squadron. In 1900 Skrydlov, by then vice admiral, was appointed commander-in-chief of the Pacific Fleet; two years later, he became commander-in-chief of the **Black Sea Fleet**, a post he held until April 1904.

Following the death of Vice Admiral **Stepan Makarov** in the early stages of the Russo–Japanese War, Skrydlov was again appointed commander-in-chief of the Pacific Fleet. Arriving in **Vladivostok** on 24 May 1904, he was unable to assume command of the fleet, whose main units were stationed in **Port Arthur**. Consequently he remained nominal commander of the fleet but in effect was responsible for planning the naval activities of the **Vladivostok Independent Cruiser Squadron**, together with its commanders Rear Admiral **Karl Iessen** and later Vice Admiral **Petr Bezobrazov**. On 7 January 1905, Skrydlov was replaced by Vice Admiral **Zinovii Rozhestvenskii** as commander-in-chief of the Pacific Fleet and he returned to **St. Petersburg**. In 1906–1907, he served again as a commander-in-chief of the Black Sea Fleet, but he retired in 1909 and was killed in the terror following the Bolshevik Revolution nine years later.

SMIRNOV, KONSTANTIN NIKOLAEVICH (1854–1919). Russian army officer who served as commanding officer of the **Port Arthur** fortress during the **siege of Port Arthur**. He was appointed lieutenant general in 1900 and commanded the 2nd Rifle Brigade. In March 1904 he was appointed commanding officer of the Port Arthur fortress but was outranked by Lieutenant General **Anatolii Stoessel**, who refused to relinquish his powers and leave the fort. Smirnov was an important figure in the defense of the fort and opposed its surrender in January 1905. After the war, however, he was court-martialed for this surrender, together with Stoessel, Major General **Aleksandr Fok**, and the chief of staff of the Russian garrison of Port Arthur,

Colonel Reis, but was not found guilty. He was killed by Bolshevik forces in Odessa in 1919.

SOCIETY OF COMMONERS. *See* HEIMINSHA.

SONE, ARASUKE (1849–1910). Japanese politician who was finance minister during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in the Chôshû domain (now Yamaguchi Prefecture) and took part in the Boshin War against the shogunal forces. After the Meiji Restoration, he left for studies in **France**; upon his return to **Japan**, he entered the civil service. In 1901 he was appointed finance minister in the first cabinet of **Katsura Tarô** and held this position throughout the war. In this capacity, he was in charge of financing the Japanese **war expenditures** and arranged simultaneously for the selling of government bonds at home and abroad. He was made a viscount in 1907 and died three years later.

SOUTH MANCHURIAN RAILWAY. A railway line connecting northern **Manchuria** with its southern part, the **Liaotung peninsula** in particular. The line was constructed after **China** granted permission to **Russia** to build a railway through the leased Liaotung peninsula, thereby connecting the **Chinese Eastern Railway** with **Dalny** and **Port Arthur**. At the end of the Russo–Japanese War, Russia relinquished to **Japan** the southern part of the line. It was placed under control of the South Manchurian Railway Company, which was supervised directly by the Japanese government. In the next two decades, the line served as the basis for gradual Japanese expansion and domination of Manchuria, and it was turned over to the puppet government of Manchukuo. In 1945 at the end of World War II, it was returned to joint Chinese–Soviet control.

ST. PETERSBURG. Russian capital during the Russo–Japanese War. It was founded in 1703 by Peter the Great and served for more than two centuries as the capital of the Russian empire. St. Petersburg is located on the delta where the Neva River empties into the Gulf of Finland, 160 kilometers [100 miles] from Russia's border with **Finland**, and 640 kilometers [400 miles] from Moscow (59° 56' north and 30° 20' east). A ship canal connecting the city with the Baltic Sea was excavated toward the end of the 19th century. This made the city a seaport,

thereby increasing its trade capacity, with ice-breaking operations easing the effects of ice covering the bay during the winter. At the turn of the century, St. Petersburg became an industrial center, and the fifth largest city in Europe, with a population of about 1,430,000 in 1905. During the Russo–Japanese War, the city was the hub of the actions of the **Revolution of 1905**, which were prompted by the events of **Bloody Sunday** in January 1905. As a seat of the imperial family and the Russian nobility, St. Petersburg during the war era became an unsafe place to live, due to rampant assassinations, such as that of Interior Minister **Viacheslav Plehve** and Grand Duke **Sergei Aleksandrovich**. After the war, St. Petersburg became the seat of the newly established **Duma**, and it appeared to recover from the war crisis in the years before World War I. Because of the war with **Germany** in 1914, the city's German name was changed to Petrograd. A decade later, with the death of **Vladimir Lenin**, it was changed to Leningrad. After the collapse of the Soviet Union, it was again renamed St. Petersburg.

STAKELBERG [STACKELBERG, SHTACKELBERG], GEORGII KARLOVICH (1848–1925). Russian army officer who served as commander of the **First Siberian Army Corps** during the Russo–Japanese War. Highly rated by the Japanese, he played a substantial role in Russian efforts to halt the Japanese advance northward toward **Liaoyang** and took part in the **battle of Telissu** and the **battle of Tashihchiao**. Subsequently, Stakelberg fought in the **battle of Liaoyang** and commanded the Eastern Detachment during the **battle of Sha-ho**. Because of the offensive that he launched contrary to orders, and his rout in the **battle of Sandepu**, he was removed from command.

STARK, OSKAR VIKTOROVICH (1846–1928). Russian naval officer who served as commander-in-chief of the **Pacific Fleet** at the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War. Stark joined the **Imperial Russian Navy** in 1866 and commanded a number of warships in the **Baltic Fleet** during 1874–1898. He was appointed commander of the harbor of **Port Arthur** in 1898. In February 1902 he was promoted to vice admiral and became commander-in-chief of the Pacific Fleet. For the next two years, he was in charge of Russian naval forces in East Asia in a period of dramatic growth. Stark, however, did not give priority to the combat preparedness of the fleet in general and the **Port Arthur**

Squadron in particular, and on the eve of the Japanese **naval attack on Port Arthur** on 8 February 1904, he allegedly held a party on the deck of his flagship, the **battleship *Petropavlovsk***. He was blamed for the floundering of the fleet, and within 18 days of the outbreak of the war, he was replaced with the more charismatic and innovative Vice Admiral **Stepan Makarov**. Stark left for **St. Petersburg** on 8 March 1904, the same day Makarov arrived. Stark was appointed commander-in-chief of the Baltic Fleet in 1906 and retired two years later.

STEREGUSHCHII*.** Russian **torpedo boat** that was sunk during the Russo–Japanese War and became a symbol of heroism in **Russia**. When returning to **Port Arthur** from a reconnaissance mission, the *Steregushchii* and the torpedo boat *Reshitelnii* were attacked by a Japanese force of four torpedo boats, later augmented to six. The *Reshitelnii* managed to escape to safe haven, but the *Steregushchii*, under the command of Lieutenant A. S. Sergeev, was too slow and was forced to fight. She fought for two hours in an unequal though heroic battle, and eventually Sergeev and most of his crew were killed. When the Japanese attempted to capture the boat, her remaining two seamen opened the seacocks and went down with her. Since the **Imperial Russian Navy** could not boast of many heroic exploits during the war, the struggle of the *Steregushchii* and that of the **cruiser *Variag became symbols of Russian naval heroism during and after the war. In 1911 the heroism of the crew of the *Steregushchii* was commemorated in a monument erected in **St. Petersburg**.

Technical data: Builder: Russia, 1901–1903; Displ.: 240t; Speed: 26.5kt; Armament: 1×75mm [3in.], 1×47mm, ×356mm [14-inch] TT AW; Comp.: 52.

STOESSEL [STÖSSEL, STESSEL], ANATOLII MIKHAILOVICH (1848–1915). Russian army officer who served as commander of the **Kwantung Fortified Region** and was the actual commander of the fortress of **Port Arthur** until its surrender during the Russo–Japanese War. He began his military career in Pavlovsk Military School, which he graduated in 1866. A decade later he took part in the Russo–Turkish War of 1877–1878 as a staff captain and was wounded. In 1899 Stoessel was appointed commanding officer of the Third East Siberian Rifle Brigade; a year later, he led a unit of the allied forces suppressing

the **Boxer Uprising**. He was promoted to lieutenant general in 1901 and was appointed commanding officer of Port Arthur in August 1903. In January 1904, Stoessel was appointed commander of the **Third Siberian Army Corps**, and in May he became the commander of the whole Kwantung Fortified Region.

Following the **battle of Nanshan** and the withdrawal of his corps to Port Arthur, Stoessel assumed command of the fortress, forcing Lieutenant General **Konstantin Smirnov** to a secondary role by right of seniority. Aware that there was no room for two competing commanders of the same rank, General **Aleksei Kuropatkin** ordered Stoessel on 3 July 1904 to leave Port Arthur by a fast **destroyer**. Stoessel ignored the order and during the **siege of Port Arthur** maintained overall command of the site. Acting contrary to the wishes of many of his subordinate officers, Stoessel negotiated the surrender terms of Port Arthur with his rival, General **Nogi Maresuke**. He was then allowed to return to Russia aboard a British passenger ship and after a lengthy voyage arrived in **St. Petersburg**. He was discharged from the service on 30 September 1906, and in 1907 he was tried before a military court, together with a number of other high-ranking officers, for surrendering the fortress to the Japanese. A year later, the court found Stoessel guilty of the surrender of the fortress and sentenced him to death. The sentence was later commuted to a term of 10 years' imprisonment, but in April 1909, Tsar **Nicholas II** granted him a pardon.

SUBMARINES. A type of warship that can operate under water; employed, albeit not operationally, by both the **Imperial Russian Navy** and the **Imperial Japanese Navy** during the Russo–Japanese War. Subsequently the submarine emerged as a very effective naval weapon. The military use of the submarine originated in David Bushnell's invention, the human-powered *Turtle*, used in an attack in New York Harbor in 1776; submarines were employed again, this time successfully, during the American Civil War. In the late 19th century, the development of the modern submarine began to take shape and was led by the French navy, which was the first to employ submarines in 1886 and to equip them with the self-propelled **torpedo** in 1893. The Italian navy launched its first submarine in 1894, whereas the U.S. Navy and the **Royal Navy** ordered five vessels based on John Holland's successful design in 1900. On the eve of the Russo–Japanese War, most naval

experts believed that submarines could be useful strictly for coastal defense, and due to their low speed they were intended to fulfill the same role as **torpedo boats**, using stealthy assault against stationary targets.

During the Russo–Japanese War, the two belligerents accused each other of using submarines, but both were wrong. Although both the Imperial Japanese Navy and the Imperial Russian Navy had begun to show interest in submarines before the war, neither of them regarded them as being of significant value to expedite their commission. In 1902 the Imperial Japanese Navy sent several officers to the **United States** to examine the development of American-made submarines, and subsequently ordered five vessels of the Holland type. The first arrived in **Japan** in November 1904 but was too late to take part in the war. The Imperial Russian Navy also bought submarines before the war, and in fact it had one submarine at **Port Arthur**, but it had not been made operational. In the final stages of the war, the Russians transferred 14 small submarines to **Vladivostok** via the **Trans-Siberian Railway** but were too late to make any operational use of them.

The difficulties encountered by the Japanese in attempting to destroy the Russian fleet at **Port Arthur** aroused the interest of various naval experts on submarines. In **Great Britain**, Admiral **John Fisher** received support for his views that the submarine could be also used as an effective offensive vessel. In March 1904 he wrote to a friend: "My beloved submarines are about to increase the naval power of Britain sevenfold." Soon after the war, the French navy, followed by the Royal Navy, developed diesel engines that solved the problem of the emission of toxic gases. In 1906 the Imperial German Navy commissioned its first submarine, while in 1908 the Royal Navy took the lead in developing the new vessels, following the launching of a submarine that, for the first time, could travel long distances. In 1912 a Greek submarine failed to sink a Turkish **cruiser** with a torpedo but left no doubt as to its potential powers. During World War I, submarines in general, and the German *Untersee boats* (U-boats) in particular, reached maturity and became effective weapons of strategic importance.

SUEMATSU, KENCHÔ [NORIZUMI] (1855–1920). Japanese statesman and diplomat who served as envoy in Europe during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born into a samurai family in the Fukuoka domain (now part of Fukuoka Prefecture) and joined the

newspaper *Tôkyô Nichinichi Shimbun* in 1871. Suematsu soon entered service in the Foreign Ministry and in 1878 was sent to England, where he served in the embassy and studied at Cambridge University. Upon his return to **Japan**, he entered politics and won a seat in the first Diet elections in 1890. In the following years, Suematsu served in various government positions, such as communication minister and interior minister, and was made a baron in 1895. During the Russo–Japanese War, he was sent to London and served as a spokesman for Japan in **Great Britain** and other countries of western Europe. For his service he was made a viscount in 1907.

SUEZ CANAL. Waterway connecting the Mediterranean Sea and the Red Sea and an important route of several **Imperial Russian Navy** units during the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet**. It spans 160 kilometers [100 miles] from Port Said in the north to the Gulf of Suez in the south, and utilizes three lakes along the way. It is flanked by the Nile delta in the west and the Sinai peninsula in the east, thereby separating Africa and Asia and providing the shortest route between Europe and the Indian Ocean and the western Pacific. It was continuously made deeper and wider than the original dimensions excavated by the French in 1869. During the Russo–Japanese War, the Imperial Russian Navy used it to shorten the route of three units of the **Baltic Fleet** on its voyage to East Asia, the **Third Pacific Squadron** in particular. Earlier, in 1904 a number of vessels of the **Russian Volunteer Fleet** passed through the canal in the opposite direction. Throughout the war, ships of various nations carried wounded soldiers back to **Russia**. The Suez Canal could, in fact, accommodate the largest Russian **battleships** as well, but the Imperial Russian Navy feared they might be seized by the **Royal Navy** during their passage in the canal, so the main warships of the **Second Pacific Squadron** had to circle Africa. The Japanese placed agents near the canal to gather **military intelligence** about Russian naval movements.

***SUMA*.** Japanese protected **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was one of two ships of the *Suma* class and the first armored Japanese ship built with Japanese material, in a Japanese shipyard, and to Japanese plans, but she was considered to have insufficient stability. At the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, she served in the 6th Di-

vision of the **Third Fleet** and took part in the **battle of Tsushima** as the flagship of the commander of the division, Rear Admiral **Tôgô Masaji**. The *Suma* was refitted after the war and scrapped in 1928.

Technical data: Builder: Yokosuka, Japan, 1892–1896; Displ.: 2,657t; LBD: 93.50×12.24×4.63m [306.5×40×15ft]; Machinery: 2-shaft VTE, 8 boilers, 8,384ihp; Speed: 20kt; Fuel: 600t coal; Range 12,000nm on 10kt; Armament: 2×152mm/40 [6in.], 6×120mm/40 [4.7in.], 10×47mm/40 QF, 5×356mm [14in.] TT; Armor: Harvey nickel steel, gun shields: 114mm [4.5in.], deck: 25–51mm [1–2in.]; Comp.: 275.

SUN, YAT-SEN. *See* SUN, YIXIAN.

SUN, YIXIAN [YAT-SEN] (1866–1925). Chinese revolutionary and statesman who was a supporter of Japanese pan-Asianism and founder of the Chinese nationalist organization during the Russo–Japanese War. Later he became known as the father of modern **China**. He was born in Guandong Province and graduated from medical school in 1892. Organizing the Revive China Society in 1894, Sun failed in his first attempt at an uprising a year later. Traveling abroad to raise funds for his revolutionary activities, he arrived in **Japan** in 1897. During the Russo–Japanese War, he organized in **Tokyo** the Revolutionary United League, the forerunner of the Guomindang [Kuomintang; Nationalist Party]. In 1907 Sun was expelled from Japan under pressure of the Chinese government and left for the **United States**. Following the Chinese Revolution of 1911, he returned to China and became the provisional president of the new republic. Failing in his endeavor to launch a second revolution against **Yuan Shikai** in 1913, he fled to Japan and from there reorganized the Guomindang. Sun returned to China in 1916 and became the leader of a separatist government until 1924.

SUVOROV. *See KNIAZ SUVOROV.*

SUZUKI, KANTARÔ (1868–1948). Japanese naval officer and statesman who served as commanding officer of a **destroyer** flotilla during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading figure in the **Imperial Japanese Navy** and prime minister after the war. He was born

into a wealthy family in Fushi (near Osaka) and grew up in Chiba Prefecture. After graduating from the Naval Academy, Suzuki attended a **torpedo** school, and this field became his specialty in later years. He was then promoted to lieutenant, and he commanded a **torpedo boat** during the **First Sino–Japanese War**. Subsequently he served on several vessels, graduated from the Naval Staff College, and became known as the leading torpedo expert of the Imperial Japanese Navy. Following a stint at the navy general staff and the Navy Ministry, Suzuki left for studies in **Germany**. He was then promoted to commander and returned to **Japan** in the early stages of the Russo–Japanese War. During the war, he served as executive officer on an armored **cruiser** and took part in the **battle of the Yellow Sea**. In the **battle of Tsushima**, he commanded the 5th destroyer flotilla attached to the **Second Fleet** and was involved in the sinking of the Russian turret ship ***Navarin***.

After the war, Suzuki taught at the Naval Staff College and commanded a cruiser. Appointed commander of the torpedo school in 1910, he subsequently became commanding officer of a **battleship** and a **battlecruiser**. He was then promoted to rear admiral and vice admiral and served as deputy navy minister from 1914 to 1917 and as president of the Naval Academy from 1918 to 1920. In 1921 he was promoted to admiral and became commander-in-chief of the **Combined Fleet**. He subsequently served as chief of the navy general staff. He transferred to the reserve in 1929. The civilian career of Suzuki began with his appointment as grand chamberlain and privy councilor, and in later years vice president and then president of the privy council. He was appointed prime minister in 1944 and was a key figure in the unconditional surrender of Japan in August 1945; together with his cabinet, he resigned office on the day of the surrender. Suzuki served as president of the Privy Council until 1946.

***SVIETLANA*.** Russian protected **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She belonged to the **Baltic Fleet** and served in peacetime as a yacht for the grand duke commanding the **Imperial Russian Navy**, and therefore was fitted with considerable woodwork and luxurious facilities. At the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, the *Svietlana* was attached to the **Second Pacific Squadron**, with which she made a shortened course of the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet**

via the **Suez Canal** under the command of Rear Admiral **Dmitrii von Felkerzam**. She eventually participated in the **battle of Tsushima**. The *Svietlana* engaged the Japanese cruisers ***Otowa*** and ***Niitaka***, and she was sunk on the second day of the battle.

Technical data: Builder: Le Havre, 1895–1897; Displ.: 3,727t; LBD: 101.00×13.00×5.69m [331.5×43×19ft]; Machinery: 18 Belleville boilers, 2-shaft VTE, 8,500ihp; Speed: 21.6kt; Fuel: 400t coal; Armament: 6×152mm/45 [6in.], 10×3pdr, 2×381mm [15in.] TT, 20 MN; Armor: deck: 25–51mm [1–2in.], CT: 102mm [4in.]; Comp.: 401.

SWORDS. Hand weapons having a long, sharp-pointed blade, used primarily by Japanese officers during the Russo–Japanese War. Although the sword had been considered obsolete in the early stages of modernization, the **Imperial Japanese Army** decided to return this weapon to service, recognizing it for its spiritual virtues. Since the number of sword makers had declined sharply since modernization, and traditional methods of hand forging were expensive and time consuming, the army looked for industrial methods of sword making. The resulting military sword (*guntô*) was designed and produced under the supervision of the gun developer Murata Tsuneyoshi (1838–1921) and was collectively called *Murata-tô*. Considered equal in quality to the much more expensive traditional sword, it was provided to some members of the officer corps and was used increasingly during the **First Sino–Japanese War** and the Russo–Japanese War. Swords were used for close-contact engagements and as an addition to the **rifle.** Their use was widespread in Japan's subsequent wars.

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TACHIBANA, KOICHIRÔ (1861–1929). Japanese army officer who took part in the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading figure in the **Imperial Japanese Army** in later years. He was born in Fukuoka, graduated from the Military Academy and the Army Staff College, and took part in the **First Sino–Japanese War**. After studying in **Austro–Hungary**, Tachibana became military advisor to the Chinese General **Yuan Shikai**. During the Russo–Japanese War, Tachibana took part in the **siege of Port Arthur** and served in the

battle of Mukden as assistant chief of staff to General **Nozu Michitsura**. In the final stages of the war, he attended the **Portsmouth Peace Conference** and later remained in the **United States** as a military attaché. Tachibana was subsequently promoted to major general and carried out numerous assignments in **Korea**, becoming the first commander of the Kwantung Army [Guandong Army; *Kantôgun*]. In 1918 he was given command of the **Vladivostok** expeditionary army.

TACHIBANA, SHÛTA (1865–1904). Japanese army officer who was adulated as a war hero following his death in the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in the Hizen domain (now Nagasaki and Saga Prefectures) and graduated from the Army Academy in 1887. At the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, Major Tachibana served as a battalion commander in the **3rd Division** of the **Second Army**. He was killed in the **battle of Liaoyang** following an act of heroism. Posthumously he was promoted to lieutenant colonel. Until **Japan**'s defeat in 1945, he was revered, together with **Hirose Takeo**, as ***gunshin*** [war god].

TACTICS, MILITARY. The Russo–Japanese War did not offer new or remarkable lessons or innovations in military tactics. In many ways it was a dress rehearsal for World War I a decade later. At the same time, it more than confirmed the lessons of earlier engagements of the late 19th century, such as the **Boer War**, for it demonstrated the futility of the frontal attack, the power of the **rifle** and **machine gun** on the defensive, and especially the vital role **artillery** plays in the modern battlefield. In broken terrain the Japanese **infantry** made use of fairly thick skirmishing lines, but in open terrain the men were thinned out to 5–10 paces between them. They charged 20–30 paces at a time. Russian fire tactics were execrable, but the Japanese assaults generally failed nevertheless. To avoid casualties, night operations became prevalent. The machine gun added enormously to defense, when it was efficiently handled. The artillery was driven farther back by the hail of bullets, until the gunners were compelled to seek cover on the ground and to cease firing over their sights. The war turned increasingly into **trench warfare**, and all the land engagements became entrenched.

Whenever it was possible, trenches were protected by wire entanglements. Frontal attacks, save as fixing operations, were altogether

out of the question. At each great battle, especially the **battle of the Yalu**, the **battle of Liaoyang,** and the **battle of Mukden**, it was the Japanese threat of envelopment by infantry and artillery, **cavalry** having lost all offensive power, that compelled the Russians to retreat. The main lesson that military experts drew concerned the ever-growing power of artillery. Eventually the Russo–Japanese War was brought to an end not through tactical or strategic action but by revolution and attrition. Both sides were virtually worn out, and **Russia** was threatened by rebellion and disaster. The message of the war regarding the decline of the frontal offensive was overlooked by the major powers. Naturally, their **military observers** took note of this lesson, but its dissemination lost momentum during the nine years until the outbreak of World War I. Both the Germans with their **Schlieffen Plan** and the French with their counter Plan 17 paid an enormous human prince for their offensives at the beginning of the Great War.

TAFT, WILLIAM HOWARD (1857–1930). American statesman who served as secretary of war during the Russo–Japanese War and subsequently became the 27th president of the **United States**. He was born in Cincinnati, educated at Yale, and practiced law. In 1901 he was appointed civil governor of the Philippines, a position he held for four years. In 1904 he was appointed secretary of war by President **Theodore Roosevelt** and in this position signed the **Katsura–Taft agreement** in 1905. Taft became president after winning the presidential election of November 1908 for the Republicans. A breach in the Republican Party, intensified by Roosevelt's desire to return to office, led to Taft's defeat in the presidential election of 1912 by Woodrow Wilson. Taft then taught law at Yale for eight years before being appointed chief justice of the U.S. Supreme Court by President Warren Harding in 1921, an office he held until his death nine years later.

TAIRO DÔSHIKAI [ANTI-RUSSIA SOCIETY]. Japanese political organization advocating war against **Russia** on the eve of the Russo–Japanese War. This society was established in August 1903 as a political organization by **Konoe Atsumaro** and others, a successor to Konoe's Kokumin Dômeikai (Nationalist Alliance). Tairo Dôshikai advocated an expansionist war against Russia in light of the latter's attempts to make **Manchuria** its own protectorate.

TAISEKIHASHI NO TATAKAI. *See* TASHIHCHIAO, BATTLE OF.

TAKACHIHO*.** Japanese protected **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was one of two ships of the ***Naniwa class and an improved *Esmeralda* design, devised by Sir William White, for commerce raiding. She was also the second protected cruiser built for the **Imperial Japanese Navy** and served in the 4th Battle Division of the **Second Fleet** at the outbreak of the war. During the **First Sino–Japanese War**, she took part in the first battle of the Yalu. During the Russo–Japanese War, the *Takachiho* participated in the **battle of Chemulpo** as well as the **Battle of Tsushima**. After the war, she was converted into a **minelayer**, but she was eventually torpedoed and sunk by a German **torpedo boat** during the Japanese siege on Tsingtao [Qingdao] in 1914, in the early stages of World War I.

Technical data: Builder: Armstrong Walker, Great Britain, 1884–1885; Displ.: 4,150t; LBD: 91.40×14.00×6.10m [300×46×23ft]; Machinery: 3-shaft reciprocating, 6 boilers, 7,600ihp; Speed: 18kt; Fuel: 800t coal; Range 8,000nm on 10kt; Armament: 8×152mm/40 [6in.], 6×47mm QF, 4×356mm [14in.] TT; Armor: steel, gun shields: 37mm [1.5in.], CT: 76mm [3in.], deck: 51–76mm [2–3in.]; Comp.: 325.

TAKAHASHI, KOREKIYO (1854–1936). Japanese financier and statesman who served as vice president of the Bank of Japan during the Russo–Japanese War and was involved in obtaining loans for **Japan**. He was born in Edo (present-day **Tokyo**) and worked as a low-ranking official in various ministries. In 1892 Takahashi began working at the Bank of Japan and within six years rose to become its vice president. During the Russo–Japanese War, he was sent to Europe to obtain loans to help Japan in its war efforts and cover its immense **war expenditures**. In London Takahashi met the American financier **Jacob Schiff** and won his confidence, thereby arranging major securities for Japanese loans. For this accomplishment, Takahashi was appointed to the House of Peers in 1905, and in later years he emerged as a major figure in Japanese financial circles. He became president of the Bank of Japan in 1911. Two years later, Takahashi was appointed finance minister and served in this role seven times in the next two decades. In 1921 he became prime minister and head of the Rikken

Seiyûkai party, but his cabinet fell seven months later. An advocate of sound government finance, he was able to combat recession during the late 1920s and also opposed army demands for larger military appropriations. He was assassinated for the latter policy by army extremists in the unsuccessful coup of 26 February 1936.

TAKAHIRA, KOGORÔ (1854–1926). Japanese diplomat who served as ambassador in the **United States** during the Russo–Japanese War and plenipotentiary during the **Portsmouth Peace Conference**. He was born in Iwate, graduated from Kaisei Gakkô (later Tokyo University), and joined the Foreign Ministry in 1876. His first diplomatic assignment abroad was in Italy, after which he served as minister in **Austro–Hungary**. In 1899 he was appointed deputy foreign minister and was dispatched a year later as minister to the United States. Following his successful accomplishments in Washington throughout the war, Takahira became a member of the Japanese delegation to the Portsmouth Peace Conference; he remained in Washington after the war. He was made a baron in 1907, and a year later he negotiated with the American secretary of state **Elihu Root** the **Takahira–Root agreement**, of which he was one of the signatories.

TAKAHIRA–ROOT AGREEMENT (1908). A diplomatic agreement signed between **Japan** and the **United States** in the aftermath of the Russo–Japanese War. It was signed on 30 November 1908 and was aimed at relaxing the commercial and military tension between the two states following the emergence of Japan as the hegemonic power in northeast Asia after the war. The agreement was the eponymous brainchild of U.S. Secretary of State **Elihu Root** and the Japanese ambassador in the United States, **Takahira Kogorô**. Both parties officially recognized the status quo and affirmed the independence and territorial integrity of **China**. The United States recognized Japan's special interest in **Manchuria,** and Japan recognized American interests in Hawaii and the Philippines.

***TAKASAGO*.** Japanese protected **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. Designed by Sir Philip Watts, she was the only ship of the *Takasago* class and was considered large, fast, and heavily armed for her size. The *Takasago* served in the 3rd Battle Division

of the **First Fleet** at the outbreak of the war. On 12 December 1904, she struck a **mine** and sank a few hours later south of **Port Arthur**.

Technical data: Builder: Armstrong, Elswick, Great Britain, 1896–1898; Displ.: 5,260t; LBD: 118.20×14.78×5.18m [387.5×48.5×17ft]; Machinery: 2-shaft compound, 12 boilers, 15,500ihp; Speed: 23.5kt; Fuel: 1,000t coal; Range 5,500nm on 10kt; Armament: 2×203mm/40 [8in.], 10×120mm/40 [4.7in.], 12×76mm/40 [3in.] QF, 6×47mm/40 QF, 5×457mm [18in.] TT; Armor: Harvey nickel steel, gun shields: 114mm [4.5in.], CT: 76mm [3in.], deck: 63–114mm [2.5–4.5in.]; Comp.: 425.

TAKETOMI, KUNIKANE (1852–1931). Japanese naval officer who served as the commanding officer of a battle division during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in the Saga domain (now Saga Prefecture). He enrolled as a cadet in a gunnery course in 1871. His initial career did not seem promising, and for more than a decade he served as a crewman on various vessels. In 1883, however, he was promoted to lieutenant junior grade; by the time of his promotion to lieutenant commander a decade later, he had served in various sea and staff assignments. During the **First Sino–Japanese War**, Taketomi served at Yokosuka naval base. In 1897 he received his first significant command as commanding officer of the **gunvessel** *Akagi*. Some months later, he was promoted to commander. In 1898 Taketomi became the aide-de-camp of the crown prince and a few months later was promoted to captain. In 1901 he was appointed commander of the cruiser ***Iwate***, a post he maintained in the Russo–Japanese War. In January 1905 he was promoted to rear admiral and appointed commander of the 5th Battle Division of the **Third Fleet**. In this capacity he took part in the **battle of Tsushima**. After the war, he was appointed commander of the South China Fleet, promoted to vice admiral in 1909, and transferred to the reserves. He retired five years later.

TALIEN. *See* DALNY.

TANAKA, GIICHI (1864–1929). Japanese army officer and statesman who served as staff officer of the **Manchurian Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in the Chôshû domain (now Yamaguchi Prefecture). He attended the Army Academy and the Army

War College and fought in the **First Sino–Japanese War**. Subsequently Tanaka went to **Russia** for studies. At the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, he served as staff officer at the **Imperial General Headquarters**. During the war, he was promoted to lieutenant colonel and became an aide of General **Kodama Gentarô**, chief of staff of the Manchurian Army. In 1906 Tanaka drafted a defense plan, which became basic policy, and in 1911 he was appointed director of the Military Affairs Bureau of the Army Ministry.

Tanaka was appointed army minister in 1918, two years later was made a baron, and in 1921 promoted to general. In 1925 he was invited by the Seiyûkai party to become its leader. Two years later he was appointed prime minister, concurrently serving as foreign minister and minister of colonization. Following the assassination of the Manchurian warlord Zhang Zuolin [Chang Tso-lin] by officers of the Japanese Kwantung Army [Guandong Army; *Kantôgun*], Tanaka's cabinet sustained much criticism and lost the confidence of the emperor. The cabinet resigned in July 1929 and Tanaka died soon after.

TANNENBERG, BATTLE OF (1914). A major battle during the early stages of World War I between German and Russian armies, some of whose senior officers had acquired mutual knowledge in the Russo–Japanese War. At the beginning of World War I, two Russian armies, commanded by General **Pavel Rennenkampf** and General **Aleksandr Samsonov**, invaded East Prussia. On the German side, however, stood Colonel **Carl Hoffmann**, a German **military observer** on the Russian front during the Russo–Japanese War. He worked out a plan for defeating these armies and submitted it to General Paul von Hindenburg and his chief of staff General Erich Ludendorff, who had been sent to check the Russian advance. The plan rested on Hoffmann's knowledge, dating to the Russo–Japanese War and afterward, of a deep personal feud between the Russian generals, and his conviction that Rennenkampf would do little to relieve Samsonov. The Germans thus concentrated their forces in the region around Tannenberg and, aided by intercepted wireless signals, were able to rout Samsonov between 26 and 30 August 1914, taking more than 100,000 prisoners. Hindenburg then focused on Rennenkampf's army, which was virtually destroyed near the Masurian lakes in the second week of September. These victories made it impossible for the

Russians to launch another invasion of German territory during World War I.

TASHIHCHIAO, BATTLE OF [*TAISEKIHASHI NO TATAKAI*] (1904). Small-scale land engagement during the Japanese advance toward **Liaoyang** in the first stage of the Russo–Japanese War. It was fought on 24–25 July 1904 near Tashihchiao [Dashiqiao; *Taisekihashi*], about 25 kilometers [16 miles] southwest of **Haicheng**. On the Japanese side stood the **3rd**, **5th**, and **6th Divisions** of the Japanese **Second Army** under General **Oku Yasukata**, and on the Russian side were the **First Siberian Army Corps** under Lieutenant General **Georgii Stakelberg** and the **Fourth Siberian Army Corps** under Lieutenant General **Nikolai Zarubaev**. Although the Japanese **artillery** did not display any apparent advantage, the battle was determined by the night attack of the 5th Division; the following day, the site fell to the Japanese. Casualties amounted to about 1,000 men on each side.

TATSUMI, NAOBUMI (1845–1907). Japanese army officer who served as commanding officer of a division during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in Kuwana in present-day Mie Prefecture. He took part in the Boshin War against the shogunal forces during the Meiji Restoration in 1868. He then became judicial officer, but after the Satsuma Rebellion of 1877, he joined the army and fought in the **First Sino–Japanese War**. During the latter half of the Russo–Japanese War, he commanded the **8th Division** as part of the **Second Army** and distinguished himself in the **battle of Sandepu**. He was promoted to general in 1906 but died a year later.

TELISSU [DELISI; *TOKURIJI*]. Town in southern **Manchuria** and site of the **battle of Telissu** during the Russo–Japanese War. It is located 235 kilometers [146 miles] north of **Port Arthur** and 225 kilometers [140 miles] south of **Liaoyang**. The town was selected by General **Aleksei Kuropatkin** as the place to halt the northward advance of the Japanese **Second Army** during the early stages of the war.

TELISSU, BATTLE OF [BATTLE OF WAFANGKOU; *TOKURIJI NO TATAKAI*] (1904). Major land engagement in the early stages of the Russo–Japanese War. It was fought on 14–15 June 1904 in

Telissu [Delisi] between the Japanese **Second Army** under General **Oku Yasukata** and the Russian **First Siberian Army Corps** under Lieutenant General **Georgii Stakelberg**. Following the Japanese capture of **Nanshan**, Viceroy **Evgenii Alekseev** urged General **Aleksei Kuropatkin** to assume a more aggressive strategy against the Japanese advance northward and the encroaching threat to **Port Arthur**. Despite his objection, and through the intervention of Tsar **Nicholas II**, Kuropatkin selected the town of Telissu as the site of confrontation, assigning to the task 27,000 **infantry**, 2,500 **cavalry** under the command of Lieutenant General Simonov, and 98 guns. They were later supplemented by 3,000 riflemen and two guns, which arrived just as the frontline troops were withdrawing. On the Japanese side, Oku's force comprised the **3rd**, **4th**, and **5th Divisions**, with a total of about 36,000 riflemen, 2,000 cavalry, and 216 guns, deployed on the railroad just south of the town.

A week before the engagement, Kuropatkin sent Stakelberg southward with orders to recapture Nanshan and advance on Port Arthur but avoid any decisive action against superior forces. Oku's army had been moving slowly north since 30 May. Both sides continued to build up their forces and used infantry skirmishes and **artillery** exchanges to test each other's strength. The Russians, believing the Second Army's objective to be the capture of Port Arthur, moved their command facilities to Telissu. Stakelberg positioned his troops astride the railway to the south of the town, while Lieutenant General Simonov, commanding the 19th Cavalry Squadron, took the extreme right of the front. Oku intended to attack frontally with the 3rd and 5th Divisions, one on each side of the railway, while the 4th division was to advance on the Russian right flank down the Fuchou valley. Being the superior force and having the definite purpose of fighting his way north, Oku began to move on the morning of 14 June.

The battle began with an artillery engagement, which demonstrated the superiority of the Japanese guns not only in number but also in accuracy. The new Russian **Putilov M-1903** field gun was first introduced in this battle but was ineffective due to lack of training of the crews and the outdated conceptions of the senior artillery officers. The better Japanese artillery seemed to have a significant effect throughout the battle. Early on 14 June, Oku attacked the Russian front, outflanking it on either side. Divided by the Fuchou River,

Stakelberg's forces were inadequate and unable to make use of their defensive advantage. The next morning, the First East Siberian Rifle Division under Lieutenant General **Aleksandr Gerngross** launched a counter-stroke, which surprised the Japanese 3rd Division but did not prevail over it due to insufficient commitment of the available force. By contrast, resolute action by the Japanese 5th Division forced a breakthrough, and on 15 June, Oku won an important victory. Stakelberg retreated northward to Kaiping. The Japanese victory came at the cost of 1,163 men (217 killed and 946 wounded), against Russian losses of at least 3,500 (477 killed, 2,240 wounded, and 754 missing). The disastrous, speedy defeat at Telissu ended the southern expedition. Kuropatkin then resumed his defensive strategy, which ultimately led him to the engagement at **Mukden**.

TENTH EUROPEAN ARMY CORPS. *See* CORPS, TENTH EUROPEAN ARMY.

TERAUCHI, MASATAKE (1852–1919). Japanese army officer and statesman who served as war minister during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born into the Utada clan and was adopted by the Terauchi family of the Chôshû domain (now Yamaguchi Prefecture). He served in the army of the Chôshû clan against the shogunal forces in the Boshin War during the Meiji Restoration and joined the new **Imperial Japanese Army** as a sergeant. Terauchi was soon promoted to lieutenant but was badly wounded and lost an arm during the Satsuma Rebellion of 1877. Subsequently he served in a series of staff and training positions, rising steadily to the rank of major general. During the **First Sino–Japanese War**, Terauchi served on the joint staff, was promoted later to lieutenant general, and was appointed army minister in 1902. He served in this role until 1909, and in this capacity he represented the army in the government during the Russo–Japanese War and later pushed for Japanese annexation of **Korea**. In November 1906 Terauchi was promoted to general. Following the assassination of **Itô Hirobumi** in 1909, he was appointed governor-general of Korea. In this capacity he eliminated the last of Korea's royal line and signed the treaty that formulated the annexation of Korea in August 1910. In 1916 Terauchi was promoted to field marshal and took office as prime minister the same year. He held the post until 1918.

TETSUREI. *See* TIELING.

THIRD FLEET, JAPANESE. *See* FLEET, JAPANESE THIRD.

THIRD JAPANESE ARMY. *See* ARMY, JAPANESE THIRD.

THIRD MANCHURIAN ARMY. *See* MANCHURIAN ARMY, THIRD.

THIRD SIBERIAN ARMY CORPS. *See* CORPS, THIRD SIBERIAN ARMY.

THREE-POWER INTERVENTION [TRIPARTITE INTERVENTION]. Diplomatic and military pressure exerted by **Russia**, **France**, and **Germany** on **Japan** to concede some of its territorial gains in the wake of the **First Sino–Japanese War**. Japanese outrage at this coercion was considered one of the underlying causes of the Russo–Japanese War. Prior to the conclusion of the **Treaty of Shimonoseki** between Japan and **China** in the aftermath of the First Sino–Japanese War, the European powers were already disturbed by the territorial division of China. Russia in particular was concerned with Japan's gaining control of south **Manchuria** and **Korea**, territories Russia coveted. On 23 April 1895, six days after the treaty had been signed and the **Liaotung peninsula** was transferred to Japanese hands, the Russian, French, and German governments conveyed to Japan their "suggestion" that it return this territory to China in return for greater monetary reparations. They had obvious naval superiority, as the fleets of the three powers consisted of 38 warships, with total displacement of 95,000 tons, in East Asia alone. The **Imperial Japanese Navy** had at that time only 31 warships with total displacement of 57,000 tons. Japan's oligarchy concluded that they were incapable of confronting the three powers.

Following some futile negotiations to win support from **Great Britain** and the **United States**, Japan conceded and withdrew its forces from the Liaotung peninsula by the end of the year. During the next six months, Japan and China returned to the negotiating table, and on 8 November 1895 the two parties agreed to increase the amount of indemnities payable to Japan in exchange for the removal of its forces from the peninsulas of Shantung [Shandong] and Liaotung, as well as

from **Port Arthur**. The enlarged indemnities were no compensation for Japan, and the capitulation to the three powers was regarded as a national disgrace, with repercussions that affected Japanese foreign policy in the following decade. The concession had some consequences that affected Korea too, and the collaborators that Japan had recruited during the war began to back down from their pro-Japanese positions one after the other. Shortly afterward, Germany secured a lease of the Shantung peninsula, France leased areas in the south of China, while Russia leased the newly returned Port Arthur and its environs in 1898.

TIBET. Mountainous region between **India** and **China** proper; became a bone of contention between **Russia** and **Great Britain** before the Russo–Japanese War and the target of a British military expedition during the war. Nominally under Chinese suzerainty from 1715 onward, it was ruled by the Dalai Lama, a spiritual and temporal leader, who acted as a Chinese vassal. By 1900, however, Tibet was virtually independent. Fears of Russian penetration led the British Indian government to dispatch a military expedition commanded by Colonel Francis Younghusband to the Tibetan capital, Lhasa, in 1903. The expedition reached its destination on 3 August 1904 after a skirmish in which the expeditionary force used **machine guns** against several hundred Tibetan peasants. Younghusband found no Russians in the capital, but his arrival caused the Dalai Lama and his entourage to flee to Mongolia. In his absence, Younghusband forced Tibetan representatives to sign a treaty in September 1904 that provided for trade with India.

British intervention at a time of Russian and Chinese weakness did not prevent China from reviving its concern for the region. Consequently the Chinese government occupied Lhasa from 1910 to 1913, forcing the Dalai Lama to flee again, this time to India. He returned to Tibet in 1913, and Tibet continued in unmolested independence until October 1950. In 1951 Chinese communist troops crossed the eastern frontier and occupied all Tibet. Eight years later, a major rebellion sparked heavy fighting between Tibetans and Chinese, and subsequently the incumbent Dalai Lama and some 9,000 of his followers fled to India. Tibet was administered as a Chinese province from 1959 until September 1965, when it was constituted as an autonomous region within China.

TIELING [TIEHLING; *TETSUREI*]. Chinese city on the banks of the Liao River [Liaohe] in the **Liaoning** province; site of a Russian retreat during the Russo–Japanese War. It is located 70 kilometers [44 miles] north of **Mukden** and was connected by railroad to **Harbin** and Beijing. The city, mentioned in writings dating back to the Chinese Zhou dynasty, became known as Tiehling during the early Ming dynasty and turned into an industrial coal production settlement during the late 19th century. On 10 March 1905, in the aftermath of the **battle of Mukden**, Tieling became the destination of the retreating Russian forces under the command of General **Aleksei Kuropatkin**. On 16 March it fell into Japanese hands.

TIRPITZ, ALFRED VON (1849–1930). German naval officer who served as the navy secretary of state during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in 1849 in Kostrzyn, Brandenburg. He entered the Imperial German Navy at the age of 16 and gradually became its chief **torpedo** specialist. He served as chief of staff for the navy high command and briefly commanded the Far Eastern **cruiser** force before his appointment in 1897 as navy secretary of state, a position he held for the next 19 years. Tirpitz was determined to give **Germany** a powerful fleet. He sponsored the Navy Law of 1898 that regulated the size of the fleet and put it in competition with **France** and **Great Britain**. Subsequent expansions of the fleet by law gave Germany a naval force that, following the Russo–Japanese War, was second only to Great Britain, despite the emergence of the **dreadnought**. Nevertheless, the German focus on land strategy during World War I prevented Tirpitz from taking command of the fleet he had created. His support of **submarine** deployment led to his resignation when that action was taken without his being consulted. After his retirement, he was associated with rightist movements. When a member of the Reichstag, he persuaded Paul von Hindenburg to accept the presidency of the Weimar Republic.

TOCHIGIJÔ NO TATAKAI. *See* HSIMUCHENG, BATTLE OF.

TÔGÔ, HEIHACHIRÔ (1847–1934). Japanese naval officer who served as commander-in-chief of the **Combined Fleet** and the **First Fleet** during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in the Satsuma domain (now Kagoshima Prefecture) and took part in the defense of

Kagoshima against a British naval bombardment in 1864. He entered the navy of his domain, serving as a gunnery officer. After the Meiji Restoration, Tôgô joined the new **Imperial Japanese Navy** as a cadet, and in 1871 he was sent to **Great Britain** as a naval student, training at the Thames nautical training college. He sailed around the world as a common sailor aboard a British vessel. He studied mathematics at Cambridge, then oversaw armored ship construction. On his return to **Japan**, he was promoted to lieutenant in 1878, lieutenant commander in 1879, commander in 1885, and captain in 1886. During this period, Tôgô commanded various warships, but due to poor health, he was almost forced into retirement. Instead, however, he won command of the **cruiser *Naniwa*** as the **First Sino–Japanese War** loomed. Tôgô's ship precipitated that war by sinking the *Kowshing*, a British transport ship ferrying more than 1,000 Chinese soldiers to **Korea,** in the Yellow Sea. Subsequently he took part in the first battle of the Yalu. During that war, he was promoted to rear admiral and appointed commander of the Readiness Fleet.

In the following decade, Tôgô held a series of shore assignments, and he was promoted to vice admiral in 1898. While commander of the Maizuru naval base, he was appointed commander-in-chief of the Combined Fleet on 28 December 1903, six weeks before the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War. The general view before the war was that he was an average officer, but apparently he was selected for his tactical skill and his steady disposition in combat, both demonstrated well during the First Sino–Japanese War. In his new position, Tôgô directed the initial attacks on **Port Arthur** and the blockade of its harbor. In June 1904 he was promoted to admiral, and in August he defeated Rear Admiral **Vilgelm Vitgeft**'s naval force in the first major naval engagement of the war in the **battle of the Yellow Sea**. Nine months later, he led the Combined Fleet in the **battle of Tsushima**, winning a decisive victory that practically ended the war. It earned him the nickname "Nelson of the East" and set him among the greatest admirals in naval history.

After the war, Tôgô was made chief of the naval general staff in December 1905, naval councilor in 1909, and fleet admiral in 1913. He was made a count in 1907 and was awarded the British Order of Merit. After the suicide of General **Nogi Maresuke** in 1912, Tôgô replaced him and took charge of the education of Prince Hirohito, later

Showa Emperor, from 1914 to 1924. He remained a figure of powerful influence during those years and was created marquis before his death. As a national hero and international figure, he is considered one of Japan's greatest modern military leaders and possibly its greatest naval figure. After his death, the Tôgô Shrine, located in Harajuku, **Tokyo**, was founded in his memory.

TÔGÔ, MASAJI [MASAMICHI] (1853–1906). Japanese naval officer who served as the commanding officer of a battle division at the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in Fukui (in present-day Fukui Prefecture) and graduated from the fourth class of the Naval Academy. He was promoted to lieutenant in 1885 and lieutenant commander in 1890, and he was given command of the *Manju* in 1893. During the **First Sino–Japanese War**, he served as commanding officer of the *Chokai* and the *Saikyô Maru*. Soon after the war, he was promoted to captain and served as commander of larger warships. In 1897 he was appointed chief of staff of the Kure naval base and in 1899 became the commanding officer of the **cruiser *Yakumo***. In 1902 he was promoted to rear admiral and became chief instructor of the Naval Academy. Two months before the Russo–Japanese war, he was appointed commander of the 6th Division of the **Third Fleet**, and he led this unit of four cruisers aboard the cruiser ***Suma*** at the **battle of Tsushima**. After the war, he was promoted to vice admiral in November 1905 and appointed commander of the **Fourth Fleet**. He died, however, two months later and was made a baron posthumously.

TOKIWA*.** Japanese armored **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. One of two ships of the ***Asama class, she was considered one of the first modern armored cruisers of the **Imperial Japanese Navy**. The *Tokiwa* was heavily armed and well protected but had only a short range. At the outbreak of the war, the *Tokiwa* belonged in the 2nd Battle Division of the **Second Fleet**. Her division was detached to the port of **Chemulpo** at the outbreak of the war, and she saw action in the subsequent **battle of Chemulpo**. Later the *Tokiwa* fought in the **battle of the Korea Straits,** the **battle of the Yellow Sea**, and the **battle of Tsushima**, where she was part of the 2nd Battle Division under the command of Rear Admiral **Shimamura Hayao**.

Technical data: Builder: Armstrong, Elswick, Great Britain, 1896–1899; Displ.: 10,519t; LBD: 134.72×20.45×7.43m [408×67.3×24.5ft]; Machinery: 2-shaft VTE, 12 boilers, 18,000ihp; Speed: 21.3kt; Fuel: 1,406t coal; Range 4,600nm on 11kt; Armament: 4×203mm/40 [8in.], 14×152mm/40 [6in.], 12×76mm [3in.] QF, 8×47mm QF, 5×457mm [18in.] TT; Armor: Harvey nickel steel, belt: 89–178mm [3.5–7in.], barbettes: 152mm [6in.], turrets: 152mm [6in.], casemates: 152mm [6in.], CT: 76–356mm [3–14in.], deck: 51–76mm [2–3in.]; Comp.: 726.

TOKURIJI. *See* TELISSU.

TOKURIJI NO TATAKAI. *See* TELISSU, BATTLE OF.

TOKYO [TOKIO, *TÔKYÔ*]. Capital city of **Japan**; seat of **Emperor Meiji** and the **Imperial General Headquarters** during the Russo–Japanese War. It is located on the Kanto plains, on the east side of the main island of Honshu and northwest of the Tokyo bay (35° 41' north and 139° 45' east). Originally named Edo, the city served as the focal point of the Kanto region from the 12th century. It fell to Tokugawa Ieyasu at the end of the 16th century and was made the capital of his shogunate in 1603. Kyoto remained the imperial capital until 1868. That year, with the completion of the Meiji Restoration, the imperial family moved to Edo, which became the national capital and was renamed Tokyo [eastern capital]. On the eve of the Russo–Japanese War, the population of Tokyo was more than 1.5 million, and the first electric streetcars had already made their appearance. At this stage, Tokyo became the political, cultural, and industrial center of Japan. All government activities and most of the military decision-making during the war took place in this city.

TORPEDO BOATS. Type of warships designed to hit large ships by swarming around them and launching **torpedoes**. They were used in large numbers during the Russo–Japanese War, to no great effect. The development of the torpedo boat was closely related to the development of the torpedo. Advances in spar torpedo technology during the American Civil War yielded light craft, whose capabilities were demonstrated in that war. The commercial introduction of the self-propelled torpedo

by the Whitehead company in 1875 triggered rapid development of coastal and sea-going torpedo boats in Europe, which were favored by followers of the *Jeune Ecole* (Young School) in **France**. The French navy saw the torpedo boat as a partial solution to the superiority of the British **Royal Navy**. Still, by 1890 **Great Britain**, **Germany**, and **Japan** had acquired comparable flotillas. The British introduction of the torpedo boat destroyer in 1893, the immediate antecedent of the more seaworthy **destroyer**, diminished the prospects of the torpedo boat.

During the Russo–Japanese War, both the **Imperial Japanese Navy** and the **Imperial Russian Navy** employed large numbers of torpedo boats, but the former had a numerical advantage in the Pacific arena. At the outbreak of the war, the Japanese had 90 torpedo boats, whereas the **Pacific Fleet** had only 11, all stationed at **Vladivostok**. The Imperial Japanese Navy ordered its first torpedo boat in 1879 and during the war used more than 10 different classes, whose specifications varied substantially depending on the class. Displ.: 52–203t, Speed: 19–29kt; Armament: 2–6×356mm [14-inch] TT and 1–2×light guns; Comp.: 16–30. The Imperial Russian Navy used a large number of torpedo boats during the Russo–Turkish War of 1877–1878 and continued to employ these and newer classes around the turn of the century, but mainly in the **Black Sea Fleet**. The four classes of torpedo boats used by the Pacific Fleet were shipped in sections to Vladivostok. Their specifications likewise varied substantially, depending on the class. Displ.: 96–175t, Speed: 18.5–20.3kt; Armament: 2–3×381mm [15-inch] TT and 2–4×light guns; Comp.: 21.

After the Russo–Japanese War, the main developments in torpedo boats were related to the performance and accuracy of their torpedoes. During World War I, German torpedo boats were integrated into efforts to inhibit British grand fleet operations, although contemporary naval designers showed little interest in the prevailing torpedo-boat configuration. The torpedo boats reappeared during World War II in a smaller configuration, usually as wooden-hulled motor torpedo boats, swift launches active notably in the English Channel, the Mediterranean, and the southwest Pacific. In the postwar years, they were soon replaced by fast missile craft, terminating a century of torpedo-boat development.

TORPEDOES. Self-propelled, underwater explosive devices; during the Russo–Japanese War, an operational but rather ineffective naval

weapon. The torpedo was invented in 1866 by Robert Whitehead, a British engineer working for the Austro–Hungarian navy. The U.S. Navy evinced early interest in the device and established in 1869 the Torpedo Station at Newport, Rhode Island. After reaching a technological dead-end in the flywheel-driven Howell type, the navy went back to Whitehead in 1892. After the **First Sino–Japanese War**, the torpedo and the tactics of its use underwent rapid development. Nevertheless, on the eve of the Russo–Japanese War, the torpedo was still of relatively slow operational speed and short range: 26–27 knots and only 600–800 meters. Earlier, Vice Admiral **Stepan Makarov** of the **Imperial Russian Navy**, who was a pioneer of torpedo warfare, had suggested increasing the firing range of the torpedo by reducing its speed. With the improvement of accuracy, the **Imperial Japanese Navy** adopted Makarov's idea and began trials firing torpedoes at a range of 2,500 meters at 10–11 knots.

The torpedo's performance in the Russo–Japanese War was disappointing, mainly because of its very low strike rate. On the Japanese side, for example, none of the 74 torpedoes fired during the **battle of the Yellow Sea** found its mark. Furthermore, of the total 370 torpedoes the Imperial Japanese Navy fired during the entire war, only 17 hit the target, a success rate of about 4 percent. The relative success of the Japanese torpedo assault on the night of 8 February 1904 during the **attack on Port Arthur** was disregarded because it was conducted at very close range and against stationary vessels with no defense. Although subsequent torpedo attacks fared even worse, the fear of an enemy using torpedoes shaped to some extent the style of combat on both sides. They avoided close contact and were fearful of night engagements, in which **torpedo boats** had an advantage.

Despite the torpedo's limited effectiveness during the Russo–Japanese War, the major navies appreciated its potential, and the momentum of its development was not checked. This was evident in the **Royal Navy**, whose first lord of the Admiralty, Admiral **John Fisher**, received in May 1904 a report about another British development that increased the range of the torpedo to about 2,700 meters. Fisher was aware that very soon torpedo development would yield a longer range than that of gunfire, which made the launching of the torpedo unchecked. He was not mistaken, as improved models of torpedoes soon followed. With turbine propulsion introduced in 1905 and an air

heater in 1910, the torpedo range, which stood at about 4,000 meters in 1905, increased within a decade to about 10,000 meters, and its speed increased from 19 knots, when launched for the maximum distance, to 45 knots for almost double that distance. During World War I, the torpedo proved a relatively precise weapon, especially when fired at close range from **submarines**. These were vulnerable, so the torpedo was used mainly against transport shipping.

TRANS-SIBERIAN RAILWAY. Railroad system across Siberia connecting European **Russia** to **Vladivostok**. It was Russia's main means of expansion to East Asia, stimulating Japanese fears of Russian imperialism prior to the Russo–Japanese War and serving as Russia's main route of military transportation during the war. Until the last decade of the 19th century, Russian settlements throughout Siberia were linked only by rivers and roads. Following a survey and a committee's review regarding the development of Siberia, the Russian government decided to build a line that would link its European part with the Pacific Ocean, thereby allowing rapid mobilization of Russian troops and transport of resources to and from Asia. In 1878 the first line breaching the Siberian frontier was completed. It crossed the Urals from Perm in European Russia to Ekaterinburg (Sverdlovsk) east of the mountain chain. Railroad construction continued apace in the 1880s, including the first all-Siberian line from Ekaterinburg to Tumen.

During the second half of the 1880s, when a line linking Samara (Kuibyshev), Ufa, and Ziatoust was under construction, the tsarist government decided to construct a railway throughout Siberia to the shores of the Pacific Ocean. The decision was stimulated by the growth of Vladivostok as a major Russian naval base and seaport on the Pacific coast, news of an imminent similar British project, and the purely personal interest of Tsar Alexander III. In the next decade, the construction of the line was driven mainly by economic and political motives. On the one hand, there was trade and commerce within the Russian empire and beyond, exploitation of natural resources in Siberia, and the growth of the population. On the other hand, it could serve as a means of enhancing the Russian position in East Asia, through the ability to move troops eastward in a short time. Surveys of the extensive terrain began in late 1887, but the ultimate decision was made only in December 1890, determining the route of the new

line from the Zlautoust and Miass railhead to Cheliabinsk, Omsk, Irkutsk, Khabarovsk, and Vladivostok.

In March 1891, an imperial rescript formally announced the Trans-Siberian project, and the Russian crown prince (the future **Nicholas II**), en route to **Japan**, received instructions to inaugurate the terminal in Vladivostok. Two important appointments followed the ceremony. The first was that of Nicholas as chair of the Siberian Railway Committee, an organization created to promote the building of the line; the second was that of **Sergei Witte**, who was appointed minister of ways and communications in February 1892. Witte soon after became finance minister, and with his immense energy was closely related to the accomplishment of the project in the following decade. Initial engineering designs called for the line to be completed in six main segments: West Siberian (Cheliabinsk to Novonikolaevsk on the Ob River: 1,450 kilometers [900 miles]); Mid-Siberian (Ob to Irkutsk and **Lake Baikal**: 1,800 kilometers [1,120 miles]); Circumbaikal (around Lake Baikal to its eastern side: 257 kilometers [160 miles]); Trans-Baikal (from Lake Baikal to Sretensk: 1,100 kilometers [685 miles]); Amur (Sretensk to Khabarovsk: 1,930 kilometers [1,200 miles]); and Ussuri (Khabarovsk to Vladivostok).

Original projections of costs in 1891 totaled approximately the equivalent of $175 million, with a target completion date for the entire system set for 1903. Work on the Western Siberian project began in mid-1892 and was completed in 1895. Construction of the Mid-Siberian section began in mid-1893 and was completed in 1898. Work on the very short section from Irkutsk to the western shores of Lake Baikal began in 1896 and on the longer Trans-Baikal section in 1895, and both sections were completed in 1900. The construction of the Circumbaikal section began in 1901 and was completed in summer 1904, contributing thereby to the Russian war effort during the Russo–Japanese War. The construction of the Sretensk–Khabarovsk section (the Amur line) was the most problematic and had grave political repercussions. Due mainly to topographic factors, it proved so expensive that the authorities shelved the project in 1895. The 1,450-kilometer [900-mile] alternative was a shorter and topographically simpler route, which followed a southeasterly course from near Chita east of Lake Baikal to Vladivostok. This route, however, had to run through **Manchuria**, namely across Chinese territory. Through the **Li–Lobanov agreement** signed

in 1896, Witte succeeded in gaining **China**'s approval for this section, known later as the **Chinese Eastern Railway**. This shortcut across Manchuria to Vladivostok was completed under Russian supervision by late 1901, and regular service began in 1903.

On the eve of the Russo–Japanese War, the line was completed except for the Circumbaikal section, while the Amur section was replaced by the Chinese Eastern Railway. Although construction of the Amur section had been abandoned temporarily, passengers and freight could continue east to Chita and Sretensk by rail, then journey by boat down the Shilka River and the greater Amur River to Khabarovsk, and then by rail, on a line completed in 1897, to Vladivostok. Thus, on the eve of the Russo–Japanese War, two major lines reached Vladivostok, but both were incomplete. In addition, it was a single-track system, which caused numerous delays. Nonetheless, with the completion of the Circumbaikal section in summer 1904, the frequency of trains rose gradually to 22 pairs from merely four pairs a day in February 1904. Eventually during the course of the war, the Trans-Siberian Railway culminated as Russia's pipeline for troops and supply of immense importance. Altogether it transferred 2,698 troop and 2,529 freight echelons, which probably could have made a greater contribution if they had arrived in the initial months of the war. Due to its strategic importance, the line was defended by 55,000 men, deployed between the Ural mountains and the Manchurian frontier. An additional 25,000 men defended the railway within Manchuria.

After the Russo–Japanese War, the Russian government resumed construction of the 1,930-kilometer Amur section, since the Chinese Eastern Railway was no longer a dependable link to Vladivostok. Begun in 1908, the project was completed in 1916, thereby making the whole line within Russian territory. Estimates of the total cost vary greatly, depending on the sources and the elements included. The economic benefits that were forecast for the line, however, never fully materialized, although militarily it was essential for Russia's defense during the war and afterward.

TRENCH WARFARE. A form of warfare in which **infantry** troops dig in to hold their positions when they cannot advance against the enemy. It was used extensively during the Russo–Japanese War and reached its peak during World War I. Trench warfare in the form of siege opera-

tions was already a developed art by the 17th century. Its master was the French military engineer Marquis Sebastien Le Prestre Vauban (1633–1707), who set the stage for two centuries of siege warfare. It was also used during the Crimean War and the American Civil War, in the latter particularly at the sieges at Vicksburg and Petersburg. In the latter half of the 19th century, the growth of firepower of the **artillery**, and still more **machine guns**, made trench warfare inevitable. Consequently the extensive use of artillery during the Russo–Japanese War forced the two sides to resort to trench warfare, especially around **Port Arthur** but also around **Liaoyang** and **Mukden**.

The typical front-line trench was about 1.8 to 2.4 meters [6 to 8 feet] deep, and wide enough for two men to pass. Whereas field artillery was set up behind the support trenches, barbed wire was used to protect the front-line trenches from surprise attacks. Between the enemy lines lay a stretch of ground called "no man's land," which varied from several meters wide at some points to more than a kilometer at others. Together with the earlier Franco–Prussian War and the **Boer War**, the Russo–Japanese War demonstrated the problems of taking entrenchments that were defended by improved **rifles**, long-range artillery, and, increasingly, machine guns. Many armies, however, did not recognize during the war the change in **military tactics**, as the shadow of Napoleon continued to emphasize offensive ideas. Furthermore, the Russo–Japanese War did not introduce any new weapon that could overcome trenches, such as the tank or gas attack, perhaps because the fighting usually did not last more than a month or two in any engagement. World War I continued the trend toward increased use of the entrenched defense. Weapons were now even more powerful and forced the infantry below ground into long lines of trenches, which had spread across the entire western front by late 1914.

TRIPARTITE INTERVENTION. *See* THREE-POWER INTERVENTION.

TRIPLE ENTENTE (1907). Unofficial name given to the grouping of **Russia**, **Great Britain**, and **France** in the aftermath of the Russo–Japanese War. The understanding between these three powers was reached after the conclusion of the **Anglo–Russian Entente**, which settled the differences between these two parties in Persia,

Afghanistan, and **Tibet** in August 1907. The grouping of the three powers did not take the form of a treaty of alliance, which would have been unacceptable to the British cabinet. While the members of the Triple Entente agreed to aid one another in the case of an attack by any two or more countries (although they were not obliged to go to war), they viewed **Germany** as their arch-enemy. In earlier decades, German Chancellor Otto von Bismarck had prevented this union from crystallizing. But in 1907 the evolving entente restored the balance of power in Europe vis-à-vis the Triple Alliance and put an end to German preponderance. In the following seven years to the outbreak of World War I, and in the next three years of total war, the Triple Entente constituted a major force in European and global politics.

TROTSKII, LEON [TROTSKY; LEV DAVIDOVICH BRONSTEIN] (1879–1940). Russian intellectual and revolutionary who was involved in the **Revolution of 1905** and played a major role in the Bolshevik Revolution of 1917 and in the formation of the Soviet Union. He was born Lev Davidovich Bronstein to a Jewish family in Yanovka, Kherson Province, in the Ukraine. Trotskii attended school in Nikolaev and later in Odessa, where he was first exposed to Marxist ideology. In 1898 he was arrested for revolutionary activity and in 1900 sentenced to four years of exile in Siberia. In 1902 Trotskii was able to escape and leave **Russia**. He traveled to London, where he met **Vladimir Lenin** and **Georgii Plekhanov** and worked with them on the Marxist newspaper *Iskra*. In January 1905, news of the **Bloody Sunday** riots reached Trotskii, and he returned to Russia to take part in the events that followed. After the defeat at the **battle of Tsushima** and the **Potemkin mutiny**, Trotskii became involved in the Petersburg Soviet of Workers and was eventually elected its chair.

After the granting of the **October Manifesto**, the Soviet was crushed, and Trotskii was arrested for his revolutionary activities during 1905. In his jail cell, Trotskii wrote his conclusions of the revolution and formulated the essential ideas that would eventually become the Bolshevik formula for the October Revolution of 1917. Trotskii was again exiled to Siberia in 1907 but was able to escape once more and reach western Europe. He spent the next few years in Vienna, Paris, and Switzerland. When revolution broke out again in 1917, Trotskii returned to Russia and became a driving force behind

the October Revolution. During the civil war, he founded and headed the Red Army and later served as a member of the Politburo. After Lenin's death, a bitter struggle began between Trotskii and Iosif (Joseph) Stalin, resulting in Trotskii's expulsion from the Communist Party and later from the Soviet Union. He spent the rest of his life in exile and was murdered in Mexico in 1940 at the instructions of Stalin.

TROUBRIDGE, ERNEST CHARLES THOMAS (1862–1926). British naval officer who served as **naval observer** during the Russo–Japanese War and gained international notoriety at the outbreak of World War I. He joined the **Royal Navy** in his youth and fulfilled various sea and staff assignments, during which he was eventually promoted to captain. During the early stages of the Russo–Japanese War, Troubridge was attached to the Japanese **First Fleet**, but when he was told that he was to be joined by Captain **William Pakenham**, he promptly took ship back home, despite the Admiralty's intention to have at least two officers covering the war. In the following decade, the mercurial Troubridge was promoted to rear admiral. On the eve of World War I, he commanded the First Cruiser Squadron of the British Mediterranean Squadron. In August 1914, however, he earned national disdain for his failure to prevent the escape of the German **battlecruisers** *Goeben* and *Breslau* from Messina into the Sea of Marmara, thereby bringing about indirectly **Turkey**'s entry into the war on the side of the Central Powers. Consequently, Troubridge was accused of cowardice, relieved of command, and court-martialed. Eventually he was acquitted and in 1918 was dispatched to Serbia. In 1919–1924 he served as president of the International Danube Commission and died two years later without ever returning to active service in the Royal Navy.

TRUMPELDOR, JOSEPH (1880–1920). Russian soldier and Jewish pioneer who served with distinction in the defense of **Port Arthur** during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in Pyatigorsk and, being a **Jew**, was forbidden from attending high school. He studied dentistry and was eventually drafted into the **Imperial Russian Army** in 1902. He was stationed at Port Arthur, and during the early stages of the war distinguished himself by taking on dangerous missions and

requesting to stay on the front lines despite losing an arm in battle. After the surrender of the fort, he was sent to a Japanese **prisoner camp** in **Matsuyama**, where he worked for the welfare of fellow prisoners. Upon his release, he studied law and later emigrated to Palestine (now Israel), organizing defense for settlements. During negotiations with Arab raiders in Tel Hai, he suffered a lethal stomach wound from a shot. After his death, he became a symbol of heroism and sacrifice in the Zionist movement and later in the State of Israel.

TSAR NICHOLAS II. *See* NICHOLAS II, TSAR.

***TSESSAREVICH*.** Russian **battleship** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was the only ship in the newly built *Tsessarevich* class and served in the **Pacific Fleet** at the outbreak of the war. She was fitted with a **torpedo** bulkhead that was not tested and was hit by a torpedo aft during the initial Japanese **naval attack on Port Arthur**. The *Tsessarevich* was subsequently repaired. In the **battle of the Yellow Sea**, she served as the flagship of Rear Admiral **Vilgelm Vitgeft**, commander of the **Port Arthur Squadron**. She was hit by 15 305-millimeter [12-inch] shells, one of which killed Vitgeft and another jammed the battleship's steering gear. As a result, she lost control and began turning around. As Rear Admiral **Pavel Ukhtomskii** decided soon after to return to **Port Arthur**, this misfortune in fact sealed the fate of the battle, and arguably that of the entire Pacific Fleet as well. The *Tsessarevich* did not follow suit but arrived together with three **destroyers** at the German port of Kiaochou [Jiaozhou], where she was interned for the rest of the war. Despite the numerous hits, which destroyed the funnels and the conning tower, she did not suffer much damage, and after the war she returned to service. During World War I, the *Tsessarevich* was stationed in the Baltic Sea and in 1917 was renamed *Grazhdanin*. Later she survived an engagement with the German **dreadnought** *Nassau* with only light damage, but she was scrapped five years later.

Technical data: Builder: La Seyne, France, 1899–1903; Displ.: 12,915t; LBD: 118.50×23.20×7.92m [388.5×76×26ft]; Machinery: 20 Belleville boilers, 2-shaft VTE, 16,500ihp; Speed: 18.5kt; Fuel: 1,350t coal max; Armament: 4×305mm/40 [12in.] (2×2), 12×152mm/45 [6in.] (6×2), 20×11pdr, 20×3pdr, 4×381mm

[15in.] TT (2AW 2sub, later 2 sub only), 45 MN; Armor: KC, belt: 178–254mm [7.5–10in.], belt ends: 120–171mm [4.72–6.72in.], CT: 254mm [10in.], turrets: 254mm [10in.], secondary turrets: 152mm [6in.]; Comp.: 782.

TSUCHIYA, MITSUHARU (1848–1920). Japanese army officer who served as commanding officer of a division during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in the Okazaki domain (now part of Aichi Prefecture) and took part in the suppression of the Satsuma Rebellion of 1877 and in the **First Sino–Japanese War**. In 1902 Tsuchiya was promoted to lieutenant general and appointed commanding officer of the **11th Division**. During the Russo–Japanese War, he led this division as part of the **Third Army** until he was wounded in December 1904. He took part in most of the **siege of Port Arthur**. Following his injury, he was replaced, but in early 1905 he received command of the newly formed **14th Division**. Tsuchiya was made a baron in 1907, promoted to general in 1910, and retired soon after.

TSUDA, SANZÔ (1854–1891). Japanese policeman who attempted to murder Russian Crown Prince Nikolai and whose deed was considered a motive for Russian revenge before the Russo–Japanese War. He had served with distinction during the suppression of the Satsuma Rebellion in 1877 and retired from the **Imperial Japanese Army** with the rank of sergeant major. Before his assassination attempt on Nikolai (later Tsar **Nicholas II**) during his royal visit to Otsu in May 1891, Tsuda had served in the police for six years. Seeking to appease **Russia** for this notorious **Otsu Incident**, the Japanese government acted to apply the death penalty, but the court rejected the notion in an unprecedented demonstration of judicial independence and tried Tsuda for attempted murder. He was sentenced to life imprisonment but did not survive his first year in jail.

TSUKAMOTO, KATSUYOSHI (1847–1912). Japanese army officer who served as commanding officer of a division during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in the Mino domain (now part of Gifu Prefecture) to a samurai family and took part in suppressing the Satsuma Rebellion of 1877 and the **Boxer Uprising**. During the first stages of the Russo–Japanese War, Tsukamoto, by then major gen-

eral, was appointed commander of the 11th infantry brigade of the **5th Division**. In September 1904 he was promoted to lieutenant general and received command of the **4th Division**. After the war, he was made a baron and soon retired.

TSUSHIMA*.** Japanese protected **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was one of two ships of the *Tsushima* class, which was the second cruiser class made completely by Japanese design, She entered service during the war and took part in a number of engagements. On 15 June 1904 she sighted the **Vladivostok Independent Cruiser Squadron** but was too late to defend the Japanese transports. On 11 August 1904, in the aftermath of the **battle of the Yellow Sea**, she intercepted the Russian cruiser ***Novik in **Sakhalin**, and damaged her badly. Despite being struck with two hits on the waterline that flooded two compartments, the *Tsushima* kept guarding the *Novik* and forced the Russian captain to abandon his ship. During the **battle of Tsushima**, she belonged to the 3rd Battle Division of the **First Fleet**. She remained in service after the war and was gradually disarmed in the 1920s. Thereafter she served as a training vessel until sunk in an American air raid in 1944.

Technical data: Builder: Kure Navy Yard, Japan, 1902–1904; Displ.: 3,366t; LBD: 102×13.44×4.92m [334.5×44×16ft]; Machinery: 2-shaft reciprocating compound, 9,500ihp; Speed: 20kt; Fuel: 250/600t coal; Armament: 6×152mm [6in.] QF (6×1), 10×12pdr QF (10×1), 4×2.5pdr QF (4×1); Armor: deck: 62mm [2.5in.], CT: 102mm [4in.]; Comp.: 320.

TSUSHIMA, BATTLE OF [BATTLE OF THE SEA OF JAPAN; *NIHONKAI KAISEN*] (1905). The final and decisive naval battle of the Russo–Japanese War. It was fought during 27–28 May 1905 near the **Tsushima Straits**, between the Japanese **Combined Fleet** under the command of Admiral **Tôgô Heihachirô** and the Russian **Second Pacific Squadron** under Vice Admiral **Zinovii Rozhestvenskii**. It was not only the most devastating defeat suffered by the **Imperial Russian Navy** in its entire history, but also the only truly decisive engagement between two fleets of **battleships** in modern times.

As the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet,** comprising the combined Second and Third Pacific Squadrons, was reaching its final stages, Russian

leaders pinned their hopes on the ability of this large armada to fight its way through to Vladivostok, thereby reestablishing a Russian naval presence in the Pacific Ocean. The engagement of the Japanese and Russian fleets, both sides believed, would determine the final course of the war. A Russian victory could lead to Russian control of the seas west of the Japanese home islands, and as a result interrupt the flow of men and materials to the Asian mainland. This, in turn, might allow the **Imperial Russian Army** to crush the Japanese land forces in **Manchuria** and decide the war. A defeat, however, would end any Russian hope of altering the course of the war, and consequently might oblige the Russians to negotiate peace.

Before the battle, naval experts were divided on the prospects of each side, but many predicted Russian victory. The naval force under Rozhestvenskii had an overwhelming quantitative advantage in the number of battleships and large-caliber guns, two factors of decisive importance in naval battles of that period. He had 41 guns of 254- and 305-millimeter [10- and 12-inch] caliber, while Tôgô had only 17 guns of similar caliber. The Japanese, however, had a significant advantage in the number of guns of medium caliber as well as in the number of **destroyers** (16 compared to 8) and **torpedo boats** (69 compared to 9). Another important advantage of the Japanese fleet was its faster speed: at least 15 knots as against 11 knots [27 as against 20 kilometer per hour] or less of their Russian opponents. The Japanese vessels were of greater uniformity and higher quality of construction. Finally, the Japanese had greater motivation, a stronger fighting spirit, better training, and above all battle experience, the importance of which was hard to estimate until the battle ended.

Tôgô received constant information about the advance of the Russian fleet and intended to confront it as soon as it reached the vicinity of **Japan**. He estimated that Rozhestvenskii would pass through the Tsushima Straits, and therefore he determined to locate his force before its arrival there. Rozhestvenskii indeed chose this course, and after sending his supply ships to Shanghai, he divided his warships into two columns. In the eastern column there were all the seven main battleships of the fleet, led by the ***Kniaz Suvorov***, ***Imperator Aleksandr III***, ***Borodino***, and ***Orel***, as well as a **cruiser**, while the secondary column that moved on a parallel course included all the other vessels, led by the battleship ***Osliabia*** under the

command of Rear Admiral **Nikolai Nebogatov**. For all the Japanese calculations as to their opponents' plans, a heavy fog covered the location of the Russian armada for 10 days, and Tôgô began to lose his confidence. Then, suddenly, on 26 May 1905, one of the scouts of the Japanese fleet sighted the prey and called for additional forces. On the following morning, the Japanese ships followed their long-waited opponents like a distant shadow, and their number increased continually toward noon.

The Russians sighted Tôgô's force around 13:15 on 27 May 1905, and at that stage Tôgô turned south with his main force, comprising his four battleships, the ***Mikasa***, ***Shikishima***, ***Fuji***, and ***Asahi***, and two armored cruisers, the ***Kasuga*** and ***Nisshin***, of his 1st Battle Division. The Japanese battle line steamed across the bows of the oncoming Russian convoy, then turned in a dangerous maneuver: each Japanese warship turned in succession at the same point. Rozhestvenskii, however, failed to concentrate his fire at this spot. Having advantage in speed, Tôgô began to cross the "T" of the Russian line again, as he had done earlier in the **battle of the Yellow Sea**. After the turn, he was joined by the 2nd Battle Division, under the command of Vice Admiral Kamimura Hikonojo, which consisted of the six armored cruisers, the ***Izumo***, ***Azuma***, ***Tokiwa***, ***Yakumo***, ***Iwate***, and ***Asama***. The reinforced Japanese line concentrated its fire first on the leading Russian ship in each column, the *Kniaz Suvorov* and the *Osliabia.* Rozhestvenskii responded with an attempt to alter course eastward, but his flagship was heavily damaged and dropped out of the line, while the *Osliabia* sank at 14:45. Subsequently, the *Imperator Aleksandr III*, now leading the Russian line, attempted to cross behind the Japanese rear in an effort to get back on course for Vladivostok.

Tôgô reacted with a course alteration that forced the Russian line to turn away to the south. The range between the two sides was now down to about 1,500 meters, but visibility was very poor due to the smoke and mist that covered the arena. Consequently, when the Russians again turned north around 17:00, the Japanese temporarily lost contact. Following a short break, Tôgô located the Russian battleships again and opened fire once more. The first casualty this time was the *Imperator Aleksandr III*, which capsized, followed by the *Borodino*, which blew up when a shell hit her magazine; the *Kniaz*

Suvorov was sunk by **torpedoes**. Rozhestvenskii, gravely wounded and unconscious since the early stages of the battle, had earlier been transferred to the destroyer *Buinii.* At nightfall, Tôgô ordered his smaller units of destroyers and torpedo boats to attack the remaining older Russian warships with torpedoes. At this stage the ***Navarin*** was sunk and the ***Sissoi Velikii*** was severely damaged and later scuttled. A similar fate was suffered by the old cruisers the ***Vladimir Monomakh*** and ***Admiral Nakhimov***, which were sunk the next day.

During the night, a number of Russian warships, such as the modern battleship *Orel* and the older ***Imperator Nikolai I***, ***General Admiral Graf Apraksin***, and ***Admiral Seniavin***, became separated from the main body, now under the command of Nebogatov. By dawn of 28 May 1905, these were the only ones to survive of the heavy ships. At the sight of the Japanese main force, which appeared at 10:00 on the horizon, Nebogatov decided to surrender. Rozhestvenskii too fell into Japanese hands when the destroyer *Bedovii*, to which he had been transferred, surrendered on the afternoon of that day. He had been unconscious throughout the Russian defeat and surrender. Only a few of the remaining Russian warships, such as the three light cruisers led by Rear Admiral **Oskar Enkvist**, managed to escape to internment at Manila. All the Russian battleships were lost: eight were sunk and four captured. Only two destroyers and the armed yacht ***Almaz*** completed the voyage and arrived safely at Vladivostok.

Russian **casualties** in the battle were appalling: 4,830 dead, more than 6,000 **prisoners of war**, most of them wounded, and 1,862 crewmen interned in neutral ports. The Japanese had only 117 dead and 587 wounded. In the final account, almost every warship of Russia's **Baltic Fleet** had been sunk or captured by the enemy. The Japanese had lost three torpedo boats but none of their heavy ships, although some of them were heavily damaged but reparable. Following the battle, the Russian government's hopes of somehow reversing the military situation in East Asia were dashed forever. Now it was compelled to enter into peace negotiations, which resulted in the **Treaty of Portsmouth**, signed just over three months later.

TSUSHIMA STRAITS [*TSUSHIMA KAIKYÔ*]. Broad waterway lying between **Japan** and **Korea**; site of the greatest naval engagement during the Russo–Japanese War. In narrow terms, the name refers

only to the passage between the islands of Tsushima and Iki to its east, which is located in the Nagasaki Prefecture of Kyushu, Japan. However, it is customarily considered to include also the **Korea Straits** between Korea and Tsushima (the Western Channel). The broader waterway, about 180 kilometers across at its narrowest, stretches between Japan and the Korean peninsula and connects the Sea of Japan with the East China Sea. The island of Tsushima is divided into northern and southern parts and serves as a vital point of transport between Japan and the Asian mainland. Its area is 697 square kilometers [269 square miles], largely forested and sparsely arable. At the turn of the 20th century, its main industry was forestry, coupled with squid fishing and pearls. During the Russo–Japanese War, the straits were the site of the greatest naval engagement of the war, the **battle of Tsushima**, as well as an earlier, smaller-scale naval engagement known as the **attack on the Tsushima Straits**.

TSUSHIMA STRAITS, ATTACK ON THE (1904). Russian naval raid on Japanese transport shipping during the Russo–Japanese War. It was launched on 15 June 1904 in the **Tsushima Straits** and was considered a blow to Japanese morale. The background to the battle was the deteriorating situation of the Russian naval force at **Port Arthur**. Contrary to Japanese fears, the Russian General Headquarters had no intention at this early stage of the war of abandoning Port Arthur as their main naval base in favor of **Vladivostok**. Their plan was that instead of the **Port Arthur Squadron** heading north, the **Vladivostok Independent Cruiser Squadron** was to sail south to create a diversion to the benefit of the operations that Rear Admiral **Vilgelm Vitgeft** was to carry out in the Yellow Sea.

Under specific orders to raid Japanese lines of communication off southern **Korea**, Rear Admiral **Petr Bezobrazov** left Vladivostok on 12 June 1904 along with his three **cruisers**: the ***Rossia***, ***Rurik***, and ***Gromoboi***. He was instructed to proceed through the Eastern Tsushima Channel, cruise for two days on the transport route, and then double back through the Western Channel. In case of failure, he was to head for Port Arthur and try to join the main units there. On 15 June, two military transports, the ***Hitachi Maru*** and the ***Sado Maru***, sailed from Shimonoseki to **Dalny**. Each of them was over 6,100 gross tons and carried a large amount of stores and over 1,000

men, the former a battalion of combatants, the latter a railway battalion and electrical engineers. A third transport, the *Izumi Maru* of 3,200 gross tons, was also crossing the straits homeward bound with sick and wounded from the front.

The **Imperial Japanese Navy** made no special provision for the protection of its transports, other than indirect defense by the combined squadrons of Vice Admiral **Kamimura Hikonojo** and Vice Admiral **Uryû Sotokichi**, and ultimately only by the protected cruiser ***Tsushima***. On the early morning of 15 June, this cruiser reached the southeast coast of Okinoshima and at 07:15 was about mid-channel. In the heavy mist, she sighted the Russian squadron, but because of the inability to wireless the report from that distance, she attempted to approach the wireless station at Tsutsu on the southern part of the island of Tsushima. The Russians did not follow her but held their course. At 08:15 the *Tsushima* managed to send her message and then headed back in the direction of the Russian ships. Once Kamimura received the warning, he ordered all his ships at Takeshiki to sail full steam ahead, and warned Shimonoseki to halt all sailing. At 09:00 the Russians sighted the homeward bound *Izumi Maru*, and Bezobrazov sent the *Gromoboi* to chase her. From the fire of the *Gromoboi*, the Japanese transport lost over 30 men, killed and wounded, and eventually stopped and surrendered. About 100 sick and wounded were taken off her, and then she was sunk west of Okinoshima, with those who refused to surrender still aboard.

Despite the deteriorating visibility, the Japanese warships sighted the Russian force at 10:00. The Russians stopped a little earlier the *Sado Maru*, but in haste to leave the site, the *Rurik* fired a **torpedo** into her despite having given the crew 40 minutes' grace just a little earlier. As the Japanese transport did not sink, she absorbed another torpedo on the other side, but in fact she survived the attack. Next the *Gromoboi* approached the *Hitachi Maru*, which carried combatants on board and showed no sign of readiness to surrender. The *Gromoboi* fired on her with all her guns, killing many of the men on deck and sinking the ship. The approaching Japanese forces could not sight the Russian ships and reached the survivors of the *Hitachi Maru* at 13:30. The Russian force intercepted the Japanese wireless transmissions and thus was aware of the Japanese force in the Western Channel. The attack was considered a blow to Japanese morale and exerted

much public pressure on Kamimura to track the Russian force, which he did for the next two months.

TURKEY. A power in decline at the time of the Russo–Japanese War, and affected by the war although not directly involved in it. Following the end of the Russo–Turkish conflict in the Congress of Berlin of 1878, the Ottoman empire's power and territorial size dwindled further, and it was obliged to pay an indemnity of 300 million rubles to **Russia**. In the following years, the empire continued to disintegrate. In 1881 **Great Britain** occupied Egypt, in 1885 Eastern Rumelia was united to Bulgaria, and in 1898 Crete was put under international control following fighting between Turkish and Greek units. The refusal of **Austro–Hungary** and **Germany** to take part in the anti-Turkish settlement of the Cretan question marked the beginning of Germany's *Drang nach Osten* policy. Following the Bulgarian insurrection in Macedonia, in 1903 Turkey accepted the Marszteg program, which was prepared by Austria and Russia. During the Russo–Japanese War, Turkey retained its **neutrality** and prevented the very likely departure of the **Black Sea Fleet**, in keeping with an agreement between Turkey and Russia signed in 1891 that barred the passage through the Bosphorus of warships carrying armaments or munitions. During the war, Turkey was under constant Russian pressure to release the Black Sea Fleet.

However, other interested countries, notably Great Britain, pressured Sultan Abdul Hamid to ensure that Russian ships stayed north of the Dardanelles. British pressure was fairly effective, although it did not prevent the passage in July 1904 of two Russian merchant ships, the *Petersburg* and the *Smolensk*. Belonging to the **Russian Volunteer Fleet**, these ships carried guns and ammunition and headed for the **Suez Canal**. In October that year, Japanese envoys in Istanbul, who kept watch on Russian naval movements, offered the sultan a treaty of friendship with **Japan**, but the Ottoman authorities declined. The Russians had more success; following negotiations with the Ottoman authorities, several ships of the Russian Volunteer Fleet were allowed to pass through the straits in November. They joined the detachment of Rear Admiral **Dmitrii von Felkerzam** at Crete. That year too the Armenian revolutionary committee made an attempt on the Ottoman ruler's life and won the sympathy of the

Young Turks, although a decade later, the sequel to this early contact was to be genocide.

Russia's resumption of its meddling in the Balkans following the debacle of the Russo–Japanese War had direct repercussions on Turkey as well. The **Anglo–Russian Entente** of 1907 was widely rumored to be a new plan for the partition of Turkey. Turkish officers in Macedonia, partly influenced by this rumor, made an attempt to settle this vexed question once and for all. They joined a secret society, called the Committee of Union and Progress, which was formed to restore the constitution. This newly established group of Young Turks was the successor to the Young Ottomans, who after the dissolution of the first parliament had worked in secret for the restoration of the constitution. In July 1908 they sparked an armed rising in Resna, and another conspiracy followed in Monastir. The revolt galvanized the cities of the empire, and the sultan had no alternative but to restore the constitution. This bloodless revolution aroused enthusiasm throughout the empire, particularly among Serbian, Bulgarian Greek, and Armenian revolutionaries. The restoration of the constitutional regime postponed plans to dismember Turkey, but both Austro–Hungary and Russia felt wary. On 15 September 1908, the Russian and Austrian foreign ministers agreed on a partition program, whereby the Dardanelles would be in the Russian zone and Bulgaria in the Russian sphere of influence, Macedonia and Serbia in the Austrian sphere of influence, and Albania and Greece in the Italian sphere of influence. Two weeks later, Austria annexed Bosnia–Herzegovina, and Bulgaria declared its absolute independence. Turkey recognized the Bosnia–Herzegovina annexation, while Russia cancelled £20,000,000 of the Turkish indemnity in return for Turkey's recognition of Bulgarian independence.

TWAIN, MARK [CLEMENS, SAMUEL LANGHORNE] (1835–1910). American writer who became an anti-Russian activist during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in Florida, Missouri, and after being apprenticed to a printer, he became a river pilot on the Mississippi. During the American Civil War, he began to write for newspapers and publish his own stories. During the Russo–Japanese War, Twain's support for a revolution in **Russia** led him to back **Japan**. During the **Portsmouth Peace Conference**,

he sent a letter to the *Boston Globe*, which was published on 30 August 1905. In the letter he criticized the imminent **Treaty of Portsmouth**. Russia, Twain wrote, "was on the high road to emancipation from an insane and intolerable slavery; I was hoping there would be no peace until Russian liberty was safe. I think that this was a holy war in the best and noblest sense of that abused term, and that no war was ever charged with a higher mission. . . . I think the Tsar will now withdraw the small humanities that have been forced from him, and resume his medieval barbarisms with a relieved spirit and an immeasurable joy. I think Russian liberty has had its last chance, and has lost it. I think nothing has been gained by the peace that is remotely comparable to what has been sacrificed by it. One more battle would have abolished the waiting chains of billions upon billions of unborn Russians, and I wish it could have been fought. . . . I believe that this peace is entitled to rank as the most conspicuous disaster in political history."

TWENTY-ONE DEMANDS (1915). Ultimatum presented to **China** by the Japanese government in an attempt to impose on it a virtual protectorate. It occurred a decade after the Russo–Japanese War, yet it is regarded as a delayed repercussion of the Japanese victory in that war and part of a consistent Japanese policy of economic and political expansion afterward. On 7 November 1914, during the first stages of World War I, Japanese forces seized the German territory of Kiaochou [Jiaozhou] on the Shantung [Shandong] peninsula, with the support of **Great Britain**, **France**, and **Russia**. On 18 January 1915, the Japanese government posed 21 "outstanding questions" to Chinese President **Yuan Shikai**, threatening war if its demands were not met. The resulting Chinese concessions increased **Japan**'s hold on **Manchuria** and Shantung, gave assurances that no further coastal regions would be leased to a foreign power, and conceded a half-interest to Japan in the most valuable Chinese iron and steel company. Great Britain persuaded the Japanese government not to enforce further demands, which would have led to the appointment of Japanese political, military, and financial advisors by the Chinese authorities. After the death of Yuan, the demands were made public and aroused lasting resentment among the Chinese, as well as rising suspicion in the **United States** of Japanese imperialism.

203-METER HILL [VISOKAYA GORA; *NIHYAKUSAN KÔCHI*]. The highest position around **Port Arthur** and site of the principal Russian stronghold. It comprised two peaks, the higher 210 meters and the lower 203 meters, located 130 meters apart and connected by a sharp ridge. Overlooking the harbor as well as other major Russian strongholds, the hill became a crucial site of fighting during the **siege of Port Arthur**. Owing to lack of funds, it had no permanent defenses before the Russo–Japanese War. During the early stages of the war, however, the Russians recognized its importance and built a strong command post of timber, steel rails, and earth on the top of the hill, surrounded by an intricate net of trenches. During the siege, this position was impenetrable to most Japanese artillery. Its defenses were less effective against the 280-millimeter [11-inch] **howitzers** that began to bombard the site on 15 October 1904.

General **Nogi Maresuke**, commander of the Japanese **Third Army**, directed the first **infantry** assault on the hill on 20 September 1904. However, he realized its importance only about a month later and resolved to take it, whatever the cost. Despite the arduous sapping work that his troops conducted up the difficult slopes, his second attempt to capture the hill, on 28–29 November, failed. Eventually, however, the Russian defense, under the resolute and innovative command of Colonel Nikolai Tretyakov, could not withstand Japanese superiority in manpower and sacrifice. On 5 December 1904, the hill fell into Japanese hands, heralding the fall of the whole fortress of Port Arthur four weeks later. Russian **casualties** of about 3,000 men were relatively minor compared with the 12,000 casualties the Third Army suffered in seizing this position. The human toll was indeed extreme, and only Verdun, 12 years later, during World War I, claimed more casualties for a single piece of land.

TYPE 26 REVOLVER [*NIJUROKU NENSHIKI KENJÛ*]. Japanese main **revolver** used during the Russo–Japanese War. It was the first domestically produced modern handgun in **Japan**, adopted in 1893 [26th year of the Meiji era]. This six-shot, break-top, double-action revolver fired a 9mm cartridge similar to but not interchangeable with the .38 Smith & Wesson. During the war, this handgun was used by officers and the military police, and although it was superseded

later by several Japanese-made semi-automatic revolvers, it stayed in service until the end of World War II.

Technical data: Caliber: 9mm [0.354in.]; Weight: 1.02kg [9.16lbs]; Length: 23cm [9.05in.]; Magazine capacity: 6 rounds.

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UCHIMURA, KANZÔ (1861–1930). Japanese Christian leader, essayist, and editor involved in anti-war activities during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in Edo (now **Tokyo**). His evident talent for languages won him admission to the English-speaking Sapporo Agricultural College. He converted there to Christianity and continued his studies in the **United States**. Following his return to **Japan** in 1888, Uchimura taught in several schools but repeatedly resigned because of ideological conflict. In 1897 he was appointed senior editor of the popular newspaper *Yorozo Chôhô*. However, he became an extreme pacifist and later resigned when the newspaper chose to endorse the Russo–Japanese War. During the war, Uchimura supported the **Heiminsha** and contributed to its weekly newspaper. After the war, he became a leading figure in Japanese Christianity and published 357 issues of his biblical studies magazine. The rest of his life was a continuous struggle to remain faithful to both his homeland and his religion without compromising either.

UCHIYAMA, KOJIRÔ (1859–1945). Japanese army officer who served as chief of staff of the **Fifth Army** during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading figure in the **Imperial Japanese Army** in later years. He was born in Edo (now **Tokyo**) and graduated from the Army Academy. During the Russo–Japanese War, Uchiyama, by then a major general, commanded an **artillery** regiment. In early 1905 he was appointed staff officer of the Fifth Army. He was promoted to general in 1917 and was made a baron in 1921.

UEDA, ARISAWA (1850–1921). Japanese army officer who was in charge of the prewar planning of the army and served as a senior staff officer during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in the Tokushima domain (now Tokushima Prefecture) into a samurai family. He took

part in suppressing the Satsuma Rebellion and later in the **First Sino–Japanese War**. After the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, Ueda, by then a lieutenant general, was appointed in May 1904 as the commanding officer of the **5th Division**, first as part of the **Second Army** and from July 1904 as part of the **Fourth Army**. Due to the great losses of his unit in capturing Putilov Hill [*Manbôyama*] at the **battle of Sha-ho**, he was removed from his command in November 1904 and appointed commanding officer of the Taiwan garrison. This episode, however, did not harm his career, and in 1907 Ueda was made a baron. Five years later, Ueda was promoted to general and retired in 1917.

UEHARA, YÛSAKU (1856–1933). Japanese army officer who served as chief of staff of the **Fourth Army** during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading figure in the **Imperial Japanese Army** after the war. He was born in Hyuga (now in Miyazaki Prefecture). He graduated from the Military Academy and was commissioned in the engineers in 1879. Uehara studied in **France** in 1881–1885 and played a minor part in the **First Sino–Japanese War**. During the Russo–Japanese War, he served as chief of staff under General **Nozu Michitsura**. Appointed army minister in 1912, he resigned when his demand for an increase of two divisions was rejected, thereby causing the government to fall when the army refused to nominate a replacement. While serving as army chief of staff from 1915 to 1924, he was involved in the Japanese intervention in Siberia and the refusal of the army to evacuate. Uehara was promoted to field marshal in 1925 and became military affairs councilor. In this capacity, he assisted in strengthening existing militarist trends while boosting spiritual training and blocking technical innovation.

UGAKI, KAZUSHIGE (1868–1956). Japanese army officer and statesman who served as staff officer during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading figure in the Japanese military and politics in later years. Ugaki was born in Okayama. He graduated from the Army Academy, and from the Army Staff College in 1900, after which he was sent to study in **Germany**. During the Russo–Japanese War, Ugaki, by then a major, served as staff officer in the reserves (*kôbi*) of the **1st Division** and later with the garrison in **Korea**. After World War I, he became principal of the Army Staff College and was

appointed deputy army minister in 1923. In 1924 he was nominated army minister, serving in this capacity in several cabinets, and in 1925 he was promoted to general. In 1931 he left the army and became governor-general of Korea. In January 1937 he was appointed prime minister but failed to form a cabinet. A year later, he was appointed foreign minister. After World War II, Ugaki was purged by the Occupation authorities but rehabilitated in 1952 and elected a year later to the House of Councilors.

UKHTOMSKII, ESPER ESPEROVICH (1861–1921). Russian Orientalist, government official, and diplomat who became an influential figure in Russian expansion to East Asia before the Russo–Japanese War. He was born into an aristocratic family and inherited the title of prince. After graduating from St. Petersburg University, Ukhtomskii served in the Department of Ecclesiastical Affairs of Foreign Religions within the Ministry of Interior. Following missions to Siberia and central Asia, he published his surveys on the indigenous peoples of these regions in several books. He became a fervent proponent of Russian expansion in East Asia, and as editor and publisher of the *St. Petersburg News* (*Sankt Peterburgskie Vedomosti*), Ukhtomskii set forth his imperialist ideas. In 1890–1891 he accompanied the crown prince and future Tsar **Nicholas II** in his trip to East Asia in the capacity of tutor.

Before going to **Vladivostok**, Ukhtomskii and the crown prince arrived in **Japan**, but despite their exotic expectations, the visit resulted in the traumatic **Otsu Incident**. Ukhtomskii's semi-official account of the journey appeared in several languages (*Travels in the East of Nicholas II, Emperor of Russia when Cesarewitch*). After returning to **St. Petersburg**, he became closely associated not only with Nicholas II but also with **Sergei Witte**. Ukhtomskii was appointed the first chair of the Russo–Chinese Bank in 1896, and he escorted Chinese statesman **Li Hongzhang** to negotiations in St. Petersburg the same year. He left for **China** for negotiations on the railway project in 1897, and later became chair of the **Chinese Eastern Railway** Company. During the **Boxer Uprising**, he was sent to China again, but three years later his diplomatic role ended with the dismissal of Witte. During the Russo–Japanese War, he was one of the most assertive supporters of continuous struggle until victory, but after the conclusion of the **Treaty of Portsmouth**, he retired to private life.

UKHTOMSKII, PAVEL PETROVICH (1848–1910). Russian naval officer and royal prince who served during the early stages of the Russo–Japanese War as deputy of the commander of the **Pacific Fleet** and as temporary commander of the **Port Arthur Squadron**. At the outbreak of Russo–Japanese War, Rear Admiral Ukhtomskii served at **Port Arthur** as commanding officer of the second sub-division of the battle division of **battleships**, and acted as deputy of the commander of the fleet, Vice Admiral **Oskar Stark**. Following the dismissal of Stark on 26 February 1904, Ukhtomskii took charge of the squadron in Port Arthur for 10 days until the arrival of Vice Admiral **Stepan Makarov**. After the death of Rear Admiral **Vilgelm Vitgeft** in the final stages of the **battle of the Yellow Sea**, Ukhtomskii transferred the flag of the fleet to his ship, the battleship ***Peresviet***, and decided to return to Port Arthur at once. For the next three weeks, he again held temporary command of the Port Arthur Squadron. He was disrespected by his colleagues, who believed he had been promoted because of his connections, and his crucial decision sealed the fate of the squadron and thereby confirmed the general opinion of him as "a second-rate man" as stated by one his colleagues. On 4 September 1904, Ukhtomskii was replaced by the lower-ranking but more popular Captain **Robert Viren**, who was selected to command the remnants of the fleet in Port Arthur.

ULSA TREATY. *See* PROTECTORATE AGREEMENT.

ULSAN, BATTLE OF. *See* KOREA STRAITS, BATTLE OF THE.

UNITED STATES [UNITED STATES OF AMERICA]. A rising global power, the United States declared its **neutrality** during the Russo–Japanese War but acted as a mediator and was affected by its outcomes. Following the turmoil of the American Civil War in 1861–1865, the United States negotiated a retreat of French forces from Mexico, leading to the collapse of Emperor Maximilian's rule. The U.S. Congress reluctantly approved **Russia**'s offer to sell Alaska, and **Germany** also surrendered lands on the northwest frontier. With local affairs settled, the United States began to look at expansion outside. In 1898 it declared war on Spain, following the sinking of an American warship in Havana harbor and the ensuing public outcry.

The pretext was to free Cuba from oppressive colonial rule, but the first blow was actually the capture of the Philippines. Following the annexation of this southeast Asian archipelago, American forces embarked on the brutal suppression of local guerrilla bands that went on until 1914.

The victory in the Spanish–American War prompted the reelection of President William McKinley in 1900, but a year later he was assassinated by an anarchist and was replaced by his vice president, **Theodore Roosevelt**. The latter adopted Alfred Mahan's concept of the importance of excavating a canal across Panama and secured a treaty with Colombia to undertake the project in 1903. In 1905 American forces moved into the Dominican Republic to collect customs for **Great Britain** and Germany to ensure those two countries did not send armed forces to Central America to achieve that goal. The economic expansion of the United States in this period was phenomenal. By 1910 it produced twice as much steel as Germany and four times as much as Great Britain, and its navy rivaled the Imperial German Navy.

American involvement in East Asia during the early 20th century expanded as well. It had started as early as 1853–1854, when its warships forcibly opened up trade with **Japan**. In the following decades, America secured a long chain of islands in the Pacific Ocean, notably the Hawaii archipelago, as stations connecting the American west coast with East Asia. The acquisition of the Philippines, however, resulted in growing interest in commercial gains in **China**, as well as greater attention to the politics of the region. In 1900 American troops took part in suppressing the **Boxer Uprising** in China. The United States protested against Russian demands on China and actively participated in the negotiations which resulted in Russia's agreement to evacuate **Manchuria**. Emphasizing the **Open-Door Policy**, the diplomacy of Secretary of State **John Hay** was influential in limiting the zone of hostilities. During the Russo–Japanese War, President Roosevelt continued the non-violent approach of Hay and hosted the **Portsmouth Peace Conference**, which terminated hostilities.

Following the war, the United States recognized that Japanese military power and its expansionist tendency in East Asia threatened American economic interests. The consequent tensions between the

two nations were further exacerbated by a racist policy within the United States, in California in particular, which attempted to block Japanese immigrants from setting foot on American shores. In 1907 the United States updated the "Orange Plan," which envisaged a Japanese takeover of Hawaii and blockage of the Panama Canal. A year later, ships of the U.S. Navy visited Japan as part of a power demonstration, but in November 1908, the two nations signed the **Takahira–Root agreement**, which somewhat reduced the commercial and military tension. The two countries cooperated still later, during World War I and in the Siberian Intervention of 1918. Nevertheless, the Russo–Japanese War is often perceived as the start of a "cold war" between them, which culminated eventually in the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor and the war in the Pacific that was fought as part of World War II.

URYÛ [URIU], SOTOKICHI (1857–1937). Japanese naval officer who served as the commanding officer of a battle division at the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War. Born in Ishikawa, he entered the Naval Academy in 1872 and three years later was sent to the **United States**, where he graduated from the U.S. Naval Academy in 1881. After a number of commissions, Uryû was promoted to lieutenant commander in 1887 and subsequently served as the commanding officer of the gunvessel *Akagi*. He was promoted to captain in 1891 and served as naval attaché in **France** from 1892 to 1896. On his return to **Japan**, he was given command of the **cruiser** ***Matsushima*** and the **battleship** ***Yashima***, and was promoted to rear admiral in 1900. At the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, Uryû commanded the **landing operations** task force at **Chemulpo** and successfully caused the scuttling of the ***Variag*** in the **battle of Chemulpo**. He took part in the **battle of the Korea Straits** as commander of the 4th Battle Division of the **Second Fleet** aboard the ***Naniwa***. He also fought in the **battle of Tsushima** and commanded the same battle division, now comprising four cruisers. Uryû was promoted to vice admiral in June 1904 and was made a baron in 1907. He was promoted to admiral in 1912 and was transferred to the reserves one year later.

USSANCHÛ KAISEN. *See* KOREA STRAITS, BATTLE OF THE.

– V –

VARIAG* [*VARYAG*].** Russian protected **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War and became a symbol of heroism in **Russia**. The only ship of the new *Variag* class, she was designed from the start for operations in the Pacific; commerce raiding was envisioned as her secondary mission. The *Variag* was commissioned in 1901 and reached **Port Arthur** in February 1902 to serve in the **Pacific Fleet**. On 27 December 1903, she left, under the command of Captain **Vsevolod Rudnev**, for the Korean port of **Chemulpo**. She was deployed there, together with the **gunvessel *Koreets, at the disposal of the Russian minister in **Seoul**, and remained there on the eve of the Russo–Japanese War. On 8 February 1904, a Japanese naval force under the command of Rear Admiral **Uryû Sotokichi** arrived at Chemulpo and called on the Russian warships to surrender. Refusing to do so, the *Variag* set out in an attempt to force her way through to Port Arthur. In the ensuing **battle of Chemulpo**, she was heavily damaged, including five holes below the waterline; all her guns were put out of commission. Of her crew of nominal strength 580, 31 men were killed, 91 severely wounded, and over 100 slightly wounded. The *Variag* was forced to return to the port, where the crew scuttled the ship to prevent her capture by the enemy. After taking shelter in neutral ships, the crew returned to Russia via neutral ports.

On 8 August 1905, the *Variag* was refloated by the **Imperial Japanese Navy**, repaired, and recommissioned as a training ship for midshipmen under the name *Soya*. In 1916, during World War I, she was offered, along with other Russian booty, for resale to Russia. She was eventually purchased in March 1916, renamed *Variag*, and recommissioned soon after. Following some minor alterations, she left for Murmansk in June via the Indian Ocean and arrived in northern Russia in November 1916. The British firm of Cammell Laird was contracted and the *Variag* left for **Great Britain** for refitting in Liverpool in February 1917. Because of existing war orders, she was forced to wait before she could sail into the yard. On learning of the Bolshevik Revolution in 1917, the crewmen who had remained on board hoisted the red flag of revolt over their ship in Liverpool. On 8 December 1917, a party of armed British sailors stormed the ship and took down the red flag. Taken over by the **Royal Navy**, in February

1918 the *Variag* went aground under tow off the Irish coast, was refloated yet again, and served as a hulk until 1919. In 1920 she was sold for scrap, went aground again, this time off the Scottish coast, and was steadily scrapped where she lay from 1923 to 1925.

Technical data: Builder: William Cramp, Philadelphia, United States, 1898–1900; Displ.: 6,500t; LBD: 129.54×15.85×6.30m [425×52×21ft]; Machinery: 30 Niclausse boilers, 2-shaft VTE, 21,000ihp; Speed: 23.2kt; Fuel: 1,300t coal; Armament: 12×152mm/45 [6in.], 12×11pdr, 8×3pdr, 2×1pdr, 6×381mm [15in.] TT, 22 MN; Armor: deck: 51mm, CT: 152mm [6in.]; Comp.: 580.

VEL'AMINOV, NIKOLAI ALEKSANDROVICH (1855–1920). Russian medical officer who was involved in improving the level of **medical treatment** in the **Imperial Russian Army** during the Russo–Japanese War. He took part in the Russo–Turkish War of 1877–1878, where he introduced antiseptic methods into battlefield surgery. During the central Asian campaign of 1880, he developed a system for classifying and evacuating the wounded. During the Russo–Japanese War, Vel'aminov organized medical trains and mobile stations, which greatly reduced the number of deaths among the wounded personnel. In 1910–1912 he served as director of the Military Medical Academy.

VERESHCHAGIN, VASILII VASILIEVICH (1842–1904). Russian painter and traveler who was killed while observing the war off **Port Arthur**. Specializing in military art, he took part in the Russo–Turkish War of 1877–1878 and in the Caucasian wars, and produced a large collection of paintings based on his combat impressions. Vereshchagin later became a member of the Russian Academy of Arts but was stripped of his membership because of the critical approach he took in depicting some of the victories won by the **Imperial Russian Army**. His painting depicting the Russian conquest of Turkestan, completed in 1874, was particularly censured in **Russia** for its graphic portrayal of that brutal campaign. He visited Europe and the **United States** and mounted exhibitions there. In the years before the Russo–Japanese War, he completed his masterworks in which he depicted scenes from the Napoleonic campaign in Russia. Soon after the outbreak of the war, Vereshchagin decided to accompany Vice Admiral **Stepan Makarov** to Port Arthur, to witness the

war and paint some of the naval activity on the sea. He was aboard Makarov's flagship the ***Petropavlovsk*** on its last sortie on 13 April 1904 and died when she hit a **mine** and sank within minutes.

VILLIERS, FREDERIC (1851–1922). British **war correspondent** and illustrator who covered the Russo–Japanese War. He started his long career in 1871. While still an art student, he went to Paris and gathered materials for a panorama of the Franco–Prussian War. Considered one of the leading war correspondents of his era, he held 12 war decorations and medals for reporting all the major campaigns from 1879 to World War I. During the Russo–Japanese War, he remained with the Japanese troops at the **siege of Port Arthur** and reported for the *London Illustrated News*. Many of the exploits he depicted were not captured by photographers, and very few other illustrators were willing to go out to battles and see the war firsthand. His illustrations were published and circulated in various publications during and after the war. He recorded his experiences in his book *Port Arthur: Three Months with the Besiegers*, published in 1905. During World War I, Villiers followed the British army, and before his death, he completed a two-volume autobiography.

VIREN [WIREN], ROBERT NIKOLAEVICH (1856–1917). Russian naval officer who commanded the remnants of the **Port Arthur Squadron** in the last four months of the **siege of Port Arthur** during the Russo–Japanese War and was a leading figure in the **Imperial Russian Navy** after the war. At the outbreak of the war, he was in command of the armored **cruiser *Bayan*** and made a name for himself as a daring and successful commander. After the death of Rear Admiral **Vilgelm Vitgeft** in the **battle of the Yellow Sea**, Rear Admiral **Pavel Ukhtomskii** took command briefly but did not gain his peers' support for appointment as the new commander of the naval units in Port Arthur. As no other naval officer could reach the besieged fort, Captain Viren emerged as the only naval officer capable of leading the remnants of the fleet. He was consequently promoted to rear admiral and appointed commander of the Port Arthur Squadron on 4 September 1904. During the following four months until the surrender of the fort, he underwent continuous bombardment from land and blockade from the sea.

Realizing that another escape was impossible, Viren stripped his warships of all movable guns, which were then dug in on the perimeter of the city defenses. The once impressive warships were slowly sunk at anchor by the Japanese land bombardment, while their crews fought on land as **infantry**. Before the collapse, Viren ordered Captain **Nikolai Essen**, commanding officer of the **battleship *Sevastopol***, to steam out of the harbor and then to sink the ship in deep water. In all, Viren's contribution to the defense of Port Arthur was made on land rather than at sea. After the war, his career was not hurt by the general disaster of the **Pacific Fleet**. In 1907, by then a vice admiral, he was appointed commander-in-chief of the **Black Sea Fleet**. In 1909 Viren became the commander of the naval base of **Kronstadt**, a position he held in World War I until his assassination by revolutionary sailors in 1917 following the February Revolution.

VISOKAYA GORA. *See* 203-METER HILL.

VITGEFT, VILGELM KARLOVICH [WITGEFT, WILHELM] (1847–1904). Russian naval officer who commanded the **Port Arthur Squadron** in the early stages of the Russo–Japanese War. He graduated from the Naval Academy in 1868, and following various sea and staff assignments was promoted to rear admiral in 1899. Vitgeft subsequently served as the chief of the naval department at the headquarters of Admiral **Evgenii Alekseev**, commander-in-chief of Russian land and naval forces in East Asia, until 1904. After the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, he was appointed chief of the Naval Staff of the Supreme Command in the Far East on 1 April 1904. Three weeks later, on 22 April 1904, following the death of Vice Admiral **Stepan Makarov**, he was given command of the Port Arthur Squadron as well as a temporary assignment as commander of the **First Pacific Squadron**, until the arrival of Vice Admiral **Nikolai Skrydlov**. During the following months, Vitgeft played a passive role against the **naval blockade of Port Arthur** by the **Imperial Japanese Navy**.

Anxious to avoid a fight, Vitgeft led his main force on 23 June 1904 in a failed attempt to escape the threat posed by Japanese land forces and reach **Vladivostok**. On 7 August he was wounded in the leg by a shell splinter during the first bombardment of **Port Arthur**

by the Japanese **Third Army**. Three days later, on 10 August, Vitgeft made a second attempt to escape the harbor. In the ensuing **battle of the Yellow Sea**, he refused to enter the armor-protected conning tower of his flagship, the **battleship *Tsessarevich***, and remained on the upper bridge to oversee the engagement. Subsequently two Japanese 305-millimeter [12-inch] shells hit the foremast above the upper bridge, killing him and severely wounding his chief of staff.

***VLADIMIR MONOMAKH*.** Russian armored **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. The only ship of the old *Vladimir Monomakh* class, she was modernized in 1897–1898 and rearmed. At the outbreak of the war, she served in the **Baltic Fleet** and was later attached to the **Third Pacific Squadron**. She subsequently left with her squadron under the command of Rear Admiral **Nikolai Nebogatov** for a shortened version of the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet** via the **Suez Canal**. The *Vladimir Monomakh* participated in the **battle of Tsushima** and was hit by a **torpedo** during the night. She surrendered the next day but sank soon after.

Technical data: Builder: Baltic Works, St. Petersburg, Russia, 1880–1885; Displ.: 5,593t; LBD: 90.30×15.85×8.00m [296×52×26ft]; Machinery: 6 cylinder boilers, 2-shaft VC, 7,000ihp; Speed: 15.2kt; Fuel: 900/1,100t coal; Armament: 5×152mm/45 [6in.], 8×120mm/45 [4.7in.], 8×3pdr, 8×1pdr revolvers, 3×381mm [15in.] TT; Armor: compound, belt: 114–152mm [4.5–6in.], battery: 76–102mm [2–4in.] bulkheads only; Comp.: 495.

VLADIVOSTOK. Main Russian port city on the coast of the Pacific Ocean, and the second main base of the **Pacific Fleet** during the Russo–Japanese War. It is located in east Siberia near the border of **Korea** (43° 13' north and 131° 90' east). Founded in 1860, Vladivostok developed as the main commercial and naval port of Russia in the Pacific. However, the sea around the port is frozen over for 90–100 days each year, and the site was considered too remote from contested regions. For these reasons, the Russian authorities looked for a substitute during the latter part of the 19th century. They found it on the warmer south coast of **Manchuria** and began to develop **Port Arthur** and **Dalny** as their main military and commercial ports respectively.

During the Russo–Japanese War, Vladivostok remained a subsidiary naval base, although it had larger docking facilities than at Port Arthur, and its two harbor channels allowed easy access. During 1904 it served as the base of operations of the **Vladivostok Independent Cruiser Squadron**, as well as the light **cruiser *Bogatyr*** and the auxiliary cruiser *Lena*. In early March 1904, Vladivostok was shelled by a Japanese squadron under the command of Vice Admiral **Kamimura Hikonojo**. The damage was minimal and consequently the fortress was proclaimed under blockade. As a result, it witnessed an extension of the construction of strong fortification, where barrels of old guns were embedded in embrasures of coffers. With the fall of Port Arthur and Dalny, Vladivostok rose again to relative prominence and in the following years regained its position as the main Russian commercial and naval port in the Pacific Ocean.

VLADIVOSTOK INDEPENDENT CRUISER SQUADRON. A group of **cruisers** and the main unit of the **Vladivostok Squadron** operating from **Vladivostok** during the first six months of the Russo–Japanese War. It consisted of the armored cruisers ***Rossia***, ***Rurik***, and ***Gromoboi*** and was commanded by Rear Admiral **Karl Iessen**. During the early stages of the war, this small squadron menaced Japanese lines of transportation, which culminated in the **attack on the Tsushima Straits** under Rear Admiral **Petr Bezobrazov**. Having sunk a total of 15 transports, the little squadron forced the **Imperial Japanese Navy** to allocate considerable naval forces to pursue it. For months the commander of the **Second Fleet**, Vice Admiral **Kamimura Hikonojo**, failed to intercept the squadron. But ultimately the two forces met in the **battle of the Korea Straits** on 14 August 1904. The sinking of the *Rurik* and the damage suffered by the remaining two cruisers led the squadron to virtual inactivity until the end of the war.

VLADIVOSTOK SQUADRON. The secondary unit of the Russian **Pacific Fleet** during the Russo–Japanese War. It was stationed in **Vladivostok** and was under the command of Rear Admiral **Georgii Stackelberg** (until the eve of war), Captain **Nikolai Reuzenstein** (9 February until 15 March 1904), Rear Admiral **Karl Iessen** (15 March until 12 June 1904), Vice Admiral **Petr Bezobrazov** (12 June until 15

October 1904), and again Rear Admiral Iessen (15 October 1904 until the end of the war). On the eve of the war, it comprised the **Vladivostok Independent Cruiser Squadron** with four **cruisers**, two **torpedo boat** divisions with 10 torpedo boats, and a number of **gunvessels** and auxiliary vessels.

VOLUNTEER FLEET. *See* FLEET, RUSSIAN VOLUNTEER.

VOYAGE OF THE BALTIC FLEET. *See* BALTIC FLEET, VOYAGE OF THE.

– W –

WAFANGKOU, BATTLE OF. *See* TELISSU, BATTLE OF.

WAR CORRESPONDENTS. Journalists dispatched to a war zone by newspapers to report about the war. The Russo–Japanese War attracted many journalists, from **Russia**, **Japan**, and the western hemisphere, some of them of considerable fame, such as **Frederic Villiers**, **Jack London**, and **Vasilii Nemirovich-Danchenko**, and some who became well known as a result of their reporting, such as **Maurice Baring**, Frederick McCormick, Ellis Ashmead-Bartlett, and Henry Charles Seppings Wright. A month after the war broke out, more than 50 British, American, French, and German correspondents assembled in **Tokyo**, looking forward to joining the Japanese forces at the front. In the following months, the number of foreign reporters visiting the Japanese side increased dramatically, while far fewer reporters visited the Russian side, partly for logistic reasons. To visit the Russian side demanded of a reporter a long and exhausting trip across Siberia, whereas visiting the Japanese side required only a rather pleasant voyage across the ocean. The Russians were quite hospitable to journalists, while the Japanese authorities were more anxious about their actions. Both sides took great care initially to keep the war correspondents far from the front. The Russians evacuated all the foreign correspondents to **Mukden** on 30 April 1904.

Japanese fears of journalists transferring classified information, intentionally or not, to the enemy was confirmed as early as 29 February

1904, when the *Times* of London reported their preparations for the **battle of the Yalu**. The even-tighter control and censorship the Japanese authorities exerted subsequently on foreign reporters led to increasing friction with them. Nevertheless, qualms that such treatment could lead to hostility toward Japan made the military authorities reduce the limitations in the following months and allow some of the reporters to approach the vicinity of the front. In fact, a number of foreign journalists with the Japanese forces began the war sharing the pro-Japanese sympathies of their countrymen and ended it pro-Russian, due to occasional harsh treatment, censorship, and isolation. On the Russian side, journalists suffered more from bureaucratic inefficiency and ill health due to the unsanitary conditions in **Manchuria**.

To expedite the reports and avoid censorship, the *Times* reporter, Lionel James, chartered a small steamer, the *Haimun*, and equipped it with a **radio** transmitter. Transmitting dispatches to **Weihaiwei**, where a 52-meter [170-foot] mast had been erected, he was the first to report to waiting Western audiences on the Japanese advance during the **siege of Port Arthur**. Both the Russians and the Japanese protested the use of radio because of the risk of revealing military secrets. Realizing it might become a dangerous precedent, the British **Royal Navy** forbade furnishing assistance to the *Times* correspondents, and from May 1904 the Japanese had an officer aboard the *Haimun* censoring the news before transmission.

It is no surprise that Western correspondents attached to the Japanese **Third Army** during the siege were regarded as a necessary evil. Their presence was tolerated only after they guaranteed that not one word would be sent to their newspapers as long as the siege was not over. In Japan, war journalism flourished despite tight censorship, and it produced a dramatic increase in circulation. The Russians censored their own reporters as well, and the newspaper *Novoe Krai* published in **Port Arthur** was closed by Lieutenant General **Anatolii Stoessel** for a month for allegedly revealing unnecessary information. The Japanese and Russian authorities had a good reason for their fears, as **military intelligence** on both sides made conscious use of the reports of war correspondents published in Western newspapers.

WAR EXPENDITURES. While the Russo–Japanese War cost about the same on both sides, the great difference in scale of the economies

of **Russia** and **Japan** affected their national needs during the war. Whereas Russia did not have to rely on foreign loans during the war, Japan could not sustain its war efforts without foreign assistance. The financial limitations of Japan became apparent as the fighting continued more than a few months, and about half its war-related expenditures were covered by issuing bonds abroad, mainly in London and New York.

In sum, the Japanese government spent 1,986,127,000 yen (in 1904–1905, one yen = two U.S. dollars) on war-related expenditures, of which direct military expenditures were 1,508,472,000 yen (army 1,283,318,000 and navy 225,154,000 yen). The government covered part of this unexpected expenditure (1,662,136,000 yen) by issuing five government bonds at home (total of 434,886,000 yen, at 5–6 percent interest for five to seven years; issued in March, June, and October 1904, February and April 1905); four government bonds abroad (total of 689,595,000 yen, at 4.5–6 percent interest for seven to 20 years; issued in May and November 1904, March and July 1905); special taxes (136,331,000 yen); postwar issues of "adjustment bonds" abroad (212,260,000 yen, at 4 percent interest for 25 years, in November 1905); and "provisional bonds" at home (189,064,000 yen, at 5 percent interest for 30 years, in March 1906). The arrangement of foreign loans for Japan was masterminded by **Takahashi Korekiyo**, deputy governor of the Bank of Japan, and was greatly assisted by securities provided by Jewish American banker **Jacob Schiff**. Russia's economic constraints became evident toward the end of the war and were eased by a loan obtained in **France** during 1906.

WAR GOD. *See* GUNSHIN.

WAR PLANS. On the eve of the Russo–Japanese War, both belligerents had elaborated plans for war. The Japanese plans played a central role in shaping the course of the war, and although the general staffs of the army and navy drew up their plans separately, they had no open disputes like those that were to occur in later decades. The final plan of the army was presented by Major General **Iguchi Shôgo** at the conference of the **Imperial General Headquarters** in June 1903. The first premise of the plan was that in a war against Russian in northeast

Asia, **Japan** would benefit from its short supply lines and from the ability to array its forces rapidly along the front. The war scenario proposed an opening blow by the Japanese at the harbors of **Port Arthur** and **Vladivostok** that would put the **Pacific Fleet** totally out of action. Subsequently, the army would defeat the relatively small **Imperial Russian Army** units in **Manchuria** before any reinforcements could be mustered by means of the still uncompleted **Trans-Siberian Railway**. The conquest of Manchuria and control of the railway network there would give the **Imperial Japanese Army** an advantage over any Russian regrouping in Siberia.

The estimation of the general staff was that this sparsely populated region in the winter would not allow the Russians to maintain more than a quarter of a million soldiers, which the Imperial Japanese Army could easily deal with. The plan recognized that Japan could not eliminate the Russian threat forever, but it assumed that even partial success would bring the Russians to the negotiating table. In such negotiations, Japan could use Manchuria as a bargaining chip, since Japan did not need Manchuria while a humiliated **Russia** would be liable to want a war of revenge in the future. The solution therefore lay in an open-door policy in Manchuria that would combine the interests of a number of powers and curb any future Russian ambitions. The **Imperial Japanese Navy** also preferred to keep the conflict as a regional war and concentrate its units near the coasts of northeast Asia. It was obvious to the Japanese naval planners that the time dimension in the approaching war was crucial, since a protracted war would allow the union of the **Baltic Fleet** with the Pacific Fleet, and the combined **Imperial Russian Navy** would enjoy a decisive quantitative advantage.

The Japanese plans for confronting the Pacific Fleet were based on the need for land control over **Korea** and naval control over the **Korea Straits** to cut off the Russian fleet in Port Arthur from the secondary one in Vladivostok. The Japanese naval command calculated that their opponents in the arena would avoid total confrontation but would launch brief sorties against the Japanese lines of supply from the home islands to the battle region on the Asian continent, and might even harass the populated coastal areas of western Japan. In the months prior to the war, it was decided that the navy would devote its main force at the beginning of the war to assist in depositing

the land forces in Korea and southern Manchuria in an attempt to keep the Russian fleet away from the arena. About a week before the war, Admiral **Tôgô Heihachirô**, commander-in-chief of the **Combined Fleet**, decided to take advantage of the element of surprise and open with a sudden attack against Port Arthur. The plan was for this attack to be carried out by a squadron of **destroyers** with the use of **torpedoes**, since Tôgô was afraid to risk his trump card, the **battleships**, at such a critical stage.

The Russian war plans were by nature defensive and envisaged a scenario in which the Japanese would be the first aggressors trying to invade Manchuria. The Russian plans were subjected to constant revision and were not complete by the time the war broke out. Their first draft had been prepared in 1895 after the manifestation of Japanese strength during the First **Sino–Japanese War**. They were updated to suit the changing realities in 1901 and again in 1903. The updated plan on the eve of the war was that, in case of a Japanese attack, the Imperial Russian Army would protect both Port Arthur and Vladivostok, and deploy defensively across the **Yalu River** with particular emphasis on the region of **Mukden**. It was also planned to send reinforcements to the region, and as soon as the Russian forces attained numerical superiority, they would go on the offensive. The war was supposed to conclude with an invasion of the Japanese home islands, although there was no detailed plan beyond an initial deployment of the Russian defense. The final version of the plan was based on Russian control of the sea and a struggle to hold out until reinforcements arrived overland.

WEIHAIWEI [WEIHAI]. Chinese port city on the north coast of the Shantung [Shandong] peninsula, acting as neutral port during the Russo–Japanese War. It was a fishing village until the end of the 14th century, when it became a military strong point [*wei*] against Japanese pirates, fortified with walls. A natural harbor, Weihaiwei is surrounded by mountains inland and by Liu-Kung island at sea, which became a naval base for the Chinese North Ocean fleet in 1880. Together with **Port Arthur** it controlled the entrance to the Gulf of Chihli [Zhili], but during the **First Sino–Japanese War**, the Japanese destroyed the remnants of the fleet and took over the port and its surroundings. Soon after **Russia** received a lease for Port Arthur in

early 1898, **Great Britain** forced the Chinese government to lease Weihaiwei, renaming it Port Edward and maintaining it as an open port until 1923.

Following the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, the British commander-in-chief of the China station was instructed to withdraw his ships from Weihaiwei to avoid any chance involvement in the naval engagement. Fearing that the Chinese port might become a safe haven for escaping Russian warships, the Japanese exerted diplomatic pressure on the British to return their fleet, and the latter eventually consented. Nonetheless, the port served for contraband shipping to Port Arthur, as well as a relay station for **radio** transmissions from **war correspondents**. In 1930 Weihaiwei was relinquished to Chinese hands again, following a resolution reached at the Washington Naval Arms Limitation Conference in 1921–1922. But it was occupied by **Japan** between 1938 and 1945, and it suffered a sharp decline in population after 1948, when it became a base for the Chinese navy. Today it is a commercial and fishing port, connected by a highway but not by rail to Yen-tai and Tsingtao [Qingdao].

WILLIAM II, EMPEROR [WILHELM II, KAISER] (1859–1941). German emperor and king of Prussia who was much involved in European affairs during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in Berlin to King Frederick III and Princess Victoria, daughter of Queen Victoria of England, and suffered from disabilities that caused him to exaggerate martial characteristics. William II came to the throne in 1888 after the 100-day reign of his father. Refusing to allow Chancellor Otto von Bismarck a free hand in politics, he forced the latter's resignation in 1890. During the following decade, he encouraged German expansionism and the building of a large navy according to the vision of Navy Secretary **Alfred von Tirpitz**, while leaving most government issues to his officials. He encouraged manufacturing and trade, as well as the acquisition of colonies in Africa and the Pacific Ocean, and under his reign **Germany** became prosperous. He visited Jerusalem and directed efforts toward friendship with **Turkey** and the economic penetration of the Middle East. William's ambition and the fast rise of Germany caused much concern in **France** and **Great Britain**, which cooperated during the Russo–Japanese War to halt this threat. They

signed the **Anglo–French Entente** and opposed Germany during the **Moroccan Crisis**.

William II had a close relationship with **Russia**'s Tsar **Nicholas II.** He dubbed himself admiral of the Atlantic and Nicholas admiral of the Pacific. Nonetheless, while encouraging the latter to expand in East Asia and cooperating with him during **Three-Power Intervention** of 1895, William did not offer any substantial support during the Russo–Japanese War. In July 1905, however, he met Nicholas in Björkö, **Finland**, and compelled him to sign the **Treaty of Bjorko**. This abortive attempt to create a Russo–German defensive alliance was based on his accurate perception that Germany's power base was deteriorating during the war. Further agreements made two years later among **Great Britain**, **Russia**, and **France** made Germany more isolated than at any time in recent decades. The rift with Russia and France led to World War I, in which William II suffered a mild nervous breakdown that kept him out of major political decisions. In November 1918, he abdicated his throne and fled to the Netherlands, where he received political asylum. He refused offers of sanctuary in Great Britain or from Hitler and was buried in Doorn.

WIREN, ROBERT NIKOLAEVICH. *See* VIREN, ROBERT NIKOLAEVICH.

WITGEFT, WILHELM KARLOVICH. *See* VITGEFT, VILGELM KARLOVICH.

WITTE, SERGEI YULEVICH (1849–1915). Leading Russian statesman who was heavily involved in **Russia**'s expansion into East Asia before the Russo–Japanese War. He served as finance minister and became a foremost figure in Russian industrialization in general and railway construction in East Asia in particular during the decade preceding the Russo–Japanese War. He was chair of the Council of Ministers during the war and in charge of implementing political reform during the **Revolution of 1905**, and he served as the senior plenipotentiary of the Russian delegation to the **Portsmouth Peace Conference**.

He was born in Tiflis (now Tbilisi) to a father of Baltic origins who achieved hereditary gentry status through government service. After graduating from Novorossiisk University in Odessa, Witte entered

the civil service in 1871. He subsequently worked in local railway administration in Odessa for six years and then began a business career with the Southwestern Railway Company. Soon he was deeply involved in an official review of the management of the empire's rail system. In 1889 he was appointed director of the new Railroad Department at the Finance Ministry. Within three years he was promoted to transportation minister, and soon after, in September 1892, he became finance minister, a post he held for the next 11 years.

Witte believed in active state intervention together with private enterprise, and he applied this policy of governmental support to the backward Russian economy. He laid special emphasis on railroad construction, in which the **Trans-Siberian Railway** emerged as a major project. At the same time, he remained committed to private enterprise and sought the cooperation of private business while promoting foreign investment. By the turn of the 20th century, Witte had become the most powerful official in the Russian government. His reputation, however, was marred by overinvolvement in foreign affairs. In Europe, he seemed to support **France** against **Germany**, whereas in East Asia he increasingly preferred a moderate policy. He was involved in organizing the **Three-Power Intervention** in 1895 and arranged a loan to **China** to pay its indemnity. While supporting economic expansion in China, he opposed costly military adventures. After the turn of the century, his close association with Tsar **Nicholas II** constantly deteriorated due to his opposition to the **Bezobrazov Circle** and particularly after the appointment of **Viacheslav Plehve** as interior minister in 1902. Witte's decade of immense economic and political influence ended in August 1903, when the tsar dismissed him from his post as finance minister, appointing him instead to an honorific post as chair of the Committee of Ministers.

During most of the Russo–Japanese War, Witte was idle, but in its final stages, he was called to head Russia's delegation to the Portsmouth Peace Conference. During the negotiations at **Portsmouth**, his diplomatic skills and charisma were instrumental in winning Russia relatively mild terms, as expressed in the **Treaty of Portsmouth**. Two months later, he played a key role in persuading the tsar to promise civil rights and representative government in the **October Manifesto** and consequently was appointed chair of the Council of Ministers. In his new but short-lived post, Witte estab-

lished closer relations with France and **Great Britain**, negotiated a major international loan for Russia, and supervised the campaign to suppress the Revolution of 1905. In April 1906 he resigned, and in November he became a member in the upper house of the new legislature. But until his death nine years later, he never regained his previous political stature.

WITTE SYSTEM. A term some historians have given to the efforts exerted by Russian Finance Minister **Sergei Witte** to create an infrastructure needed to encourage industrial growth in **Russia**. The main components of Witte's system were the construction of railroads, notably the **Trans-Siberian Railway**, protectionism, and the encouragement of foreign investment in the Russian economy.

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YAKUMO*.** Japanese armored **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was the only ship of the *Yakumo* class and was built in **Germany** to the British standard of the ***Izumo, with similar technical specifications. At the outbreak of the war she served in the 2nd Battle Division of the **Second Fleet**, and she engaged the Russian protected cruiser ***Askold*** (also built in Germany) in the **battle of the Yellow Sea** but suffered heavy damage and withdrew. She also took part in the **battle of Tsushima** and played a major role in sinking the ***Admiral Ushakov***.

Technical data: Builder: AG Vulkan, Stettin, Germany, 1898–1900; Displ.: 10,288t; LBD: 132.30×19.60×7.24m [434×64×23.5ft]; Machinery: 2-shaft VTE, 24 boilers, 16,960ihp; Speed: 21kt; Fuel: 1,242t coal; Range 5,000nm on 10kt; Armament: 4×203mm/40 [8in.], 14×152mm/40 [6in.], 12×76mm [3in.] QF, 8×47mm QF, 5×457mm [18in.] TT; Armor: Krupp steel, belt: 89–178mm [3.5–7in.], barbettes: 152mm [6in.], turrets: 152mm [6in.], casemates: 152mm [6in.], CT: 76–356mm [3–14in.], deck: 51–76mm [2–3in.]; Comp.: 670.

YALU, BATTLE OF THE [*ÔRYOKKÔ NO TATAKAI*] (1904). The first major land engagement between Russian and Japanese forces

during the Russo–Japanese War. It was fought 1–5 May 1904 and resulted in the first serious defeat of the **Imperial Russian Army**. The setting of the battle was decided following Japanese **landing operations** in **Korea**. At this stage the Russian Eastern Detachment under the command of Lieutenant General **Mikhail Zasulich** was deployed along the western bank of the **Yalu River** in an attempt to prevent the Japanese forces from crossing the river and invading **Manchuria**. On the eastern bank of the river, the Japanese **First Army**, under General **Kuroki Tametomo**, was deployed. On 15 April, General **Aleksei Kuropatkin** issued a memorandum stressing the importance of not allowing the Japanese a decisive victory in the first battle so as not to raise their morale. In the same spirit, however, Kuropatkin warned Zasulich to avoid a decisive battle and instructed him to determine the enemy's strength, disposition, and marching lines, and "to retreat as slowly as possible to the mountains."

The Eastern Detachment consisted of the **Third Siberian Army Corps** supported by the Trans-Baikal **Cossack** Brigade under Major General **Pavel Mishchenko**. The combined Russian fighting force amounted to 16,000 riflemen, 2,350 **cavalry**, 640 mounted scouts, 48 field guns, eight mountain guns, and six horse **artillery** guns. Based on **military intelligence** reports, Kuroki concluded prior to the battle that the Russian forces could be outnumbered at any point along the elongated front of about 275 kilometers [170 miles]. His First Army was stronger by far than its opponents, consisting of the **2nd**, **12th**, and **Imperial Guards Divisions**, over 40,000 strong. The Japanese troops marched for six weeks before arriving at the Korean border town of Wiju [Sinuiju, Uiju; *Gishû*], where they prepared for the battle and carefully monitored the enemy positions. Zasulich did not exert much effort to learn more about the Japanese dispositions, nor did he do much to conceal his own.

Kuroki decided to attack on 1 May 1904, three days after his forces finally succeeded in emplacing at the front 20 120-millimeter [4.7-inch] converted naval **howitzers**. On the night of 25 April and during the following day, Japanese troops took the islands of Kintei and Kyuri, located between the Yalu and the Ai Rivers. Their movement forced the Russians to evacuate also a stronghold known as Tiger Hill, which commanded the adjacent points of passage. The next day Japanese engineers threw 10 bridges across the relatively narrow Ai

River, with much opposition from the Russian side. Early on 29 April, Lieutenant General **Inoue Hikaru**'s 12th Division accomplished its task of clearing the high ground up to the Ai River. Aware of the size of the force facing him, Zasulich neither retired nor concentrated his forces at this point, still convinced that it was a feint. That afternoon he dispatched a battalion to recapture Tiger Hill, and its success in doing so was one of the few reverses the Japanese experienced. It did not affect their tactical plans.

The next day Japanese howitzers redeployed on Kintei island battered the Russian artillery batteries and rendered them ineffective in the ensuing battle. Having lost his artillery, Lieutenant General **Nikolai Kashtalinskii**, commander of the 3rd East Siberian Rifle Division, who took command of the sector two days earlier, requested permission to withdraw. Zasulich declined, and during the night the entire Japanese First Army crossed the Yalu River and its channels. On the morning of 1 May, Kuroki began a full-scale attack, committing his three divisions. While crossing the narrow waters of the Ai, they suffered heavy causalities, but the attack continued. Broken up by superior numbers, the Russian line formed groups, each of which, after resisting for a while, was driven back. In this situation Zasulich ordered the retreat. By 10:00 the Russians had abandoned Chuliencheng, the Manchurian town facing Wiju on the western bank of the Ai River, where their headquarters were located.

Russian attempts to stem the rout farther to the west, near the little settlement of Hamatang, failed; under the growing pressure of the Japanese 12th Division, the smaller force under Colonel Gromov succumbed and began to retreat. For his decision, Gromov was later court-martialed. He was exonerated but later committed suicide. Further desperate attempts by Russian forces to form rear guards collapsed under local Japanese superiority, whereas the hesitant Zasulich made no stand even at the strategically important town of Fenghwangcheng [*hôôjô*]. The Japanese occupied the site unopposed on 5 May 1904, although they did not pursue their demoralized opponents, who retreated northwest toward **Liaoyang**, thereby allowing the Japanese **Second Army** to begin landing in **Pitzuwo** on 5 May. Russian **casualties** numbered about 2,700 men, including 500 **prisoners of war**, whereas the Japanese lost 1,036 killed and wounded. The Russians lost also 21 guns and eight **machine guns**. Altogether,

the battle of the Yalu marked the onset of the Russian defeat against the Japanese and would be remembered as such for decades to come. It was the first time in the modern age that an Asian force crushed a European force in a full-scale clash. The contemporary psychological impact of the debacle on the Imperial Russian Army was so immense that in retrospect some writers have treated this medium-scale confrontation as the decisive battle of the war.

YALU CONCESSION. *See* YALU RIVER TIMBER CONCESSIONS.

YALU RIVER [YALUJIANG; *ÔRYOKKÔ*]. A major river separating the northern part of **Korea** and the eastern part of **Manchuria**; the southern part was a battleground in the early stages of the Russo–Japanese War. The Yalu River was fixed as the boundary between **China** and Korea in the 14th century; since the 16th century, its Korean bank was populated with Koreans only, whereas the Chinese bank was inhabited by Chinese and Manchurians. It flows south for 790 kilometers [490 miles] from the Ch'angpai Mountains and empties into the Yellow Sea. For most of its length, it streams through gorges and valleys. The upper reaches are replete with fast currents, waterfalls, and sunken rocks. The middle stretch is so shallow in places that even rafts cannot sail on it in the dry season, whereas the lowest part courses slowly, forming a delta with many islands. The river is known to change course irregularly, which made Japanese bridging plans prior to the **battle of the Yalu** worthless. Instead, the Japanese forces under the command of General **Kuroki Tametomo** chose to cross above the city port **Antung**, where the Yalu and the narrower Ai River flow parallel for several kilometers and are connected by numerous channels.

YALU RIVER, ARMY OF THE. *See* ARMY JAPANESE FIFTH.

YALU RIVER TIMBER CONCESSIONS [YALU CONCESSION]. One of the schemes adopted by private individuals and the tsarist government to extend Russian political, military, and cultural influence to East Asia at the turn of the 20th century. At first the scheme was for the establishment of a large timber concession, administered

by a number of Russian entrepreneurs, along the Yalu and Tumen Rivers on the northern border of **Korea**.

YAMADA, HIKOHACHI (1855–1942). Japanese naval officer who served as commanding officer of battle divisions during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading figure in the **Imperial Japanese Navy** in later years. Yamada was born in Kagoshima, Satsuma domain (now Kagoshima Prefecture) and graduated from the fifth class of the Naval Academy in 1878. He subsequently held a variety of staff and sea assignments during the early stages of his career, and he served as superintendent of the Naval Academy. He was promoted to lieutenant in 1886, to lieutenant commander in 1891, and to captain in 1897. In 1895–1897 he assumed command of the *Amagi* and *Tenryû*, and in 1898–1901 he commanded the **cruisers *Suma*** and ***Iwate***. In 1901 Yamada was appointed chief of staff of the naval base in **Sasebo**, and in 1903 he assumed command of the **battleship *Asahi***, which he led though the first months of the Russo–Japanese War. In June 1904 Yamada was promoted to rear admiral and appointed commander of the 5th Division of the **Third Fleet**. In January 1905 he was appointed commander of the 7th Division of the Third Fleet and took part in the **battle of Tsushima**. After the war, in December 1905, he was appointed commander of the 2nd Battle Division of the **First Fleet**, and in 1908 he was promoted to vice admiral and appointed commander of the 1st Battle Division. From 1910 to 1914 he served as commander-in-chief of Ryojun (**Port Arthur**) and Yokosuka naval districts. Simultaneously, Yamada served as a member of the Admiralty Committee from 1911 until his retirement in 1915.

YAMAGATA, ARITOMO (1838–1922). Japanese officer and statesman who served as chief of the general staff and was a leading member of the group of five **genro** during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born into a samurai family in the Chôshû domain (now Yamaguchi Prefecture), educated at the school of the radical Yoshida Shôin, and took part in the Boshin War against the shogunal forces during the Meiji Restoration in 1868. A year later, Yamagata was sent to Europe and the **United States** to study military systems. On his return to **Japan**, he was appointed assistant deputy army minister, and

a year later deputy minister. In 1873 he became army minister and introduced the concept of conscription. In that capacity and as an army lieutenant general, he led the government forces in suppressing the Satsuma Rebellion of 1877. He later founded the army general staff following the Prussian model and became its first chief of staff. Yamagata was then appointed president of the Board of Legislation, and he served as interior minister for seven years, during which time he reformed the police system after a tour of Europe.

In 1889 Yamagata was promoted to general and appointed prime minister. During his two years in office, he enacted a new local government system. At the outbreak of the **First Sino–Japanese War**, he received command of the **First Army** in **Korea** until he fell ill and was replaced by General **Nozu Michitsura**. Once recovered, he served as army minister for the remainder of the war and represented Japan at the coronation of Tsar **Nicholas II** in 1896. Yamagata was subsequently promoted to field marshal and was again made prime minister in 1898. In this capacity he furthered the autonomy of the armed forces by introducing a law that required armed forces ministers to be chosen among active admirals and generals. At the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, he returned to serve as army chief of the general staff and virtually directed the military activities of Japan throughout the war. After the war, he became a prince in 1907 and retired officially from public life. Nevertheless, he retained a large measure of influence with the Privy Council and was the most influential genro until his death.

YAMAGATA–LOBANOV AGREEMENT (1896). Pact between **Japan** and **Russia** concerning their respective interests in **Korea** prior to the Russo–Japanese War. It was signed in **St. Petersburg** on 9 June 1896 by Russian Foreign Minister Aleksei Lobanov-Rostovskii and Japanese Army Minister **Yamagata Aritomo**. Facing unfavorable conditions in Korea, Japan made considerable concessions in this agreement, which had two secret provisions. First, the two countries agreed to send additional troops to Korea in the event of major disturbances; second, they might station the same number of troops in Korea until the emergence of a trained Korean force. When Yamagata offered Lobanov the draft of the agreement, he was unaware that a few days earlier the Russians had signed with **China** the

Li–Lobanov agreement. Due to the changing circumstances, the Yamagata–Lobanov agreement was replaced two years later by the **Nishi–Rosen agreement**.

YAMAMOTO, GONNOHYÔE [GOMBEI] (1852–1933). Japanese naval officer and statesman who served as navy minister during the Russo–Japanese War and was a leading figure in the **Imperial Japanese Navy** from the 1890s until the 1920s. He was born into a samurai family in the Satsuma domain (now Kagoshima Prefecture). He fought the British during their bombardment of Satsuma in 1863 and later took part in the Boshin War against the shogunal forces during the Meiji Restoration of 1868. After attending preparatory schools in **Tokyo**, in 1870 Yamamoto entered the second class of the Naval Academy. He graduated in 1874, and in 1877–1878 he sailed on a training cruise to Europe and South America with the Imperial German Navy, in which he gained much experience at sea and helped produce a new standard gunnery manual. Yamamoto served as executive officer of the crew that brought the warship ***Naniwa*** to **Japan** from **Great Britain** in 1885–1886, and in 1887–1888 he joined a voyage to the **United States** and Europe in the entourage of Navy Minister Kabayama Sukenori. In 1890 Yamamoto conducted a covert mission in **Seoul** as commanding officer of the **cruiser** *Takao* and subsequently was appointed secretary to the new Navy Minister Saigô Tsugumichi.

Under the patronage of Saigô, Yamamoto became the true leader of the Imperial Japanese Navy, purging much of the old clique of Satsuma in an effort at reform and achieving a general staff status roughly equal to that of the army. On the eve of the **First Sino–Japanese War**, he urged an aggressive strategy and was subsequently promoted to rear admiral in 1895 and vice admiral and 1898. That year he was appointed navy minister, and in this post he secured greater funding for the navy while arguing that it was more important than the army. Yamamoto backed the **Anglo–Japanese Alliance** and was made a baron in 1902. Following the death of Saigô in 1902, he became the single most important naval figure in Japan, and as such he guided the navy into its success during the Russo–Japanese War. Yamamoto was promoted admiral four months after the outbreak of the war, but two years later he left the Navy Ministry. He was made a count in 1907 and was

appointed prime minister in 1913, but he resigned over the Siemens–Vickers naval armaments scandal of 1914. Yamamoto served again as prime minister during 1923–1924 but resigned over an attempt on the crown prince's life.

YAMAMOTO, ISOROKU (1884–1943). Japanese naval officer who served as a cadet during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading figure in the **Imperial Japanese Navy** in World War II. He was born as Takano Isoroku in Nagaoka, Niigata Prefecture, but was later adopted into the Yamamoto family and took its name. Graduating from the Naval Academy in 1904, Yamamoto was immediately assigned to active duty aboard the **cruiser** ***Nisshin***. During the **battle of Tsushima**, he was seriously wounded and lost two fingers when one of the ship's guns exploded. Nearly discharged due to his injury, he served after the war in a series of assignments as gunnery officer and graduated from the Torpedo School, Naval Staff College, and Naval Gunnery School, where he became an instructor. In 1915 he was promoted to lieutenant commander, and after graduating from the senior Naval Staff College a year later, he became staff officer of the **Second Fleet**.

In the mid-1920s, Yamamoto studied at Harvard and returned to **Japan** to teach in the Naval War College. In 1926–1928 he returned to the **United States** as a naval attaché. Afterward he became commanding officer of a **cruiser** and then of an aircraft carrier. In 1930 he took part in the London Naval Disarmament Conference and was promoted to vice admiral four years later. Yamamoto served as deputy navy minister in 1936–1939 and opposed the Tripartite Pact with Italy and **Germany**. In 1939 he was appointed commander of the **Combined Fleet** and a year later was promoted to admiral. Realizing that a war with the United States was inevitable, he proposed the attack on Pearl Harbor, and successfully executed it on the opening day of the war in the Pacific. His plan for the invasion of Midway Island, however, ended in a Japanese defeat, which marked the turning point in that war. Yamamoto was killed in April 1943 and remains a revered figure to this day.

YAMANASHI, HANZÔ (1864–1944). Japanese army officer who served as staff officer during the Russo–Japanese War and became a

leading figure in the **Imperial Japanese Army** in later years. Yamanashi was born to a peasant family in Kanagawa. He graduated from the eighth class of the Military Academy and Army Staff College and was subsequently sent to **Germany** for military studies. On his return to **Japan**, he served as a platoon commander during the **First Sino–Japanese War**. During the Russo–Japanese War, Major Yamanashi served as deputy chief of staff of the **Second Army** and was promoted to lieutenant colonel later in 1904. In later years he was promoted to major general and served as chief of staff of the 18th Independent Division during the capture of the German port at Tsingtao [Qingdao], **China**, at the outbreak of World War I. After the war, he was appointed deputy army minister, and then further promoted to general and served two years as army minister. In these roles Yamanashi hampered the modernization of the army on the European model in the wake of the war. In 1923 he commanded the Kanto martial law headquarters following the **Tokyo** earthquake of 1923. He ended his service as governor-general of **Korea** in 1927–1929.

YAMASHITA, GENTARÔ (1863–1931). Japanese naval officer who served as a commanding officer of a **cruiser** during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading figure in the **Imperial Japanese Navy** in later years. He was born in Yonezawa (now Yamagata Prefecture) and studied at the Naval Academy. During the **First Sino–Japanese War**, he served as a staff specialist at the Yokosuka naval base. Subsequently Yamashita supervised the building of Japanese warships in **Great Britain**, served as executive officer aboard several cruisers, and commanded marines in Tientsin [Tianjin] during the **Boxer Uprising**. At the time of the Russo–Japanese War, Yamashita, by then captain, served as operations planner at the **Imperial General Headquarters** and commanded a cruiser. After the war, he was promoted to rear admiral and vice admiral through a series of staff positions, and subsequently served as deputy chief of the navy general staff. He was eventually promoted to admiral, became commander of the **First Fleet**, and also served twice as commander-in-chief of the **Combined Fleet**.

YAMATO DAMASHII. Literally "Japanese spirit"; this phrase was used to depict spiritual qualities unique to the Japanese people during

the Russo–Japanese War. Originating in the Heian era, it was used to distinguish native concepts from those borrowed over the years from the Chinese culture. The phrase was applied to Western powers shortly after the opening of **Japan** in 1854 and gradually came to represent physical qualities, morals, courage, and devotion. During the Russo–Japanese War, it became the embodiment of utmost loyalty to the emperor and the nation, and it reached its climax during the militaristic decade preceding World War II.

YASHIMA*.** Japanese **battleship** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was one of two ships of the ***Fuji class, and as the first of modern Japanese **pre-dreadnought battleships**, she was of an improved British *Royal Sovereign* design, distinguished by elongated barbettes that required returning the guns to zero position to reload. At the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, *Yashima* served in the 1st Division of the **First Fleet**. On 15 May 1904, only three months after the outbreak of the war and the same day the **battleship *Hatsuse*** was sunk, *Yashima* hit a **mine** and sank later during the evening off **Port Arthur**. The sinking of the two warships reduced the number of prime capital ships of the **Imperial Japanese Navy** by one-third in one day. For more than a year later, *Yashima* was mentioned in public dispatches, and her demise was admitted only in the closing days of the war.

Technical data: Builder: Armstrong Whitworth, Elswick, Great Britain, 1894–1897; Displ.: 12,649t; LBD: 122.60×22.4×8.03m [402×73.5×26ft]; Machinery: 2-shaft VTE, 14 boilers, 13,500ihp; Speed: 18kt; Fuel: 1,200t coal; Range 4,000nm on 10kt; Armament: 4×305mm/40 [12in.], 10×152mm/40 [6in.], 24×76mm [3in.] QF, 5×457mm [18in.] TT; Armor: compound, belt: 356–457mm [14–18in.], barbettes: 229–356mm [9–14in.], turrets: 356mm [14in.], casemates: 152mm [6in.], CT: 356mm [14in.], deck: 63mm [2.5in.]; Comp.: 652.

YELLOW PERIL [GELBE GEFAHR; *KÔKARON*]. Phrase used in the West to describe the hypothetical threat posed by an Asian invasion of Western civilization. It was a direct translation of the German Emperor **William II**'s phrase *gelbe Gefahr*, referring to the peril Europe faced from an East Asian awakening at the end of the **First**

Sino–Japanese War. During that war, William II asked his painter to illustrate the danger lurking in the east. The resulting painting, which was distributed throughout the royal courts of Europe, personifies the European nations as Greek goddesses against the background of a burning city, while the radiant statue of a Buddha figure is seen glowing on the horizon. Originally focused on **China**, the term shifted to refer to **Japan** in the years from the Russo–Japanese War to World War II. The Japanese, however, notably **Itô Hirobumi**, the prime minister at the time the phrase was formulated, took it from the start to be aimed at them, and they embarked on a **propaganda** campaign in Europe and the **United States** to ameliorate their national image before the Russo–Japanese War. Although the Japanese representatives were fairly successful in their efforts, Japan's victory in the war marked another turning point, and during the following four decades, Western fears of Japan intensified. With Japan's defeat in World War II, those fears swung back to China, and then again to Japan in a different sense at the peak of its economic expansion in the 1980s.

YELLOW SEA, BATTLE OF THE [*KÔKAI KAISEN*] (1904). Major naval battle during the Russo–Japanese War that sealed the fate of the Russian **Pacific Fleet**. This second greatest naval engagement of the war was fought on 10 August in the Yellow Sea in the vicinity of **Port Arthur**. The battle was a consequence of the Japanese intensifying the **siege of Port Arthur** and the growing pressure on the Russian naval force there to escape to **Vladivostok**. After the **battle of Nanshan**, the entire **Kwantung peninsula**, together with the naval base of Port Arthur, was cut off from the rest of the **Liaotung peninsula** under Russian control. Japanese naval superiority on the one hand, and lack of Russian naval leadership on the other, paralyzed the main force of the Russian Pacific Fleet in the harbor of Port Arthur. As for the Japanese, they had several reasons to end the siege on Port Arthur, primarily to avoid further risk to the supply lines for the land troops. In addition, the Japanese were aware of rumors regarding the preparations of the **Baltic Fleet** to sail to Asia and join the Pacific Fleet. Such a combination could snatch the naval advantage from **Japan**, especially in view of the loss of the **battleships *Yashima*** and ***Hatsuse*** in May 1904. The naval commander at Port Arthur, Rear Admiral **Vilgelm Vitgeft**, however, could not await the arrival of the

Baltic Fleet either, as the siege tightened and the advancing Japanese fire imperiled the ships in the harbor.

Toward the end of July, General **Nogi Maresuke**, commander of the Japanese **Third Army**, began to attack the first defense line of Port Arthur, from a distance of 13–20 kilometers. Despite heavy losses, his army overcame the line of defense and advanced, bringing its field guns near enough to bombard the city and the port. During the first bombardment on 7 August 1904, a number of shells struck the Russian warships in the harbor, and Vitgeft was lightly wounded. The fate of the fleet seemed to be sealed unless it managed to break out of the harbor and escape to Vladivostok. Furthermore, the demoralized crews of the ships lacked naval training, and some of the guns on the vessels were dismantled and placed on shore. After urgings and threats by the viceroy, **Evgenii Alekseev**, Vitgeft unwillingly agreed, and at dawn on 10 August, he led a convoy of six **battleships**, four **cruisers**, and several **destroyers** out of the harbor.

The fleet passed through the minefield unharmed. In the open sea, however, the Japanese **Combined Fleet** had been waiting for such a departure for weeks. Admiral **Tôgô Heihachirô**, naval commander of the Combined Fleet, had both quantitative and qualitative advantages, and he was resolved on a decisive battle. As the battleships ***Tsessarevich*** and ***Pobieda*** slowed the pace of the Russian fleet due to mechanical problems, the distance between the two forces gradually narrowed. At noon Tôgô began a maneuver to cross the "T" and win tactical superiority over the Russian column. At 12:30 he opened fire at about 8,000 meters when most of his guns were directed at the leading Russian warship, while the bows of the ships in the convoy faced him, unable to use most of their guns. Tôgô kept maneuvering, but Vitgeft managed to avoid the trap, and the distance widened to about 10,000 meters. The two fleets kept a fixed distance from each other and continued to exchange fire during the afternoon. Both sides scored random hits but without destructive consequences, and given the current progress, the Russians were on their way to escape.

But luck again was on Tôgô's side, and it decided the fate of the battle. At 17:45 two 305-millimeter [12-inch] shells struck the Russian flagship *Tsessarevich* simultaneously, killing Vitgeft and wounding his chief of staff, Rear Admiral Nikolai Matusevich. As the helmsman was also hurt, the ship began to go round in circles, almost

colliding with the battleship behind her. While the battleships were in complete confusion, Rear Admiral Prince **Pavel Ukhtomskii**, who transferred the flag of the fleet to the ***Peresviet***, decided there and then to return to Port Arthur. Most of the ships followed his lead, but some of the commanders of the vessels decided to act independently and steamed in the direction of other ports. The helm of the *Tsessarevich* was brought under control, and accompanied by three destroyers, she reached the German port of Kiaochou [Jiaozhou] on Shantung [Shandong] peninsula. The cruiser ***Diana*** reached Saigon, whereas the cruiser ***Askold***, accompanied by a destroyer, reached Shanghai. All were interned until the end of the war. The fast cruiser ***Novik*** managed to escape eastward and reached the Russian island of **Sakhalin**. She was deserted, however, 11 days after the battle, following an engagement with two Japanese cruisers.

All in all, no ship was sunk, and the number of losses was not decisive either, as 69 Japanese and 74 Russians were killed (as well as 131 and 374 wounded, respectively). Nevertheless, Ukhtomskii's decision to return sealed the fate of the Russian fleet in the Pacific Ocean to slow expiration without honor in a besieged port. The majority of its ships returned to Port Arthur, and from then on it ceased to function as a naval unit. Upon their return, Lieutenant General **Anatolii Stoessel**, commander of the fortress of Port Arthur, ordered the ships' guns to be dismantled. Their crews were integrated into infantry units. Three days later, the **Imperial Japanese Navy** recorded another success, as it engaged the three warships of the **Vladivostok Independent Cruiser Squadron**. In the ensuing **battle of the Korea Straits**, the Russian cruiser ***Rurik*** was sunk and the menace of this squadron was eradicated at last. Thereafter the Japanese war effort could continue undisturbed by any Russian naval intervention until the arrival of the Baltic Fleet nine months later.

YENISEI. *See ENISEI.*

YINGKOU [YINGKOW]. *See* NIUCHUANG.

YONAI, MITSUMASA (1880–1948). Japanese naval officer and statesman who served as a cadet during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading figure in the **Imperial Japanese Navy** and prime minister

before World War II. He was born in Iwate Prefecture and graduated from the 29th class of the Naval Academy. At the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, Ensign Yonai served at the 16th **torpedo boat** division. He was promoted to lieutenant junior grade in late 1904. In 1905 he was transferred to the **destroyer** *Inazuma*, on which he saw action as part of the **First Fleet** in the **battle of Tsushima**. In the following three decades, he filled various sea and staff assignments and ultimately was appointed as commander-in-chief of the **Combined Fleet** in 1936. The following year, he was made navy minister and promoted to admiral, while opposing an alliance with the Axis powers. He was made prime minister in January 1940 but six months later stepped down under pressure from the pro-Axis army. During World War II, he served again as navy minister and took charge of the dissolution of the Imperial Japanese Navy after the defeat.

YOSANO, AKIKO (1878–1942). Japanese poet who was considered an anti-war activist during the Russo–Japanese War. She was born in Sakai, in Osaka Prefecture, and graduated from the Sakai Girls' School. She met and then married the poet Yosano Tekken through her involvement in his magazine *Myôjo* and soon published her first book of poems. Altogether, Yosano published more than 20 volumes of poetry, commentaries on classical and modern literature, and a translation of *The Tale of Genji*. During the Russo–Japanese War, her social commentary and criticism of **Japan**'s foreign aggression received attention, following a poem she wrote to her brother before his departure to **Manchuria**. The celebrated poem, "*Kimi shinitamau koto nakare*" (Do not die, my brother), did not express any blatant pacifist ideology. It included, however, Yosano's explicit request of her brother to remain alive, which contrasted with the growing militant spirit of **bushido** and ***Yamato damashii*** at that time. After the war, Yosano became dean of and a lecturer at the newly established Bunka Gakuin School, which she helped to found. She co-edited *Shin Man'yôshû*, a collection of over 22,000 poems by different writers. Her death from stroke in 1942 went unnoticed at the height of the war in the Pacific. She was still ignored for many years thereafter, but eventually she became a symbol of womanly courage in the early stages of Japan's modernization.

YOSHINO. Japanese protected **cruiser**. She was the only ship of the *Yoshino* class designed by Sir Philip Watts, and upon commission she

was the fastest cruiser in the world. At the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, the *Yoshino* served in the 3rd Battle Division of the **First Fleet**, but her fighting life was short; she sunk on 15 May 1904 after being rammed by the cruiser ***Kasuga*** on her port quarter on the way from **Port Arthur** to the Elliot Isles. Her sinking was so fast, with the loss of 318 lives and less than 100 of her crew saved, that it was initially rumored to have been caused by the explosion of a **mine**.

Technical data: Builder: Armstrong, Elswick, Great Britain, 1892–1893; Displ.: 4,150t; LBD: 109.73×14.17×5.18.00m [360×46.5×17ft]; Machinery: 2-shaft compound, 12 boilers, 15,750ihp; Speed: 23kt; Fuel: 1,000t coal; Range 9,000nm on 10kt; Armament: 4×152mm/40 [6in.], 8×120mm/40 [4.7in.], 22×47mm/40 QF, 5×356mm [14in.] TT; Armor: Harvey nickel steel, gun shields: 102mm [4in.], CT: 102mm [4in.], deck: 51–114mm [2–4.5in.]; Comp.: 360.

YUAN, SHIKAI [YÜAN, SHIH-KAI] (1859–1916). Chinese official and statesman who supported **Japan**'s war effort during the Russo–Japanese War and became president of the first republic of **China** a decade later. Serving as Chinese resident in **Korea** from 1885 to 1894, he supported the dowager empress against the reform movement in 1898. He was appointed viceroy of Chihli [Zhili] and built the strongest military force in China. During the Russo–Japanese War, Yuan identified the Japanese war effort with the aim of stimulating the reform movement in China. In 1905 he presented the Chinese throne a memorandum demanding the establishment of constitutional government within 12 years. Six years later, Yuan negotiated the abdication of the Qing emperor and became the first president following the revolution of 1911. His desire to enthrone himself as emperor prompted his capitulation to the Japanese **Twenty-One Demands** in March 1915. Eventually Yuan did assume the title of emperor, but he was forced to abandon his imperial title two months later. He died in June 1916.

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ZARUBAEV, NIKOLAI PLATONOVICH (1843–1912). Russian army officer who served as commander of the **Fourth Siberian**

Army Corps during the Russo–Japanese War. He graduated from the Konstantinovskii Military College in 1863 and from the General Staff Academy in 1870. He subsequently served in various staff positions and was appointed chief of staff of several divisions. In 1899 Zarubaev was promoted to lieutenant general; a year later he was appointed commander of the 9th **infantry** division and then deputy commander of the Siberian military district. At the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, he commanded the Fourth Siberian Corps and held this position from February 1904 to September 1905. After the **battle of Telissu**, he also commanded the Southern Detachment of the **Manchurian Army**, and later commanded large formations during the **battle of Tashihchiao**, the **battle of Liaoyang**, the **battle of Sha-ho**, and the **battle of Mukden**. Zarubaev proved to be relatively competent and popular, but he lacked initiative. After the war, he was promoted to adjutant general and was appointed infantry inspector. In 1909 he was appointed commander of the Odessa military district.

ZASULICH, MIKHAIL IVANOVICH (1843–1910). Russian army officer who served as commander of the **Second Siberian Army Corps** in the early stages of the Russo–Japanese War. In 1863 he graduated from the Konstantinovskii Military College, and he took part in the Russo–Turkish War of 1877–1878. He was the brother of one-time revolutionary Vera Zasulich but nevertheless reached the rank of lieutenant general before the war. Zasulich was appointed commander of the Second Siberian Army Corps in February 1904 and held this position until September. In the early stages of the war, he concurrently held command of the Eastern Detachment and was charged with halting the advance of the Japanese forces from **Korea** to **Manchuria**. Zasulich arrived at the Russian concentration near the **Yalu River** on 22 April 1904. As commander-in-chief of the Russian campaign in the **battle of the Yalu**, he led his force in the first Russian defeat on land, against the Japanese **First Army** under General **Kuroki Tametomo**. He was replaced by Lieutenant General **Fedor Keller** but remained the commander of his corps. During the subsequent **battle of Liaoyang**, he did not comply with Lieutenant General **Nikolai Zarubaev**'s command to halt the retreat, thereby exposing the flank of the Southern Group to Japanese attack. Altogether, Zasulich evinced much confusion in that battle,

which played a part in the Russian rout and disorganized retreat. He retired in 1906.

ZEMSTVO MOVEMENT. Russian opposition movement that supported the war effort in the Russo–Japanese War. It was established by liberal Russian landlords (*pomeshchiki*) who demanded political concessions and expansion of the rights of the local self-government bodies (*zemstvo*). The movement originated at the time of the abolition of serfdom, but it revived during the revolutionary upsurge of the 1870s. In 1880 the government granted some concession to the zemstvo assemblies, which in return expressed their support for the struggle against the revolutionaries, and in the next two decades it showed moderation with regard to the autocratic regime. At the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, the zemstvo assemblies organized patriotic demonstrations and appropriated funds for military use. In February 1904 the second congress of the Union of Zemstvo Constitutionalists renounced oppositional activity against the government and the war effort, and with the support of the government, the movement organized in **St. Petersburg** an all-zemstvo congress in November 1904. In the **Revolution of 1905**, the zemstvo movement included in its political demands social demands on behalf of the workers, but it continued to support Tsar **Nicholas II** in his war effort. Following the proclamation of the **October Manifesto** in 1905, the movement openly supported tsarism; during the subsequent decade, it became transformed into an anti-revolutionary movement.

ZHEMCHUG*.** Russian protected **cruiser** that took part in the Russo–Japanese War. She was one of two ships of the ***Izumrud class. At the outbreak of the Russo–Japanese War, the *Zhemchug* served in the **Baltic Fleet** and was attached to **Second Pacific Squadron**, with which she made the shortened course of the **voyage of the Baltic Fleet** via the **Suez Canal** under the command of Rear Admiral **Dmitrii von Felkerzam**. She eventually took part in the **battle of Tsushima** under the command of Rear Admiral **Oskar Enkvist**, and despite some fierce engagements with Japanese cruisers, she survived the first two days of the battle. During the night of 28 May 1905, Enkvist decided to withdraw the *Zhemchug*, together with his

other two surviving cruisers, to the south, and together they reached Manila on 6 June 1905. The *Zhemchug* was interned by the American authorities and released at the end of the war. Subsequently she was attached to the Pacific Fleet, and together with the ***Askold*** was the largest warship of the once outstanding fleet. She was refitted with additional guns but was sunk by the German cruiser *Emden* in October 1914 in the harbor of Penang, Malaya.

Technical data: Builder: Nevskii, Russia, 1901–1904; Displ.: 3,103t; LBD: 110.95×12.20×5.00m [364×40×16.5ft]; Machinery: 16 Yarrow boilers, 3-shaft VTE, 17,000ihp; Speed: 24kt; Fuel: 510t coal; Armament: 6×120mm/45 [4.7in.], 6×3pdr, 2×1pdr, 3×457mm [18in.] TT; Armor: deck: 32–76mm [1.25–3in.], CT: 32mm [1.25in.]; Comp.: 350.

ZHILINSKII, YAKOV GRIGORIEVICH (1853–1918). Russian army officer who served as chief of staff of the supreme commander of the Russian Far East Army during the Russo–Japanese War and became a leading figure in the **Imperial Russian Army** after the war. He was born in Mikhailov, now the oblast of Riazan, into a noble and landowning family. He graduated from the Nikolai Cavalry School in 1876 and the Academy of the General Staff in 1883. Zhilinskii subsequently served in a **cavalry** regiment, and in 1898 he was appointed military attaché to Spain and observed the Spanish–American War. After his return to **Russia** in 1900, he was promoted to major general and was appointed quartermaster general. In early 1904 he was appointed chief of staff of Admiral **Evgenii Alekseev**, viceroy and commander-in-chief of Russian forces in East Asia. In October 1904, however, Zhilinskii was sent back to Europe following the replacement of Alekseev by General **Aleksei Kuropatkin**, and he was appointed commanding officer of a cavalry division stationed in **Poland**.

In 1911 Zhilinskii, by then lieutenant general, became the governor-general of Warsaw and commanding officer of the Warsaw Military District, and in March 1914 he was appointed chief of staff of the Imperial Russian Army. Five months later, at the outbreak of World War I, he was appointed commander of the northwestern front and acted in this position as coordinator of the actions of the First and Second Armies, under the command of General **Pavel Ren-**

nenkampf and General **Aleksandr Samsonov**, respectively. Although the Russian forces at his disposal were much superior in numbers to the opposing Germans, his lack of a proper strategy allowed the initiative to fall into his rivals' hands. Bearing much responsibility for the Russian defeat in the **battle of Tannenberg**, Zhilinskii was appointed in 1915 head of the Russian mission to the Allied Council in Chantilly, **France**, and in September 1917 he retired officially from the army.

ZILLIACUS, KONRAD ("KONNI") (1855–1924). Finnish revolutionary who carried out anti-tsarist activity and collaborated with Japanese **military intelligence** during the Russo–Japanese War. He was born in **Finland**. He studied law and then became a newspaper correspondent, in which capacity he visited the **United States**, **Japan,** and **France**. After returning to Finland, Zilliacus stood for a constitution and in 1899 initiated a petition to Tsar **Nicholas II**, signed by 1,050 cultural figures in 12 countries. In the early years of the 20th century, Zilliacus headed the Finnish Active Resistance Party and contacted Russian revolutionaries. In March 1904, in the early stages of the Russo–Japanese War, he arranged the meeting between the Japanese intelligence coordinator in Europe, Colonel **Akashi Motojirô**, with whom he collaborated closely for financial support, and the Polish leader **Roman Dmowski**. In April he met **Georgii Plekhanov** and discussed with him the possibility of organizing a conference of various opposition movements of the Russian empire.

In the following months, Zilliacus met various Russian dissidents in exile and received Japanese support and advice. Eventually his initiative was realized in the Paris Conference held from 30 September to 5 October 1904, with the participation of eight revolutionary and opposition parties. In April 1905 Zilliacus, together with Father **Georgii Gapon** and others, managed to gather most of the Russian revolutionary parties in another conference, this time in Geneva with the participation of 11 revolutionary and opposition parties. During the final months of the war, Zilliacus was involved in an abortive attempt to smuggle weapons to underground activists in **St. Petersburg**. In 1909 he moved with his family to **Great Britain**, where his son Konni Zilliacus (1894–1967) became a renowned expert on English foreign policy.

Z-SIGNAL. Internationally used naval signal in the form of a flag. It was raised by Admiral **Tôgô Heihachirô** at the opening of the **battle of Tsushima**. On 27 May 1905, as the Japanese 1st Battle Division advanced toward the Russian formations crossing the **Tsushima Straits**, Tôgô raised the Z-signal on the mast of his flagship, **battleship *Mikasa***. The flag, used a century earlier by Admiral Horatio Nelson at the battle of Trafalgar, signaled the following: "The fate of the empire depends upon today's events. Let every man do his utmost." In the following decades, this flag, made of four triangles, colored yellow (up), red (down), blue (right), and black (left), became a symbol of victory in imperial **Japan**.

Appendix 1
War Documents

JAPANESE WAR PROCLAMATION (10 FEBRUARY 1904)

WE, by the Grace of Heaven, Emperor of Japan, seated on the Throne occupied by the same Dynasty from time immemorial, do hereby make proclamation to all Our loyal and brave subjects as follows:

We hereby declare war against Russia and We command our army and navy to carry on hostilities against that Empire with all their strength, and We also command all Our competent authorities to make every effort in pursuance of their duties, and in accordance with their powers, to attain the national aim with all the means within the limits of the law of nations.

We have always deemed it essential to international relations and made it our constant aim to promote the pacific progress of Our Empire in civilization, to strengthen Our friendly ties with other states, and to establish a state of things which would maintain enduring peace in the Extreme East and assure the future security of Our Dominion without injury to the rights and interests of other Powers. Our competent authorities have also performed their duties in obedience to Our will, so that our relations with the Powers have been steadily growing in cordiality. It was thus entirely against Our expectation that we have unhappily come to open hostilities against Russia.

The integrity of Korea is a matter of constant concern to this Empire, not only because of Our traditional relations with that country, but because the separate existence of Korea is essential to the safety of Our Realm. Nevertheless, Russia, in disregard of her solemn treaty pledges to China, her repeated assurances to other Powers, is still in occupation of Manchuria and has consolidated and strengthened her hold upon three provinces, and is bent upon their final annexation. And since the absorption of Manchuria by Russia would render it impossible to maintain the

integrity of Korea and would in addition compel the abandonment of all hope for peace in the Extreme East, We determined in those circumstances to settle the question by negotiation, and to secure thereby permanent peace. With that object in view, Our competent authorities, by Our order, made proposals to Russia, and frequent conferences were held during the course of six months. Russia, however, never met such proposals in a spirit of conciliation, but by her wanton delays put off the settlement of the question and by ostensibly advocating peace on the one hand while she was on the other extending her naval and military preparations, sought to accomplish her own selfish designs.

We cannot in the least admit that Russia had from the first any serious or genuine desire for peace. She has rejected the proposals of Our Government; the safety of Korea is in danger, the vital interests of Our Empire are menaced. The guarantees for the future which We have failed to secure by peaceful negotiations We can only now seek by an appeal to arms.

It is Our earnest wish that by the loyalty and valor of Our faithful subjects, peace may soon be permanently restored and the glory of Our Empire preserved.

[Imperial Sign Manual]
[Privy Seal]
February 10, 1904
[Signed by the Minister of State]

RUSSIAN WAR PROCLAMATION (10 FEBRUARY 1904)

WE, Nikolai II, who, with the grace of God, reign over all the Russias, proclaim widely to the loyal subjects. Being solicitous to maintain peace, WE exercised Our full efforts in order to solidify the peace in the Far East. For this purpose, WE expressed Our consent to the proposal of the Japanese Government to revise the present agreement between the two Empires concerning the Korean problem. However, Japan has informed Russia of her suspension of the negotiations and rupture of diplomatic relations before the end of the negotiations and even without waiting for the arrival of the latest reply of Our Government. The Japanese Government, without giving a warning that this rupture of diplomatic relations meant the opening of warlike actions, have ordered their

torpedo boats to attack suddenly Our squadron lying off the fortifications of Port Arthur. Immediately after the receipt of this report from Our Far East Governor General, WE issued the order to accept Japan's challenge with arms. In proclaiming this determination, WE confident of the protection of God and trusting that our loyal subjects are resolved to rise to defend their mother country, pray for the help of God for Our loyal army and navy.

On 9th year of Our accession to the throne January 27th, 1904 of the Christian era.

[Signed Nikolai II at St. Petersburg]

TERMS OF THE CAPITULATION OF PORT ARTHUR (2 JANUARY 1905)

ARTICLE ONE

All Russian military and naval officers and men, volunteers and government officials who are in the fortress and port of Port Arthur shall be made prisoners of war.

ARTICLE TWO

All forts and fortifications, warships and vessels, arms and ammunition, horses, war material, government funds and other property shall be handed over as they stand to the Japanese Army.

ARTICLE THREE

If the provisions of the above two articles are accepted, the Russians shall, as guarantee of their acceptance, withdraw the garrisons from the forts and batteries on I-Tsu-Shan, An-Tsu-Shan East, Ta-An-Tsu-Shan, and the range of heights to the south-east, and hand over these forts and batteries to the Japanese Army by Noon on January 3.

ARTICLE FOUR

In the event of its having been discovered that the Russian Army or Navy has destroyed any of the objects mentioned in Article 2 which existed at the time of signing this agreement, or has in any way changed the condition of those objects, the Japanese will break off negotiations and resume freedom of action.

ARTICLE FIVE

The Russian military and naval authorities at Port Arthur shall prepare and hand over to the Japanese Army a plan of the fortress of Port Arthur,

showing the positions of the land and submarine mines and other hidden dangers; a tabular statement of the military and naval strength and distribution at Port Arthur giving the names, rank and duties of the military and naval officers; a similar statement as regards the military and civil officials; a list of military units, of warships, vessels and boats, and of their crews, and a list of the ordinary inhabitants showing number, sex, nationality and occupation.

ARTICLE SIX

All arms (including those carried by individuals), ammunition, military stores, buildings, funds, and other descriptions of government property, horses, warships, vessels, and boats with all objects (except private property) on board them, shall be maintained in their present form. The procedure of transfer shall be agreed upon by a Joint commission of Japanese and Russians.

ARTICLE SEVEN

The Japanese Army will, in honor of the gallant defense made by the Russians, allow the Russian military and naval officers and officials to wear swords and take with them such personal effects as may be necessary for their subsistence. Those officers, officials, and volunteers who will give a written undertaking not to take up arms, and to refrain from doing any action detrimental to the interests of Japan, shall be allowed to return home. Each such officer will be allowed to take with him an orderly who will be released under oath.

ARTICLE EIGHT

The Russian military and naval non-commissioned officers and men, and the volunteers, shall assemble unarmed in uniform, with portable tents and necessary personal effects, under the command of their own officers at a rendezvous appointed by the Japanese Army. The Japanese commissioners shall arrange all details.

ARTICLE NINE

The members of the sanitary and intendant corps of the Russian Army and Navy at Port Arthur shall be left to take care of the Russian sick, wounded, and prisoners, under the supervision of the Japanese sanitary and intendant corps, until such time as may be deemed necessary by the Japanese Army.

ARTICLE TEN

The details concerning the disposal of non-combatants, the transfer of the administrative and financial business of the town together with the

documents referring thereto, and the enforcement of this agreement, shall be laid down in a supplement which shall have the same validity as this agreement.

ARTICLE ELEVEN

This agreement shall be signed by the plenipotentiaries of both sides, and shall become operative from the moment of its signature.

Done in duplicate
Shui-Shi-Ying [Port Arthur]
January 2, 1905
IJICHI
Lieutenant General
Imperial Japanese Amy
IWAMURA
Commander
Imperial Japanese Navy
REISS
Colonel
Imperial Russian Army
SHCHENSNOVICH
Captain
Imperial Russian Navy

PEACE TERMS OF THE TREATY OF PORTSMOUTH (5 SEPTEMBER 1905)

Ratification of the Treaty of Peace Signed at Portsmouth August 23, 1905, between Russia and Japan

By the helping grace of God, we, Nicholas II, Emperor and Autocrat of all the Russias etc., hereby declare that, in consequence of a mutual agreement between us and His Majesty, the Emperor of Japan, our plenipotentiaries concluded and signed at Portsmouth, August 23, 1905, a treaty of peace which, word for word reads as follows:

His Majesty, the Emperor of all the Russias, on the one hand, and His Majesty, the Emperor of Japan, on the other hand, being animated by the desire to restore the benefits of peace for their countries and their

peoples, have decided to conclude a treaty of peace and have appointed for this purpose their plenipotentiaries, to wit:
His Majesty the Emperor of Russia
His Excellency, Mr. Sergius Witte, his secretary of state and president of the committee of ministers of the Empire of Russia, and
His Excellency, Baron Roman Rosen, master of the Imperial Court of Russia and his ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary to the United States of America;
And His Majesty, the Emperor of Japan
His Excellency, Baron Komura Iutaro, Iusammi, knight of the Imperial Order of the Rising Sun, his minister of foreign affairs, and
His Excellency, Mr. Takahira Kogoro, Iusammi, knight of the Imperial Order of the Sacred Treasure, his envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary to the United States of America; Who, after having exchanged their full powers, found in good and due form, concluded the following articles:
ARTICLE ONE
There shall be in the future peace and friendship between Their Majesties the Emperor of all the Russias and the Emperor of Japan, as well as between their respective nations and subjects.
ARTICLE TWO
The Imperial Government of Russia, recognizing that Japan has predominant political, military, and economic interests in Korea, agrees not to interfere or place obstacles in the way of any measure of direction, protection, and supervision which the Imperial Government of Japan may deem necessary to adopt in Korea.
It is agreed that Russian subjects in Korea shall be treated in exactly the same manner as citizens of other foreign countries; that is, that they shall be placed on the same footing as the citizens of the most-favored nation.
It is likewise agreed that, in order to avoid any cause of misunderstanding, the two high contracting parties shall refrain from adopting, on the Russo-Korean frontier, any military measures which might menace the security of the Russian or Korean territory.
ARTICLE THREE
Russia and Japan mutually engage:
1. To completely and simultaneously evacuate Manchuria, with the exception of the territory over which the lease of the peninsula of Liao-

tung extends, in accordance with the provisions of additional Article I annexed to this treaty, and

2. To entirely and completely restore to the exclusive administration of China all parts of Manchuria now occupied by Russian and Japanese troops, or which are under their control, with the exception of the above-mentioned territory.

The Imperial Government of Russia declares that it has no territorial advantages or preferential or exclusive concessions in Manchuria of such a nature as to impair the sovereignty of China or which are incompatible with the principle of equal opportunity.

ARTICLE FOUR

Russia and Japan mutually pledge themselves not to place any obstacle in the way of general measures which apply equally to all nations and which China might adopt for the development of commerce and industry in Manchuria.

ARTICLE FIVE

The Imperial Government of Russia cedes to the Imperial Government of Japan, with the consent of the Government of China, the lease of Port Arthur, of Talien, and of the adjacent territories and territorial waters, as well as the rights, privileges, and concessions connected with this lease or forming part thereof, and it likewise cedes to the Imperial Government of Japan all the public works and property within the territory over which the above-mentioned lease extends.

The high contracting parties mutually engage to obtain from the Government of China the consent mentioned in the foregoing clause.

The Imperial Government of Japan gives on its part the assurance that the property rights of Russian subjects within the above-mentioned territory shall be absolutely respected.

ARTICLE SIX

The Imperial Government of Russia obligates itself to yield to the Imperial Government of Japan, without compensation and with the consent of the Chinese Government, the Chan-chun (Kwan-Chien-Tsi) and Port Arthur Railroad and all its branches, with all the rights, privileges, and property thereunto belonging within this region, as well as all the coal mines in said region belonging to this railroad or being operated for its benefit.

The two high contracting parties mutually pledge themselves to obtain from the Chinese Government the consent mentioned in the foregoing clause.

ARTICLE SEVEN

Russia and Japan agree to operate their respective railroads in Manchuria for commercial and industrial purposes exclusively, but by no means for strategic purposes.

It is agreed that this restriction does not apply to the railroads within the territory covered by the lease of the Liaotung peninsula.

ARTICLE EIGHT

The Imperial Governments of Russia and Japan shall conclude, as soon as possible, a separate convention to govern their operations of repair on the railroads in Manchuria.

ARTICLE NINE

The Imperial Government of Russia cedes to the Imperial Government of Japan, in perpetuity and full sovereignty, the southern part of the island of Saghalin, and all the islands adjacent thereto, as well as all the public works and property there situated. The fiftieth parallel of north latitude is adopted as the limit of the ceded territory. The exact boundary line of this territory shall be determined in accordance with the provisions of additional Article II annexed to this treaty.

Japan and Russia mutually agree not to construct within their respective possessions on the island of Saghalin, and the islands adjacent thereto, any fortification or similar military work. They likewise mutually agree not to adopt any military measures which might hinder the free navigation of the Straits of La Perouse and Tartary.

ARTICLE TEN

The right is reserved to Russian subjects inhabiting the territory ceded to Japan to sell their real property and return to their country; however, if they prefer to remain in the ceded territory, they shall be guarded and protected in the full enjoyment of their property rights and the exercise of their industries provided they submit to the laws and jurisdiction of Japan. Japan shall have perfect liberty to withdraw the right of residence in this territory from all inhabitants laboring under political or administrative incapacity, or to deport them from this territory. It pledges itself, however, to fully respect the property rights of these inhabitants.

ARTICLE ELEVEN

Russia obligates itself to reach an understanding with Japan in order to grant Japanese subjects fishing rights along the coast of the Russian possessions in the Seas of Japan, Okhotsk, and Bering.

It is agreed that the above-mentioned obligations shall not impair the rights already belonging to Russian or foreign subjects in these regions.

ARTICLE TWELVE

The treaty of commerce and navigation between Russia and Japan having been annulled by the war, the Imperial Governments of Russia and Japan agree to adopt as a basis for their commercial relations, until the conclusion of a new treaty of commerce and navigation, on the basis of the treaty in force before the present war, the system of reciprocity on the principle of the most-favored nation, including import and export tariffs, custom-house formalities, transit and tonnage dues, and the admission and treatment of the agents, subjects, and vessels of one country in the territory of the other.

ARTICLE THIRTEEN

As soon as possible after the present treaty takes effect, all prisoners of war shall be mutually returned. The Imperial Governments of Russia and Japan shall each appoint a special commissioner to take charge of the prisoners. All prisoners in the custody of one of the governments shall be delivered to the commissioner of the other government or to his duly authorized representative, who shall receive them in such number and in such suitable ports of the surrendering nation as the latter shall notify in advance to the commissioner of the receiving nation. The governments of Russia and Japan shall present to each other, as soon as possible after the delivery of the prisoners has been completed, a verified account of the direct expenditures made by them respectively for the care and maintenance of the prisoners from the date of capture or surrender until the date of their death or return. Russia agrees to refund to Japan, as soon as possible after the exchange of these accounts, as above stipulated, the difference between the actual amount thus spent by Japan and the actual amount likewise expended by Russia.

ARTICLE FOURTEEN

The present treaty shall be ratified by Their Majesties the Emperor of all the Russias and the Emperor of Japan. This ratification shall, within the shortest possible time and at all events not later than fifty days from the date of the signature of the treaty, be notified to the Imperial Governments of Russia and Japan, respectively, through the ambassador of the United States of America at St. Petersburg and the minister of France at Tokyo, and from and after the date of the last of these notifications this treaty shall enter into full force in all its parts.

The formal exchange of the ratifications shall take place at Washington as soon as possible.

ARTICLE FIFTEEN

The present treaty shall be signed in duplicate, in the French and English languages. The two texts are absolutely alike; however, in case of difference of interpretation the French text shall prevail. In witness thereof the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the present treaty of peace and affixed thereto their seals.

Done at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, the twenty-third day of August (fifth of September) of the year one thousand nine hundred and five, corresponding to the fifth day of the ninth month of the thirty-eighth year of Meiji.

JUTARO KOMURA [L.S.] K. TAKAHIRA [L.S.] SERGIUS WITTE [L.S.] ROSEN [L.S.]

In conformity with the provisions of Article II [*sic*: III] and IX of the treaty of peace between Russia and Japan under this date, the undersigned plenipotentiaries have concluded the following additional articles:

1. TO ARTICLE THREE:

The Imperial Governments of Russia and Japan mutually agree to begin the withdrawal of their military forces from the territory of Manchuria simultaneously and immediately after the entrance into force of the treaty of peace; and within a period of eighteen months from this date the armies of the two powers shall be entirely withdrawn from Manchuria, with the exception of the leased territory of the peninsula of Liaotung.

The forces of the two powers occupying advanced positions shall be withdrawn first.

The high contracting parties reserve the right to maintain guards for the protection of their respective railroad lines in Manchuria.

The number of these guards shall not exceed 15 men per kilometer, and within the limit of this maximum number the commanders of the Russian and Japanese armies shall, by mutual agreement, fix the number of guards who are to be employed, this number being as low as possible and in accordance with actual requirements. The commanders of the Russian and Japanese forces in Manchuria shall reach an understanding regarding all the details connected with the evacuation, in conformity with the principles herein above set forth, and shall, by mutual agreement,

adopt the measures necessary to carry out the evacuation as soon as possible and at all events within a period not exceeding eighteen months.
2. TO ARTICLE NINE:
As soon as possible after the present treaty takes effect, a boundary commission composed of an equal number of members appointed respectively by the two high contracting parties shall mark on the spot and in a permanent manner the exact line between the Russian and Japanese possessions on the island of Saghalin. The commission shall be obliged, as far as topographical conditions permit, to follow the 50th parallel of north latitude for the line of demarcation, and in case any deviations from this line are found necessary at certain points compensation shall be made therefor by making corresponding deviations at other points. It shall also be the duty of said commission to prepare a list and description of the adjacent islands which are comprised within the cession, and finally the commission shall prepare and sign maps showing the boundaries of the ceded territory. The labors of the commission shall be submitted to the approval of the high contracting parties.
The additional articles mentioned hereinabove shall be considered as being ratified by the ratification of the treaty of peace, to which they are annexed.
Portsmouth, August 23 (September 5), 1905, corresponding to the 5th day, 9th month, and the 28th [*sic*: 38th] year of Meiji.
JUTARO KOMURA, K. TAKAHIRA, SERGIUS WITTE, ROSEN

THE RUSSO-JAPANESE TREATIES OF 1907

Public Convention

The government of His Majesty the Emperor of All the Russias and the Government of His Majesty the Emperor of Japan, desiring to consolidate the relations of peace and good neighbourhood which have happily been reestablished between Japan and Russia, and wishing to remove for the future every cause of misunderstanding in the relations of the Empires, have agreed upon the following dispositions:
ARTICLE ONE
Each of the High Contracting Parties engages to respect the present territorial integrity of the other, and all the rights accruing to one and the

other Party from the treaties, conventions and contracts in force between them and China, copies of which have been exchanged between the Contracting Parties (in so far as these rights are not incompatible with the principle of equal opportunity), from the Treaty signed at Portsmouth on the 5th day of September (23rd of August) 1905 as well as from the special conventions concluded between Japan and Russia.

ARTICLE TWO

The two High Contracting Parties recognize the independence and the territorial integrity of the Empire of China and the principle of equal opportunity in whatever concerns the commerce and industry of all nations in that Empire, and undertake to support and defend the maintenance of the status quo and respect for this principle by all the peaceable means within their reach.

In witness whereof, the undersigned, duly authorized by their respective Governments, have signed this Convention and have affixed their seals.

Done at St. Petersburg, the seventeenth (thirtieth) day of July, 1907, corresponding to the thirtieth day of the seventh month of the fortieth year of Meiji.

(Signed) MOTONO
(Signed) ISWOLSKY

Secret Convention

The Government of His Majesty the Emperor of All the Russias and the Government of His Majesty the Emperor of Japan, desiring to obviate for the future all causes of friction or misunderstanding with respect to certain questions relating to Manchuria, Korea and Mongolia, have agreed upon the following provision:

ARTICLE ONE

Having in view the natural gravitation of interests and of political and economic activity in Manchuria, and desiring to avoid all complications which might arise from competition, Japan undertakes not to seek to obtain on its own account, or for the benefit of Japanese or other subjects, any concession in the way of railways or telegraphs in Manchuria to the north of a line defined in the Supplementary Article of the present Convention, and not to obstruct, either directly or indirectly, any initiatives supported by the Russian Government with

a view to concessions of that sort in those regions; and Russia, on its part, inspired by the same pacific motive, undertakes not to seek to obtain on its own account, or for the benefit of Russian or other subjects, any concession in the way of railways or telegraphs in Manchuria to the south of the above-mentioned line, and not to obstruct, either directly or indirectly, any initiatives supported by the Japanese Government with a view to concessions of that sort in those regions.

It is fully understood that all the rights and privileges belonging to the Chinese Eastern Railway Company by virtue of the contracts for the construction of this railway, dated August 16/28, 1896, and June 13/25, 1898, will remain in force on the section of the railway lying to the south of the line of demarcation defined in the Supplementary Article.

ARTICLE TWO

Russia, recognizing the relations of political solidarity between Japan and Korea resulting from the conventions and arrangements at present in force between them, copies of which have been communicated to the Russian Government by the Japanese Government, undertakes not to interfere with nor to place any obstacle in the way of the further development of those relations; and Japan, on its part, undertakes to extend in all respects most-favored-nation treatment to the Russian Government, consular officers, subjects, commerce, industry and navigation in Korea, pending the conclusion of a definitive treaty.

ARTICLE THREE

The Imperial Government of Japan, recognizing the special interests of Russia in Outer Mongolia, undertakes to refrain from any interference which might prejudice those interests.

ARTICLE FOUR

The present Convention shall be strictly confidential between the two High Contracting Parties.

In faith whereof, the undersigned, duly authorized by their respective Governments, have signed this Convention and have affixed their seals thereto.

Done at St. Petersburg, July 17/30, 1907, corresponding to the thirtieth day of the seventh month of the fortieth year of Meiji.

(L.S.) MOTONO

(L.S.) ISWOLSKY

SECRET SUPPLEMENTARY ARTICLE

The line of demarcation between North Manchuria and South Manchuria mentioned in Article 1 of the present Convention is established as follows:

Starting from the northwestern point of the Russo-Korean frontier, and forming a succession of straight lines, the line runs, by way of Hunchun and the northern extremity of Lake Pirteng, to Hsiushuichan; thence it follows the Sungari to the mouth of the Nunkiang, thereupon ascending the course of that river to the confluence of the Tola River. From that point, the line follows the course of that river to its intersection with the Meridian 122 degrees East of Greenwich.

(Signed) MOTONO
(Signed) ISWOLSKY

Source: Yakhontoff, 374 f.; MacMurray, I, 657 f.; Price, 107 f., 108; Japan, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, II, 154–56.

THE RUSSO–JAPANESE TREATIES OF 1910

Public Convention

The Imperial Government of Russia and the Imperial Government of Japan, sincerely attached to the principles established by the Convention concluded between them on July 17/30, 1907, and desiring to develop the results of that Convention with a view to the consolidation of peace in the Far East, have agreed to complete the said arrangement by the following dispositions:

ARTICLE ONE

For the purpose of facilitating communications and of developing the commerce of the nations, the two High Contracting Parties engage mutually to lend each other their friendly cooperation with a view to the improvement of their respective railway lines in Manchuria, and to the perfecting of the connecting service of the said railways, and to refrain from all competition prejudicial to the attainment of this purpose.

ARTICLE TWO

Each of the High Contracting Parties engages to maintain to respect the *status quo* in Manchuria resulting from all the treaties, conventions or other agreements hitherto concluded, either between Russia and

Japan or between these two Powers and China. Copies of the aforesaid arrangements have been exchanged between Russia and Japan.

ARTICLE THREE

In case an event of a nature endangering the above mentioned *status quo* should be brought about, the two High Contracting Parties shall in each instance enter into communications with each other for the purpose of agreeing upon the measures of the said *status quo*.

In faith thereof the undersigned, duly authorized by their respective Governments, have signed this Convention and have affixed their seals thereto.

Done at St. Petersburg, the 21st of June (4th of July), 1910, corresponding to the 4th day of the 7th month of the forty-third year of Meiji.

(L.S.) MOTONO

(L.S.) ISWOLSKY

Secret Convention

The Imperial Government of Russia and the Imperial Government of Japan, desiring to consolidate and develop the provisions of the secret Convention signed at St. Petersburg July 17/30, 1907, have agreed upon the following:

ARTICLE ONE

Russia and Japan recognize the line of demarcation fixed by the Additional Article of the secret Convention of 1907 as delimiting the respective spheres of their special interests in Manchuria.

ARTICLE TWO

The two High Contracting Parties undertake to respect reciprocally their special interests in the spheres above indicated. They consequently recognize the right of each, within its own sphere, freely to take all measures necessary for the safeguarding and the defense of those interests.

ARTICLE THREE

Each of the two High Contracting Parties undertakes not to hinder in any way the consolidation and further development of the special interests of the other Party within the limits of the above mentioned spheres.

ARTICLE FOUR

Each of the two High Contracting Parties undertakes to refrain from all political activity within the sphere of special interests of the other in Manchuria. It is furthermore understood that Russia will not seek in the

Japanese sphere—and Japan will not seek in the Russian sphere—any privilege or any concession of a nature to prejudice their reciprocal special interests, and that both the Russian and Japanese Governments will respect all the rights acquired by each of them within its sphere by virtue of the treaties, conventions or other arrangements mentioned in Article II of the public Convention of today's date.

ARTICLE FIVE

In order to insure the good working of their reciprocal engagements, the two High Contracting Parties will at all times frankly and loyally enter into communication with regard to anything that concerns matters affecting in common their special interests in Manchuria.

In the event that these special interests should come to be threatened, the two High Contracting Parties will agree upon the measures to be taken with a view to common action or to the support to be accorded for the safeguarding and the defense of those interests.

ARTICLE SIX

The present Convention shall be strictly confidential between the two High Contracting Parties.

In faith whereof, the undersigned, duly authorized by their respective Governments, have signed this Convention and have affixed their seals thereto.

Done at St. Petersburg, June 21/July 4, 1910, corresponding to the fourth day of the seventh month of the forty-third year of Meiji.

(L.S.) MOTONO

(L.S.) ISWOLSKY

Source: Yakhontoff, 376 f.; MacMurray, I, 803 f., 804; Price, 113 f.

THE RUSSO–JAPANESE TREATIES OF 1912

The Imperial Government of Russia and the Imperial Government of Japan, desirous of making precise and completing the provisions of the secret Conventions concluded between them July 17/30, 1907, and June 21/July 4, 1910, in order to avoid all cause of misunderstanding concerning their special interests in Manchuria and Mongolia, have decided to prolong the line of demarcation fixed by the additional article to the above-cited Convention of July 17/30, 1907, and to define their spheres of special interests in Inner Mongolia, and have agreed upon the following:

ARTICLE ONE

Starting from the point of intersection of the Tolaho River and Meridian 122º East of Greenwich, the above-mentioned line of demarcation follows the course of the Oulountchourh River and the Moushisha River up to the line of the watershed between the Moushisha River and the Haldaitai River; thence it follows the frontier line between the Province of Heilungkiang and Inner Mongolia until reaching the extreme point of the frontier between Inner Mongolia and Outer Mongolia.

ARTICLE TWO

Inner Mongolia is divided into two parts: one to the West, and the other to the East, of the meridian of Peking (116º 27' East of Greenwich).

The Imperial Government of Russia undertakes to recognize and to respect the Japanese special interests in the part of Inner Mongolia to the East of the meridian above indicated, and the Imperial Government of Japan undertakes to recognize and to respect the Russian special interests in the part of Inner Mongolia to the west of the said meridian.

ARTICLE THREE

The present Convention shall be strictly confidential between the two High Contracting Parties.

In faith whereof the undersigned, duly authorized for that purpose by their respective Governments, have signed this Convention and have affixed their seals thereto.

Done at St. Petersburg, June 25/July 8, 1912, corresponding to the eighth day of the seventh month of the forty-fifth year of Meiji.

(L.S.) I. MOTONO

(L.S.) SAZONOV

Source: Price, p. 117; Japan, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, II, 243 f.

THE RUSSO–JAPANESE TREATIES OF 1916

Public Convention

The Imperial Government of Russia and the Imperial Government of Japan, having resolved to unite their efforts for the maintenance of permanent peace in the Far East, are agreed upon the following:

ARTICLE ONE

Russia will not be a party to any arrangement or political combination directed against Japan.

Japan will not be a party to any arrangement or political combination directed against Russia.

ARTICLE TWO

In the event that the territorial rights or the special interests, in the Far East, of one of the High Contracting Parties, recognized by the other Contracting Party, should be menaced, Russia and Japan will confer in regard to the measure to be taken with a view to the support or cooperation to be given each other in order to safeguard and defend those rights and interests.

In faith whereof, the undersigned, duly authorized by their respective Governments, have signed this Convention and affixed their seals thereto.

Done at Petrograd, June 20/July 3, 1916, corresponding to the third day of the 7th month of the 5th year of Taisho.

(Signed) I. MOTONO

(Signed) SAZONOV

Secret Convention

The Imperial Government of Russia and the Imperial Government of Japan, desiring to consolidate the sincerely friendly relations established by their secret Conventions of July 17/30, 1907, June 21/July 4, 1910, and June 25/July 8, 1912, have agreed on the following clauses designed to complete the above-mentioned agreements:

ARTICLE ONE

The two High Contracting Parties, recognizing that their vital interests demand that China should not fall under the political domination of any third Power hostile to Russia or Japan, will frankly and loyally enter into communication whenever circumstances may demand, and will agree upon the measures to be taken to prevent such a situation being brought about.

ARTICLE TWO

In the event that, in consequence of the measures taken by mutual agreement as provided in the preceding article, war should be declared between one of the Contracting Parties and one of the third Powers contemplated by the preceding article, the other Contracting Party will, upon the demand of its ally, come to its aid, and in that case each of the High Contracting Parties undertakes not to make peace without a previous agreement with the other Contracting Party.

ARTICLE THREE

The conditions in which each of the High Contracting Parties will lend its armed cooperation to the other Contracting Party, as stipulated in the preceding article, and the means by which this cooperation will be effected, will be established by the competent authorities of the two High Contracting Parties.

ARTICLE FOUR

It is fully understood, however, that neither of the High Contracting Parties will be bound to lend its ally the armed assistance contemplated by Article 2 of the present Convention unless it has assured itself of cooperation, on the part of its allies, corresponding to the gravity of the impending conflict.

ARTICLE FIVE

The present Convention will come into force immediately after the date of signature, and will continue in effect until July 1/14, 1921.

In case neither of the High Contracting Parties should have given notice, twelve months prior to the expiration of that period, of its intention to bring the effectiveness of the Convention to an end it will continue in force until the expiration of one year from the date on which one or the other of the High Contracting Parties shall have denounced it.

ARTICLE SIX

The present Convention shall remain strictly confidential between the two High Contracting Parties.

In faith whereof, the undersigned, duly authorized by their respective Governments, have signed this Convention and have affixed their seals thereto.

Done at Petrograd, June 20/July 3, 1916 corresponding to the third day of the seventh month of the fifth year of Taisho.

(L.S.) MOTONO

(L.S.) SAZONOV

Source: Yakhontoff, 379 f.; MacMurray, II, 1327 f., 1328; Price, 121 f.; Japan, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, II, 333–35.

Appendix 2
Glossary of Port Arthur Site Names

The names in the four languages listed below refer to the array of defense systems around Port Arthur.

English	Russian	Chinese	Japanese
174-Meter Hill	Uglovaya Gora	—	—
203-Meter Hill	Visokaya Gora	Royu-shan	Nihyakusan Kôchi
B Battery	Fortificatsia 1	—	Keikawnshan Higashi
Chair Hill Port	Fort 4	I-Tsu-Shan	I-Shi-San
Cockscomb	Fort 2	Chi-Kuan-Shan	Kei-Kwan-San
Division Hill	Divisionnaya Gora	—	—
Eagle's Nest	Orlinoe Gnezdo	Wang Tai [Wantai]	Bo Dai
East Panlung	Redut 1	—	Banru-San-Higashi
False Hill	Falshivaya Gora	—	—
Flat Hill	Ploskaya Gora	—	Akasaka Yama
Golden Hill	Zolotaya Gora	—	—
Great Orphan	Dagushan	Teku-Shan	Teiko-San
Little Orphan	Siagushan	Esiao-Ku-Shan	Shoko-San
Long Hill	Dlinnaya Gora	—	Namako Yama
P Fort	Otkriti Kaponir 2	—	Ichinoue
Pine Tree Port	Fortificatsia 3	Sung-Shu-Shan	Sho-Ju-San
Port Arthur	Port Artur	Lüshun	Ryojun
Q Fort	Kuropatkinskii Lyunet	—	Yoshinaga
South Fort	Fort 1	Pai-Yin	Hyaku-Ginzan-Kita-Ho-Dai
Temple Redoubt	Kumirenskoi Redut	—	—
Tumulus Battery	Kurgannaya Batareya	—	—
Twin Dragons	Fort 3	Ehrlung-Shan	Niru-San Fort
Water Work Redoubt	Vodoprovodnyi Redut	—	Kuropatkin
West Panlung	Redut 2	—	Banru-San-Nishi
Wolf Hills	Volchiyi Gory	Peng-Huang-Shan	Ho-San

Source: Diedrich

Appendix 3
Military Ranks

LAND FORCES, OFFICER RANKS

British Army	U.S. Army	Imperial Russian Army	Imperial Japanese Army
Second lieutenant	Second lieutenant	Poruchik	Shôi
Lieutenant	First lieutenant	Shtabs-kapitan	Chûi
Captain	Captain	Kapitan	Taii
Major	Major	Mayor*	Shôsa
Lieutenant colonel	Lieutenant colonel	Podpolkovnik	Chûsa
Colonel	Colonel	Polkovnik	Taisa
Brigadier	Brigadier general (one star)	—	—
Major general	Major general (two stars)	General-Major	Shôshô
Lieutenant general	Lieutenant general (three stars)	General-Leitenant	Chûjô
General	General (four stars)	General (ot infanterii, kavalerii, artillerii)	Taishô
Field marshal	General of the Army (five stars)	General-Feldmarshal	Gensui

NAVY, OFFICER RANKS

British Royal Navy	U.S. Navy	Imperial Russian Navy	Imperial Japanese Navy
Midshipman	Ensign	Michman	Shôi
Sub lieutenant	Lieutenant junior grade	Leitenant	Chûi
Lieutenant	Lieutenant	Starshii leitenant	Taii
Lieutenant commander	Lieutenant commander	Kapitan tret'yego ranga*	Shôsa
Commander	Commander	Kapitan vtorogo ranga	Chûsa
Captain	Captain	Kapitan pervogo ranga	Taisa
Commodore	Commodore	—	—
Rear admiral	Rear admiral	Kontr-admiral	Shôshô
Vice admiral	Vice admiral	Vitse-admiral	Chûjô
Admiral	Admiral	Admiral	Taishô
Admiral of the Fleet	Fleet admiral	General-Admiral	Gensui

* This rank was not part of the ranking system during the war.

Appendix 4
Naval Balance in East Asia on the Eve of the War (5 February 1904)

THE JAPANESE COMBINED FLEET (VICE ADMIRAL TÔGÔ HEIHACHIRÔ)

First Fleet (Vice Admiral Tôgô Heihachirô)

First Division (Rear Admiral Nashiwa Tokioki): *Mikasa* (BB), *Asahi* (BB), *Fuji* (BB), *Yashima* (BB), *Shikishima* (BB), *Hatsuse* (BB), *Tatsuta* (dispatch vessel)

Third Division (Rear Admiral Dewa Shigeto): *Chitose* (OCR), *Takasago* (OCR), *Kasagi* (OCR), *Yoshino* (OCR)

1st Destroyer Division: *Shirakumo* (DD), *Asashiwo* (DD), *Kasumi* (DD), *Akatsuki* (DD)

2nd Destroyer Division: *Ikazuchi* (DD), *Oboro* (DD), *Inazuma* (DD), *Akebono* (DD)

3rd Destroyer Division: *Usugumo* (DD), *Shinonome* (DD), *Sazanami* (DD)

1st Torpedo Boat Division: No. 67 (TB), No. 68 (TB), No. 69 (TB), No. 70 (TB)

14th Torpedo Boat Division: *Chidori* (TB), *Hayabusa* (TB), *Manazuru* (TB), *Kasasagi* (TB)

Second Fleet (Vice Admiral Kamimura Hikonojo)

Second Division (Rear Admiral Misu Sôtarô): *Izumo* (CR), *Azuma* (CR), *Asama* (CR), *Yakumo* (CR), *Tokiwa* (CR), *Iwate* (CR), *Chihaya* (dispatch vessel)

Fourth Division (Rear Admiral Uryû Sotokichi): *Naniwa* (OCR), *Akashi* (OCR), *Takachiho* (OCR), *Niitaka* (OCR)

4th Destroyer Division: *Hayatori* (DD), *Asagiri* (DD), *Harusame* (DD), *Murasame* (DD)

5th Destroyer Division: *Murakumo* (DD), *Shiranui* (DD), *Yugiri* (DD), *Kagero* (DD)
9th Torpedo Boat Division: *Aotaka* (TB), *Hato* (TB), *Kari* (TB), *Tsubame* (TB)
20th Torpedo Boat Division: No. 62 (TB), No. 63 (TB), No. 64 (TB), No. 65 (TB)

Fleet Auxiliaries' Squadron

First Division: *Oshima* (PG), *Akagi* (PG), *Kasuga Maru* (AX), *Taichu Maru* (AX), *Tainan Maru* (AX), *Miike Maru* (AX), *Kobe Maru* (AX), *Yamaguchi Maru* (AX), *Fukuoka Maru* (AX), *Kinshu Maru* (AX), *Jinsen Maru* (AX), *Bushio Maru* (AX), *Buyo Maru* (AX), *Tenshin Maru* (AX), *Hokoku Maru* (AX)
Second Division: *Nikko Maru* (AX), *Hong Kong Maru* (AX), *Nippon Maru* (AX), *Koto Maru* (AX), *Taro Maru* (AX), *Hikosan Maru* (AX)

Third Fleet (Vice Admiral Kataoka Shichirô)

Fifth Division (Vice Admiral Kataoka Shichirô): *Chin Yen* (ex-Chinese OBB), *Itsukushima* (OCR), *Hashidate* (OCR), *Matsushima* (OCR)
Sixth Division (Rear Admiral Tôgô Masaji): *Izumi* (OCR), *Suma* (OCR), *Akitsushima* (OCR), *Chiyoda* (CR)
Seventh Division (Rear Admiral Hosoya Sukeuji): *Fuso* (OBB), *Kaimon* (screw corvette), *Sai Yen* (ex-Chinese OCR)
Gunvessels: *Tsukushi* (OCR), *Hei Yen* (PG), *Banjo* (PG), *Chokai* (PG), *Atago* (PG), *Maya* (PG), *Uji* (PG), *Miyako* (dispatch vessel)
10th Torpedo Boat Division: No. 40 (TB), No. 41 (TB), No. 42 (TB), No. 43 (TB)
11th Torpedo Boat Division: No. 72 (TB), No. 73 (TB), No. 74 (TB), No. 75 (TB)
16th Torpedo Boat Division: *Shirataka* (TB), No. 71 (TB), No. 39 (TB), No. 66 (TB)
Attached Ships: *Toyohashi Maru*, *Ariake Maru*

Known Locations as of 5 February 1904

Sasebo: *Mikasa*, *Hatsuse*, *Shikishima*, *Asahi*, *Fuji*, *Yashima*, *Izumo*, *Iwate*, *Asama*, *Azuma*, *Tokiwa*, *Yakumo*, *Chitose*, *Kasagi*, *Yoshino*,

Takasago, *Naniwa*, *Takachiho*, *Akashi*, *Niitaka*, *Suma*, *Tatsuta*, *Chihaya*, *Oshima*, *Akagi*, 15 Destroyers, 20th Torpedo Boat Division, 1st Torpedo Boat Division, 12th Torpedo Boat Division (50–53 TB), TBs #75 (Number 67 class TB), 7, 8, 9, and 10 (all Number 5–19 class TB), *Kasuga Maru*, *Nikko Maru*, *Tenshin Maru*, *Tainan Maru*

Tsushima (Osaki, Takeshiki): *Fuso*, *Kaimon*, *Sai Yen*, *Hei Yen*, *Maya*, *Chokai*, 10th Torpedo Boat Division, 11th Torpedo Boat Division (-#75), 16th Torpedo Boat Division, 17th Torpedo Boat Division (#s 31–34 all Number 31 class TB), 18th Torpedo Boat Division (#s 35, 36, 60, 61 all Number 31 class TB)

Chemulpo: *Chiyoda* (CR)

Singapore: *Nisshin* (CR), *Kasuga* (CR)

THE RUSSIAN PACIFIC FLEET (VICE ADMIRAL OSKAR STARK)

Port Arthur Squadron: Battle Squadron (Vice Admiral Oskar Stark)

Battleship Division (Vice Admiral Oskar Stark): 1st Sub-Division: *Petropavlovsk* (BB), *Poltava* (BB), *Sevastopol* (BB), *Tsessarevich* (BB); 2nd Sub-Division (Rear Admiral Pavel Ukhtomskii): *Peresviet* (BB), *Pobieda* (BB), *Retvizan* (BB)

Division of Long-Distance Scouts (Captain Robert Viren): *Bayan* (CR), *Askold* (OCR), *Diana* (OCR), *Pallada* (OCR), *Variag* (OCR) detached on special service to Chemulpo

Division of Short-Distance Scouts: *Boyarin* (OCR), *Novik* (OCR)

Torpedo Gunvessels: *Vsadnik* (PG), *Gaidamak* (PG)

Minelayers: *Amur* (ML), *Enisei* (ML)

1st Destroyer Flotilla: *Bditelnii* (DD), *Bezposhtchadnii* (DD), *Bezshumnii* (DD), *Bezstrashnii* (DD), *Boevoii* (DD), *Boikii* (DD), *Burnii* (DD), *Grozovoi* (DD), *Leitenant Burakov* (DD), *Rastoropni* (DD), *Razyashchii* (DD)

Floating Defense of Port Arthur

2nd Destroyer Flotilla: *Ryeshitelnii* (DD), *Serditii* (DD), *Silnii* (DD), *Skorii* (DD), *Smyelii* (DD), *Statnii* (DD), *Steregushchii* (DD), *Storozhevoi*

(DD), *Strashnii* (DD), *Stroinii* (DD), *Vlastnii* (DD), *Vnimatelnii* (DD), *Vnushitelnii* (DD), *Vuinoslivii* (DD)
Gunvessels and Sloops: *Gremyashchi* (PG), *Otvajni* (PG), *Gilyak* (PG), *Djigit* (PG), *Razboinik* (PG), *Zabiaka* (AX), *Bobr* (PG)
Auxiliary Vessels: *Silach* (AX), *Angara* (AX), *Mongolia* (AX), *Kazan* (AX)

Vladivostok Squadron (Captain Nikolai Reuzenstein)

Vladivostok Independent Cruiser Squadron (Rear Admiral Karl Iessen): *Rossia* (CR), *Rurik* (CR), *Gromoboi* (CR), *Bogatyr* (OCR)

Floating Defense of Vladivostok

Gunvessels: *Koreets* (PG) detached on special service to Chemulpo, *Mandjur* (PG) detached on special service to Niuchuang, *Sivuch* (PG) detached on special service to Shanghai
1st Torpedo Boat Division: No. 201 (TB), No. 202 (TB), No. 203 (TB), No. 204 (TB), No. 205 (TB), No. 206 (TB)
2nd Torpedo Boat Division: No. 208 (TB), No. 209 (TB), No. 210 (TB), No. 211 (TB)
Auxiliary Vessels: *Lena* (AX), *Manchuria* (AX), *Argun* (AX), *Shilka* (AX), *Nonni* (AX), *Kamchadal* (AX), *Yakut* (AX), *Tunguz* (AX)
At Nikolaevsk, Torpedo Boat Flotilla: No. 91 (TB), No. 92 (TB), No. 93 (TB), No. 94 (TB), No. 95 (TB), No. 97 (TB), No. 98 (TB)

Known Locations as of 5 February 1904

As listed above, with the following reinforcements in transit:
Tangier: No. 221 (TB) and 222 (TB)
Red Sea, departed Suez on the 4th: *Osliabia* (BB), *Bravii* (DD), *Blestyashchii* (DD), No. 212 (TB), No. 213 (TB)
Jibuti: *Dmitrii Donskoi* (CR), *Aurora* (OCR), *Bodrii* (DD), *Buinii* (DD), *Bezuprechnii* (DD), *Biedovii* (DD)

Appendix 5
Naval Balance in East Asia on the Eve of the Battle of Tsushima (26 May 1905)

THE JAPANESE COMBINED FLEET (ADMIRAL TÔGÔ HEIHACHIRÔ)

First Fleet (Admiral Tôgô Heihachirô)

First Division (Vice Admiral Misu Sôtarô): *Mikasa* (BB), *Shikishima* (BB), *Fuji* (BB), *Asahi* (BB), *Kasuga* (CR), *Nisshin* (CR), *Tatsuta* (dispatch vessel)

Attached Flotillas: 1st Destroyer Division: *Harusame* (DD), *Fubuki* (DD), *Ariake* (DD), *Arare* (DD), *Akatsuki II* (DD); 2nd Destroyer Division: *Oboro* (DD), *Inazuma* (DD), *Ikazuchi* (DD), *Akebono* (DD); 9th Torpedo Boat Division: *Aotaka* (TB), Kari (TB), *Tsubame* (TB), *Hato* (TB)

Third Division (Vice Admiral Dewa Shigeto): *Kasagi* (OCR), *Chitose* (OCR), *Otowa* (OCR), *Niitaka* (OCR)

Attached Flotilla, 4th Destroyer Division: *Asagiri* (DD), *Murasame* (DD), *Shirakumo* (DD), *Asashiwo* (DD)

Second Fleet (Vice Admiral Kamimura Hikonojo)

Second Division (Rear Admiral Shimamura Hayao): *Izumo* (CR), *Azuma* (CR), *Tokiwa* (CR), *Yakumo* (CR), *Asama* (CR), *Iwate* (CR), *Chihaya* (dispatch vessel)

Attached Flotillas: 5th Destroyer Division: *Shiranui* (DD), *Murakumo* (DD), *Yugiri* (DD), *Kagero* (DD); 3rd Destroyer Division: *Shinonome* (DD), *Usugumo* (DD), *Kasumi* (DD), *Sazanami* (DD)

Fourth Division (Vice Admiral Uryû Sotokichi): *Naniwa* (OCR), *Takachiho* (OCR), *Akashi* (OCR), *Tsushima* (OCR)

Third Fleet (Vice Admiral Kataoka Shichirô)

Fifth Division (Rear Admiral Taketomi Kunikane): *Itsukushima* (OCR), *Chin Yen* (ex-Chinese OBB), *Matsushima* (OCR), *Hashidate* (OCR), *Yaeyama* (dispatch vessel)

Attached Flotilla, 11th Torpedo Boat Division: No. 73 (TB), No. 72 (TB), No. 74 (TB), No. 75 (TB)

Sixth Division (Rear Admiral Tôgô Masaji): *Suma* (OCR), *Chiyoda* (CR), *Akitsushima* (OCR), *Izumi* (OCR)

Attached Flotillas: 10th Torpedo Boat Division: No. 43 (TB), No. 42 (TB), No. 40 (TB), No. 41 (TB); 15th Torpedo Boat Division: *Hibari* (TB), *Sagi* (TB), *Hashitaki* (TB), *Uzura* (TB)

THE RUSSIAN SECOND AND THIRD PACIFIC SQUADRONS (VICE ADMIRAL ZINOVII ROZHESTVENSKII)

First Division (Vice Admiral Zinovii Rozhestvenskii): *Kniaz Suvorov* (BB), *Imperator Aleksandr III* (BB), *Borodino* (BB), *Orel* (BB)

Second Division (Rear Admiral Dmitrii von Felkerzam): *Osliabia* (BB), *Sissoi Veliki* (BB), *Navarin* (BB), *Admiral Nakhimov* (CR)

Third Division (Rear Admiral Nikolai Nebogatov): *Imperator Nikolai I* (OBB), *General Admiral Graf Apraksin* (OBB), *Admiral Seniavin* (OBB), *Admiral Ushakov* (OBB)

Attached Cruisers: *Zhemchug* (OCR), *Izumrud* (OCR)

First Cruiser Division: *Oleg* (OCR), *Aurora* (OCR), *Dmitrii Donskoi* (CR), *Vladimir Monomakh* (CR)

Second Scouting Division: *Svietlana* (CR), *Ural* (AX)

Destroyer Flotilla: 1st Destroyer Division: *Biedovii* (DD), *Buinii* (DD), *Bravii* (DD), *Byistrii* (DD); 2nd Destroyer Division: *Blestyashchii* (DD), *Bezuprechnii* (DD), *Bodrii* (DD), *Gromkii* (DD), *Groznii* (DD)

Transport Squadron: *Almaz* (PG), *Anadyir* (AX), *Irtyish* (AX), *Kamchatka* (AX), *Koreia* (AX), *Rus* (AX), *Svir* (AT), *Orel* (AX), *Kostroma* (AX)

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The writing on the Russo–Japanese War is characterized by extensive publications during the war and the subsequent decade, a sharp decline as soon as World War I broke out, and a significant rise again, eight decades later, toward the centennial of the war. One noteworthy characteristic, compared with earlier wars, is the vast number of official histories of the war issued by several major powers, including the two belligerents, and in addition a great number of books written by military observers and war correspondents. Accounts of the war appeared mainly in three languages—Russian, Japanese, and English—representing the viewpoints of the two combatants as well as the relatively neutral, albeit occasionally favorable to the Japanese side, British and American perspectives.

This bibliography incorporates most of the available books and articles dealing with the war and related topics published in English, as well as selected books and articles in other languages, particularly Japanese and Russian. Non-English books were, as a rule, included for their notable importance or in case of insufficient material on specific topics in English.

CONTENTS

General Reference Works

General Encyclopedias and Lexicons 475
Geographical and Historical Atlases 476
Military Encyclopedias and Dictionaries 476
Lexicons of the Russo–Japanese War 477

Background

Japan 477
Russia 478
Origins of the War
Prewar Russo–Japanese Relations 479
The Otsu Incident (1891) 481
The Sino–Japanese War (1894–1895) 481
The Yellow Peril 482
The Boxer Uprising (1900) 482
Prewar Russian and Japanese Involvement in Manchuria and Korea 482
The Trans-Siberian Railway 483
The Anglo–Japanese Alliance (1902) 484
Prewar Mutual Images and Psychohistorical Background 484
Prewar Writings on Japan and Russia 485
Official Reports on Prewar Russia and Japan 485
Memoirs on Prewar Russia and Japan 485
Prewar Military Balance
General Overview 486
Imperial Japanese Army 487
Imperial Japanese Navy 487
Imperial Russian Army 487
Imperial Russian Navy 488
The Arena 488

General Works on the War

Official and Semiofficial Histories 489
Review of the Official Histories 490
Official Reports and Private Memoirs of Military Observers 490
Military Overviews 491
Centennial Overviews of the War (2004–2006) 492
Early Military Overviews (1904–1914) 493
Military Memoirs 494
Wartime Personal Memoirs and Letters 495
Books and Articles by Military Correspondents 495
Contemporary War Albums 496

Illustrated Books 497
The Naval Campaign 497
Intelligence and Clandestine Activity 498
Military Observers, War Correspondents, and the Media during the War 498
Military and Financial Assistance during the War 499
Contemporary Writing on the International and Political Aspects of the War 500
Western Attitudes toward Japan and Russia during the War 500
Neutrality and International Law during the War 501
Prisoners of War 501
Military Casualties 502
Humanitarian Activity and Medical Care 502
Revolution of 1905 503
The Potemkin Mutiny 504
Anti-Tsarist Revolutionary Activity outside Russia 504
Anti-War Figures and Activity in Japan 505

Specific Campaigns

Chemulpo 505
Nanshan 505
Liaoyang 505
Port Arthur 506
Mukden 506
Voyage of the Baltic Fleet and Battle of Tsushima 506

Leading Personalities

Japan
Emperor Meiji 507
Prime Minister Katsura Tarô 507
Genro Itô Hirobumi 508
Field Marshal Yamagata Aritomo 508
General Nogi Maresuke 508
Field Marshal Ôyama Iwao 508
Colonel Akashi Motojirô 508
Admiral Tôgô Heihachirô 509

Russia
Tsar Nicholas II 509
Sergei Witte 511
Viacheslav Plehve 511
Father Georgii Gapon 512
General Alexei Kuropatkin 512
Admiral Stepan Makarov 512
United States
President Theodore Roosevelt 512
Alfred Thayer Mahan 513
Germany
Emperor William II 513

Major Strategies and Military Innovations

Field Innovations 513
Naval Innovations 513

Diplomatic Denouement

Portsmouth Conference 513
Post-Portsmouth Denouement and Agreements 514

Impact of the War

Military Repercussions
General Repercussions and Lessons 515
Imperial Japanese Army 516
Imperial Russian Army 516
British Army 517
French Army 518
Imperial Japanese Navy 518
Imperial Russian Navy 518
British Royal Navy 519
German Imperial Navy 520
French Navy 520
United States Navy 520

Political and Diplomatic Repercussions
General 521
Japan 521
Russia 522
Russo–Japanese Rapprochement and Postwar Treaties 523
United States 524
Great Britain 525
France 525
Germany 526
Poland 526
Finland 527
China 527
Korea 528
The Indian Sub-continent 528
West Asia and the Middle East 529
The Jewish World 530
Economic Repercussions 530
Social Repercussions
Japan 530
Russia 531
Cultural Repercussions and Artistic Representations
The War as a Race Struggle 531
The War in the Visual Arts 532
The War in Literature 532
Audiovisual Materials 533
Internet Sites 533
Local and Foreign Newspapers and Scholarly Journals
Contemporary Newspapers and Magazines 534
Scholarly Journals 535

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War in History
Warship

Index

Note: Bold page numbers refer to the term's dictionary entry.

Abaza, Aleksei, 7, **25**, 68, 70
Abdul Hamid, Sultan, 397
Abdur Rahman, Amir, 27
Admiral Nakhimov, **25–26**, 97, 394, 470
Admiral Seniavin, **26**, 280, 394, 470
Admiral Ushakov, **26–27**, 127, 280, 420, 470
Adzuma. *See Azuma*
Afghanistan, **27–28**, 37, 157–158, 161, 387
Ai River, 422–423, 424
Akashi, **28**, 85, 119, 465, 467, 469
Akashi, Motojirô, **28–29**, 108, 235, 439
Akitsushima, **29**, 120, 174, 466, 470
Akiyama, Saneyuki, **30**, 31
Akiyama, Yoshifuru, **31**, 227
Al Din, Muzaffar, 161
Alaska, 404
Aleksandr I, Tsar, 57
Aleksandr II, Tsar, 32, 68, 116, 320, 329–330
Aleksandr III. *See Imperator Aleksandr III*
Aleksandr III, Tsar, 232, 257, 284, 317, 330, 383
Aleksandrovskii, Sergei, **31**
Alekseev, Evgenii, 7–8, 13, **32**, 33, 70–71, 132, 201, 206, 299, 308, 373, 410, 432, 438
Alekseev, Mikhail, **33**, 138
Aleksei Aleksandrovich. *See* Romanov, Aleksei Aleksandrovich
Algeciras Conference, 37, 243
Ali Shah, Mohammad, 162
Almaz, **34**, 59, 394, 470
American Civil War, 213, 216, 228, 235, 238, 360, 380, 386, 398, 404
Amur Flotilla, **34**
Amur River Society. *See* Kokuryûkai
Amur River, 1, **35**, 145, 187, 210, 329, 385
Amur, **34**, 112, 142, 165, 238, 467
Andô, Sadayoshi, **35**, 106
Andong. *See* Antung
Anglo–French Entente (Entente Cordiale), 18, **35**, 37, 56, 100, 113, 123, 130, 134, 202, 242, 277, 290, 419
Anglo–Japanese Alliance, **36**, 37, 56, 71, 129, 133, 144, 158, 179, 188, 192, 202, 215, 220, 323, 324–325, 427
Anglo–Japanese Treaty, 6, 36, **37**, 215, 255

Anglo–Russian Entente, 28, **37–38**, 110, 130, 134, 158, 162, 168, 333, 386, 398
Aniwa Bay, 339
Anti-Russia Society. *See* Tairo Dôshikai
Antung, 35, **38**, 99, 227, 263, 424
Araki, Sadao, **38–39**, 226
Argentina, 176, 260
Arima, Ryôkitsu, **39**, 293–294
Arisaka Type 30 rifle, **39**, 40, 82, 159, 247, 248, 319, 343
Arisaka Type 31 gun, **40**, 49, 343
Arisaka Type 38 rifle, 39, **40**, 159, 249, 319, 343
Arisaka, Nariakira, 39, 40
armament. *See* weaponry
Armenia, 33, 286
armored cruisers, 51, 65, 97–98, 118, 119, 256, 257–258, 278, 339, 379, 393, 412
arms race. *See* naval arms race
Army of the Yalu. *See* Army, Japanese Fifth
Army officers, Imperial Japanese. *See* Akashi, Motojirô; Akiyama, Yoshifuru; Andô, Sadayoshi; Araki, Sadao; Arisaka, Nariakira; Asada, Nobuhiro; Fukushima, Yasumasa; Fushimi, Sadanaru; Haraguchi, Kanezane; Hasegawa, Yoshimichi; Hayashi, Senjûrô; Honjô, Shigeru; Iguchi, Shôgo; Iida, Shunsuke; Inoue, Hikaru; Inoue, Yoshika; Kan'in, Kotohito; Katsura, Tarô; Kawamura, Kageaki; Kideshi, Yasutsuna; Kodama, Gentarô; Kuroki, Takemoto; Matsui, Iwane; Matsumura, Mohan; Matsunaga, Masatoshi; Mazaki, Jinzaburô; Murata, Tsuneyoshi; Nakamura, Satoru; Nishi, Kanjirô; Nishimura, Sukeyoshi; Nogi, Maresuke; Nozu, Michitsura; Ogawa, Mataji; Oku, Yasukata; Ôkubo, Haruno; Ôsako, Naomichi; Ôsako, Naotoshi; Ôshima, Hisanao; Ôshima, Yoshimasa; Ôyama, Iwao; Sakurai, Tadayoshi; Samejima, Shigeo; Shimose, Masachika; Tachibana, Koichirô; Tachibana, Shûta; Tanaka, Giichi; Tatsumi, Naobumi; Terauchi, Masatake; Tsuchiya, Mitsuharu; Tsukamoto, Katsuyoshi; Uchiyama, Kojirô; Ueda, Arisawa; Uehara, Yûsaku; Ugaki, Kazushige; Yamada, Nobuyoshi; Yamagata, Aritomo; Yamanashi, Hanzô
Army officers, Imperial Russian. *See* Alekseev, Mikhail; Belyii, Vasilii; Bezobrazov, Aleksandr; Bildering, Aleksandr; Bogdanov, Aleksei; Bot'yanov, Mikhail; Brusilov, Aleksei; Danilov, Vladimir; De Witte, Konstantin; Denikin, Anton; Fleischer, Nikolai; Fok, Aleksandr; Gaponov, Leontii; Gerngross, Aleksandr; Gershelman, Sergei; Glebov, Nikolai; Gorbatovskii, Vladimir; Grekov, Vladimir; Grippenberg, Oskar; Gurko, Vasilii; Irman, Vladimir; Ivanov, Nikolai; Kashtalinskii, Nikolai; Kaulbars, Aleksandr; Keller, Fedor; Kondratenko, Roman; Kuropatkin, Aleksei; Kutnevich, Nikolai; Launits, Mikhail von der; Linievich, Nikolai; Mannerheim, Carl; Maslov, Ignatii; Meyendorf, Feofil; Mishchenko, Pavel;

Mylov, Sergei; Orlov, N. A.; Rennenkampf, Pavel von; Sakharov, Victor; Sakharov, Vladimir; Samsonov, Aleksandr; Selivanov, Andrei; Skugarevskii, Arkadii; Smirnov, Konstantin; Stakelberg, Konstantin; Stoessel, Anatolii; Topornin, Dmitrii; Tretyakov, Nikolai; Tserpitskii, Konstantin; Volkov, Vladimir; Zarubaiev, Nikolai; Zasulich, Mikhail; Zhilinskii, Yakov
Army units, Imperial Japanese. *See* Manchurian Army, Japanese; Army, Japanese Fifth; Army, Japanese First; Army, Japanese Fourth; Army, Japanese Second; Army, Japanese Third; Division, Imperial Guards; Division, Japanese Army 1st; Division, Japanese Army 2nd; Division, Japanese Army 3rd; Division, Japanese Army 4th; Division, Japanese Army 5th; Division, Japanese Army 6th; Division, Japanese Army 7th; Division, Japanese Army 8th; Division, Japanese Army 9th; Division, Japanese Army 10th; Division, Japanese Army 11th; Division, Japanese Army 12th; Division, Japanese Army 13th; Division, Japanese Army 14th; Division, Japanese Army 15th; Division, Japanese Army 16th; Kwantung Army
Army units, Imperial Russian. *See* Manchurian Army, Russian; Manchurian Army, First: Manchurian Army, Second; Manchurian Army, Third; Eighth European Army; Corps, Fifth Siberian Army; Corps, First European Army; Corps, First European Army; Corps, First Rifle Army; Corps, First Siberian Army; Corps, Fourth European Army; Corps, Fourth Siberian Army; Corps, Nineteenth European Army; Corps, Second Rifle Army; Corps, Second Siberian Army; Corps, Seventeenth European Army; Corps, Seventh Siberian Army; Corps, Sixteenth European Army; Corps, Sixth Siberian Army; Corps, Tenth Siberian Army; Corps, Third Siberian Army; Cossacks
Army, Imperial Japanese, 4, 7, 10, 14, 28, 31, 35, 38, 39, 40, **41–43**, 45, 46, 47, 48, 56, 67, 79, 80–81, 103, 104, 105, 106, 107, 108, 115, 117, 122, 125, 126, 137, 139, 140, 141, 143, 145, 149, 150, 152, 156, 160, 170, 175, 180–181, 182, 186, 192, 196, 197, 201, 210, 215, 220, 222, 225, 226, 227, 228, 232, 234, 241, 247, 248, 263, 265, 268, 269–270, 272, 273, 276, 288, 295, 299, 301–302, 308, 311, 319, 339–340, 336, 365, 366, 370, 372, 374, 375, 390, 401, 402, 416, 426, 428–429, 443–444
Army, Imperial Russian, 11, 12, 13, 33, 35, **43–45**, 48, 55, 62, 67, 68, 71, 76, 77, 78–79, 81, 92, 93, 94, 95, 99, 100, 108, 121, 128, 130–131, 132, 135, 137, 139, 150, 156, 162, 165, 173, 176, 180–181, 184, 188, 190, 197, 210, 212, 215, 216, 220, 221, 225, 228–229, 232, 234–235, 240, 248, 250, 257, 285, 300, 302, 308, 312, 315, 319, 339, 341, 356, 358, 359,

388, 392, 408, 416–417, 422, 424, 435, 436, 438, 443, 444, 445, 463
Army, Japanese Fifth, 42, **45**, 47, 48, 106, 115, 180–181, 220, 245, 341, 401, 424
Army, Japanese First, 11, 12, 38, 42, **46**, 84, 95, 103, 106, 141–142, 148, 160, 175, 176, 182, 197, 201, 205–207, 212, 220, 240, 245, 263, 266, 268, 273, 282, 312–313, 315, 348–350, 422–423, 426, 436
Army, Japanese Fourth, 35, 42, **46**, 47, 104–105, 106, 139, 151, 182, 202, 205–207, 220, 245, 247, 268, 270, 348, 402
Army, Japanese Second, 32, 42, **46–47**, 88, 98, 103, 104, 105, 139, 148, 151, 152, 182, 202, 205–207, 220, 242, 245, 250, 269–270, 272–273, 274, 276, 285, 294, 295, 342, 348, 350, 366, 372, 373, 402, 423, 429
Army, Japanese Third, 12, 14, 42, **47–48**, 56, 58, 98, 103, 105, 106, 126, 131, 143, 202, 207, 220, 244–246, 248, 265–266, 270, 273, 278, 295–296, 299, 340, 390, 400, 411, 414, 432
Arthur, William C., 290
artillery, 21, 40, 41–42, 43–45, **48–50**, 52, 56, 64, 67–68, 72, 82, 83, 91, 114, 115, 128, 146, 150, 158, 162, 182, 207, 216, 222, 232, 251, 258, 273, 294, 296, 312, 326, 347, 366–367, 372–373, 386, 400, 401, 422–423
artillery, Japan, 40, 41–42, 48, 146, 182, 251, 273, 347, 372, 373, 400, 401
artillery, Russia, 43–45, 50, 52, 67–68, 72, 82, 114, 115, 162, 207, 232, 258, 296, 312, 326, 422–423
Asada, Nobuhiro, 103
Asahi, **50**, 118, 142, 146, 231, 241, 269, 280, 393, 425, 465, 466, 469
Asama, **51**, 84–85, 97, 119, 149, 166, 379, 393, 465, 466, 469
Ashmead-Bartlett, Ellis, 413
Askold, **51**, 97, 278–279, 317, 421, 433, 438, 467
Aurora, **52–53**, 113, 196, 271, 468, 470
Australia, 79, 148, 214
Austro-Hungary, 19, **53–54**, 65, 129–130, 134, 201, 260, 285, 288–289, 332, 365, 369, 397–398
Avacha Bay, 277
Avelan, Fedor, **54**, 72, 113, 326, 330
Azuma, 27, **54–55**, 119, 125, 168, 193, 393, 465, 466, 469

Baikal Lake, 43, **55**, 67, 200, 232, 384
Balfour, Arthur, **55–56**, 59, 109, 133
Balkan Wars, 61, 121, 129
Balkans, 38, 53, 130, 332, 398
Balloons, 48, **56**, 138, 250, 311
Baltic Fleet, 14, 15, 26, 27, 29, 30, 34, 52, **57–58**, 58–60, 69, 72, 74 ,76, 107, 109, 113, 114, 115, 118, 127, 131–132, 154, 155, 166, 167, 184, 185, 194, 195–196, 209, 217, 244, 252, 257, 258, 271, 272, 274, 277–279, 279, 279, 280, 295, 298, 300, 317, 324, 326, 346, 355, 358–359, 362, 364, 394, 411, 416, 431–433, 437
Baltic Fleet, the voyage of the, 15, 26, 27, 34, 52, 57, **58–60**, 100, 107, 109, 113, 115, 121, 123, 127, 130, 131, 154, 155, 167, 184, 185, 252, 258, 271, 272, 274, 279, 326, 346, 355, 362, 364, 391, 411, 413, 437

barbed wire, 250, 386
Baring, Maurice, 17, **61**, 413
Barry, Thomas Henri, **61–62**, 236
Battle of Chemulpo (1904). *See* Chemulpo, Battle of
Battle of Hsimucheng (1904). *See* Hsimucheng, Battle of
Battle of Liaoyang (1904). *See* Liaoyang, Battle of
Battle of Mukden (1905). *See* Mukden, Battle of
Battle of Nanshan (1904). *See* Nanshan, Battle of
Battle of Sandepu (1905). *See* Sandepu, Battle of
Battle of Sha-Ho (1904). *See* Sha-ho, Battle of
Battle of Tannenberg (1914). *See* Tannenberg, Battle of
Battle of Tashihchiao (1904). *See* Tashihchiao, Battle of
Battle of Telissu (1904). *See* Telissu, Battle of
Battle of the Korean Straits (1904). *See* Korean Straits, Battle of the
Battle of the Sea of Japan (1905). *See* Tsushima, Battle of
Battle of the Yalu (1904). *See* Yalu, Battle of the
Battle of the Yellow Sea (1904). *See* Yellow Sea, Battle of the
Battle of Tsushima (1905). *See* Tsushima, Battle of
Battle of Ulsan (1904). *See* Korean Straits, Battle of the
Battle of Wafangkou (1904). *See* Telissu, Battle of
battlecruisers, **62–63**, 97, 117, 325, 388
battleships, 15, 21, 34, 54, 57, 59, 62, **64–66**, 74, 91, 97–98, 101, 110–111, 118, 134, 164–165, 171, 176, 213, 216, 231, 233, 238–239, 255–256, 257–258, 264, 277–279, 280, 281, 291, 293, 299, 305, 306, 316, 325, 327, 331, 347, 362, 391–394, 404 417, 430, 431–433
battleships, Japanese. *See Asahi*; *Fuji*; *Fuso*; *Hatsuse*; *Mikasa*; *Shikishima*; *Yashima*
battleships, Russian. *See Admiral Seniavin*; *Admiral Ushakov*; *Borodino*; *General Admiral Graf Apraksin*; *Imperator Aleksandr III*; *Imperator Nikolai I*; *Kniaz Potemkin Tavricheskii; Kniaz Suvorov*; *Navarin*; *Orel*; *Osliabia*; *Peresviet*; *Petropavlovsk*; *Pobieda*; *Poltava*; *Retvizan*; *Sevastopol*; *Sissoi Velikii*; *Tsessarevich*
Bayan, **66**, 97, 165, 278, 409, 467
Baykal, Lake. *See* Baikal, Lake
bayonets, 41, **67**, 158–160, 243, 319
Bedovii, 327, 394
Beijing, 4, **67**, 77–78, 83, 133, 149, 188, 199, 210, 214, 219, 244, 282, 334–335, 377
Beijing, Treaty of, (1905). *See* Peking, Treaty of
Belgium, 243, 260, 345
Belyii, Vasilii, **67–68**, 296, 298
Bengal, 157–158
Bezobrazov Circle, 7, 25, 32, **68**, 70, 198, 201, 286, 420
Bezobrazov, Aleksandr, 7, 25, **68–69**, 70–71
Bezobrazov, Petr, **69**, 152, 356, 395–396, 412
Bilderling, Aleksandr, **71–72**, 77, 94, 206, 221, 245, 349
Binhi satsugai jiken. *See* Min, assassination of Queen
Birilev, Aleksei, **72–73**, 279

Bismarck, Otto von, 53, 129, 387, 418
Björkö, Treaty of, **73**, 130, 201, 332, 419
Black Dragon Society. *See* Kokuryûkai
Black Sea Fleet, 16, 32, 69, **73–74**, 77, 118, 121, 134, 135, 185, 217, 257–258, 304–305, 318, 319, 365, 381, 397, 410
blockade of Port Arthur. *See* Port Arthur, naval blockade of
blockships, 14, 293–294
Bloody Sunday, 16, **74–75**, 126, 211, 299, 318, 321, 342, 358, 387
Bobr, 209, 250, 468
Boer War, **75–76**, 128, 133, 137, 138, 140, 236, 366, 386
Bogatyr, **76**, 152, 270, 278, 412, 478
Bogdanov, Aleksei, **76**
Bolshevik Revolution (1917), 19, 51, 52, 100, 132, 133, 135, 165, 168, 203, 261, 287, 306, 318, 320, 323, 332, 334, 356, 387, 407
Bolsheviks, 101, 203, 269, 316, 318
Bonin Islands, 3
Borodino, **76–77**, 124, 154, 185, 224, 272, 392–393, 470
Boshin War, 141, 153, 160, 174, 179, 181, 186, 197, 241, 263, 266, 268, 270, 273, 276, 337, 357, 372, 374, 425, 427
Bosnia and Herzegovina, 53, 398
Bosphorus, 38, 121, 134, 397
Bot'yanov, Mikhail, **77**, 221
Boxer Uprising, 6, 9, 32, 70, **77–78**, 87, 121, 162, 191, 199, 204, 210, 214, 220, 240, 250, 315, 322, 352, 360, 390, 403, 405, 429
Boyarin, **78**, 113, 278, 467
Brazil 136, 226, 259
Brest-Litovsk, Treaty of, 148
Briner, Yulii, 70
Britain. *See* Great Britain
British Royal Navy. *See* Royal Navy, British
Brusilov, Aleksei, **78–79**, 165
Bulgaria, 180, 397–398
Bülow, Bernhard von, 73, 242
Burmese Wars, 140
Burnett, Charles, **79**, 236
Bushido, **79–80**, 159, 265, 267, 308, 310, 434
Bushnell, David, 238

Cam Ranh Bay, 60, 258, 272
Cambodia, 122
camouflage, 49
casualties, 14, 15, 47, 75, **80–81**, 85, 88, 136, 151, 172, 207, 209, 211, 224, 247, 251, 294–298, 305, 342, 349, 350, 366, 372, 394, 400, 423
Catherine the Great, Empress, 73, 256
cavalry, 31, 41–42, 43–44, 45, 61, 75, 78–79, **81–83**, 95–97, 138, 151, 158, 175, 181, 206, 215, 221–222, 232, 240, 245, 282, 315, 319, 341, 349–350, 367, 373, 422, 438
Caviglia, Enrico, 17, **83**, 236
censorship, 414
Central Asia, 43, 126, 162, 180, 329, 403
Chamberlain, Joseph, 56, 75
Changshan Islands, 200
Chemulpo, 11, 46, 51, **83–84**, 90, 104, 106, 137, 156, 173, 182, 192, 194, 201, 278, 328, 336, 379, 406, 407, 467, 468
Chemulpo, Battle of, 12, 51, 63, **84**, 90, 192, 194, 293, 327, 328, 368, 279, 406, 407
Chihli Gulf, 417

China, 1, 3, 4–6, 8–9, 21–23, 36, 37, 38, 71, 77, **86–88**, 89, 99, 122–123, 124, 129, 133, 141, 143, 144–145, 149, 154, 163, 163, 168, 170–172, 183, 188, 189, 190–191, 193, 199, 200, 201, 203–204, 204–205, 209, 218–219, 222, 223, 243–244, 259, 265, 271–272, 277, 281, 290–292, 303, 311, 322, 325, 329, 334, 352–353, 353–355, 357, 363, 369370, 375, 375–376, 395, 399, 403, 405, 418, 420, 424, 426, 429, 431, 435, 441, 447, 452, 455, 458
Chinchou, **88**, 89, 183, 250–251
Chinese Eastern Railway, 70, 87, **89**, 98, 141, 183, 219, 291, 303, 330, 334, 357, 385, 403, 453
Chinese Revolution (1911), 219, 363
Chinhsien. *See* Chinchou
Chita, 6, 308, 315, 384–385
Chitose, **89**, 118, 149, 175, 267, 339, 465, 466, 469
Chiyoda, 85, **90**, 120, 153, 466, 470
Chuliencheng, 423
Churchill, Winston, 117–118, 239, 292
Cochin China, 122
Combined Fleet, Japanese. *See* Fleet, Japanese Combined
communications, 49, **90–91**, 144, 310, 313, 384, 454, 455
Conquest of Sakhalin. *See* Sakhalin, conquest of
conscription, 42, 140, 426
Constanza, 185, 305
Corps, Eighth European Army, 45, **92**
Corps, Fifth Siberian Army, **92**, 100, 206
Corps, First European Army, 45, **92**, 221, 349
Corps, First Rifle Army, **92**
Corps, First Siberian Army, 44, **92**, 131, 206, 221, 341, 342, 358, 372, 373
Corps, Fourth European Army, 45, **93**
Corps, Fourth Siberian Army, 93, 206, 349, 372, 435–436
Corps, Nineteenth European Army, **93**
Corps, Second Rifle Army, **94**
Corps, Second Siberian Army, **94**, 151, 206, 436
Corps, Seventeenth European Army, 45, 72, **94**, 206, 452
Corps, Seventh Siberian Army, **94**, 315
Corps, Sixteenth European Army, 45, **94**
Corps, Sixth Siberian Army, **95**, 221, 349–350
Corps, Tenth European Army, 45
Corps, Tenth Siberian Army, 207
Corps, Third Siberian Army, 44, **95**, 165, 176, 182, 206–207, 221, 360, 422
Cossacks, 1, 43–44, 81, **95–96**, 305, 312, 341
Crane, 109
Crete, 121, 280, 397
Crimean War, 2, 43, 53, 57, 73, 77, 96, 117, 122, 133, 135, 232, 238, 257, 277, 329, 386
cruisers, 31, 51, 52, 59, 62, 65, 69, 78, 84–85, **97–98**, 102, 107, 113, 118, 119, 120, 136, 149, 152, 165, 166, 176, 193–194, 231, 233, 238, 241, 252, 254–255, 256, 257–258, 267, 269, 271, 278–279, 293, 299, 317, 320, 324, 329, 339, 365, 379, 393–394, 395, 406, 412–413, 425, 429, 432–433, 437–438, 470
cruisers, Japanese. *See Akashi*; *Akitsushima*; *Asama*; *Azuma*;

Chitose; *Chiyoda*; *Hashidate*; *Itsukushima*; *Iwate*; *Izumi*; *Izumo*; *Kasagi*; *Kasuga*; *Matsushima*; *Naniwa*; *Niitaka*; *Nisshin*; *Otowa*; *Sai Yen*; *Suma*; *Takachiho*; *Takasago*; *Tokiwa*; *Yakumo*; *Yoshino*
cruisers, Russian. *See Admiral Nakhimov*; *Askold*; *Aurora*; *Bayan*; *Bogatyr*; *Boyarin*; *Diana*; *Dmitrii Donskoi*; *Gromoboi*; *Izumrud*; *Novik*; *Oleg*; *Pallada*; *Rossia*; *Rurik*; *Svietlana*; *Variag*; *Vladimir Monomakh*; *Zhemchug*
Cuba, 62, 321, 405
Curzon, Lord George Nathaniel, 157

Dagushan. *See* Takushan, 46, 106, 202, 461
Dai Hon'ei. *See* Imperial General Headquarters
Dairen. *See* Dalny
Dalny, 12, 47, 78, 87, 90, **98–99**, 101, 104, 105, 141, 199, 200, 202, 204–205, 213, 249, 250–251, 265, 277, 290–292, 295, 300, 330, 336, 357, 370, 395, 411–412
Dandong. *See* Antung
Dane, Louis, 27
Danilov, Vladimir, **99**
Dardanelles, 38, 73, 117, 121, 397–398
De Witte, Konstantin, 94
Delcassé, Théophile, 36, **99–100**, 243
Delisi. *See* Telissu
Denikin, Anton, **100**
Denmark, 78, 167, 259
destroyers, 12, 34, 64, 98, **101–102**, 118, 119, 233, 238–239, 255–256, 257–258, 278–279, 283, 292–293, 299, 320, 339, 347, 389, 392, 394, 417, 432–433, 467
Dewa, Shigeto, **102**, 118, 119, 339, 465, 469
Diana, **102–103**, 209, 278, 346, 433, 467
Diet (Finnish legislative assembly), 116
Diet (Japanese parliament), 144, 170, 179, 230, 362
Diplomacy, Japanese. *See* Hayashi, Tadasu; Kaneko, Kentarô; Komura, Jutarô; Kurino, Shinichirô; Takahashi, Korekiyo: Takahira, Kogorô; Suematsu, Kenchô
diplomacy, Russian. *See* Bezobrazov Circle; Björkö, Treaty of; Lamsdorf, Vladimir; Rosen, Roman; Weber, Karl; Witte, Sergei
diplomacy, Western. *See* Balfour, Arthur; Bülow, Bernhard von; Churchill, Winston; Delcassé, Théophile; Dmowski, Roman; Edward VII, King; Filipovicz, Tytus; Hay, John; Meyer, George von Lengerke; Open Door Policy; Pilsudski, Josef; Roosevelt, Theodore; Root, Elihu; Salisbury, Lord; Splendid Isolation; Taft, William; Three Power Intervention; William II, Emperor
diplomatic agreements and conferences. *See* Algeciras Conference (1906); Anglo–French Entente (1904); Anglo–Japanese Alliance (1902); Anglo–Japanese Treaty (1902); Anglo–Russian Entente (1907); Björkö, Treaty of (1905); Franco–Japanese Agreement (1907); Hague Peace Conference (1899); Hague Peace Conference (1907); Kanghwa

Treaty (1876); Komura–Weber Agreement (1896); Li–Lobanov Treaty (1896); Nishi–Rosen Agreement (1898); Paris Conference (1904); Peking Treaty (1905); Portsmouth, Peace Conference (1905); Portsmouth, Treaty of (1905); Protectorate Agreement (1905); Russo–Japanese Agreements, Postwar (1907, 1910, 1912, 1916); Russo–Japanese Treaties, Prewar (1855, 1858, 1875); Russo–Korean Treaty (1884); Shimonoseki Treaty (1895); Takahira–Root Agreement (1908); Teheran Conference (1943); Tianjin Convention (1885); Yamagata–Lobanov Agreement (1896)
Division, Imperial Guards, 38, 41, 46, 49, 76, 103, 141, 143, 147, 181, 207, 266, 422
Division, Japanese Army, 1st, 47, 49, **103**, 182, 223, 251, 273, 297, 402
Division, Japanese Army, 2nd, 38, 46, 49, **103**, 263
Division, Japanese Army, 3rd, 47, 49, 98, **104**, 179, 251, 274, 366, 374
Division, Japanese Army, 4th, 47, 49, **104**, 250–251, 269, 349, 373, 391
Division, Japanese Army, 5th, 46, 47, 49, **104**, 120, 147, 182, 268, 270, 342, 350, 372, 374, 391, 402
Division, Japanese Army, 6th, 46–47, 49, **105**, 197, 226, 270
Division, Japanese Army, 7th, 49, **105**, 273, 298
Division, Japanese Army, 8th, 47, 49, **105**, 342, 372
Division, Japanese Army, 9th, 47, 49, **105**, 273, 296–298
Division, Japanese Army, 10th, 35, 46, 49, **106**, 181, 202, 240
Division, Japanese Army, 11th, 46, 47, 49, **106**, 296–297, 341, 390
Division, Japanese Army, 12th, 46, 49, **106**, 160, 312, 423
Division, Japanese Army, 13th, 31, 42, **107**, 339
Division, Japanese Army, 14th, 42, **107**, 390
Division, Japanese Army, 15th, 42, **107**
Division, Japanese Army, 16th, 42, **107**
Dmitrii Donskoi, 69, **107–108**, 468, 470
Dmowski, Roman, **108**, 285, 288–289, 439
Dogger Bank Incident, 59, **109–110**, 184, 327
Dogger Bank, 59, **109**, 184, 327
Dongbei. *See* Manchuria
Dreadnought, 21, 62, 66, **110–111**, 117, 130, 306, 325
Dufferin, Lord, 27
Duma, 16, 19–20, 70, **111–112**, 261, 269, 289, 318, 332, 358
Duy Tan Hoi, 284

Edward VII, King, 36, 110, 134, 188, 306
Eighth European Army Corps. *See* Corps, Eighth European Army
Eighth Siberian Army Corps. *See* Corps, Eighth Siberian Army
Eikô. *See* Niuchuang
Elba, 84–86
Emmanuel II, King Victor (Vittorio), 83
Emperor Meiji. *See* Meiji, Emperor
Emperor Nicholas II. *See* Nicholas II, Tsar

Emperor William II. *See* William II, Emperor
Enisei, 78, **112–113**, 238, 346, 433, 467
Enkvist, Oskar, 52, 58, **113**, 271, 394, 437
Entente Cordiale. *See* Anglo–French Entente
Eritrea, 83
Essen, Nikolai, **113–114**, 345, 347, 410
Expenditure. *See* War Expenditure
Ezo. *See* Hokkaido

Felkerzam, Dmitrii, 34, 58, 59–61, **115**, 121, 252, 258, 326, 355, 365, 397, 437, 470
Fenghwangcheng, 423
Fengtian. *See* Mukden
Feodosiia, 305
Fifth Japanese Army. *See* Army, Japanese Fifth
Fifth Siberian Army Corps. *See* Corps, Fifth Siberian Army
Filipovicz, Tytus, 284, 288
finance. *See* war expenditure
Finland, 19, 44, 73, 77, **115–116**, 195, 203, 222, 286–287, 357, 419, 439
First European Army Corps. *See* Corps, First European Army
First Fleet, Japanese. *See* Fleet, Japanese First
First Japanese Army. *See* Army, Japanese First
First Manchurian Army. *See* Manchurian, First Army
First Siberian Army Corps. *See* Corps, First Siberian Army
First Sino–Japanese War. *See* Sino–Japanese War, the First
Fisher, John, 62, 65, 111, **117–118**, 239, 324–325, 361, 382
Fleet, Baltic. *See* Baltic Fleet
Fleet, Black Sea. *See* Black Sea Fleet
Fleet, Japanese Combined, 11, 14–15, 39, 60–61, 90, **118**, 120, 164, 231, 256, 292–293, 295, 343, 364, 377–378, 391, 417, 428–429, 432–434
Fleet, Japanese First, 30, 50, 89, 116, **118–119**, 124–125, 142, 153, 174–178, 231, 241, 252, 256, 264, 269, 275, 280, 351–352, 370, 377, 388, 391, 425, 429, 430, 434, 435, 465, 469
Fleet, Japanese Fourth, 102, **119**, 120, 122, 379
Fleet, Japanese Second, 8, 28, 51, 54, 84, 98, 102, 118, **119**, 125, 153, 165, 166, 173, 174, 178, 193, 241, 249, 256, 343–344, 346, 352, 364, 368, 379, 406, 412, 421, 428, 465, 469
Fleet, Japanese Third, 29, 90, 119, **120**, 142, 149, 164, 166, 177, 224, 256, 337, 363, 370, 375, 379, 425, 466, 470
Fleet, Pacific. *See* Pacific Fleet
Fleet, Russian Volunteer, **120–121**, 319–320, 362, 397, 413
Fleischer, Nikolai, 92
Fok, Aleksandr, **121**, 132, 250–251, 356
Formosa. *See* Taiwan
Formosa. *See* Taiwan, 3, 4, 86, 266
Fort Chikuan, 189, 297–298
Fort Erhlung, 297–298
Fort Sungshu, 297–298
Fourth European Army Corps. *See* Corps, Fourth European Army
Fourth Fleet, Japanese. *See* Fleet, Japanese Fourth
Fourth Japanese Army. *See* Army, Japanese Fourth

Fourth Siberian Army Corps. *See* Corps, Fourth Siberian Army
France, 4, 18, 19, 22, 31, 35–37, 42, 53–54, 59–62, 65–67, 71, 73, 87, 100, 101, **122–124**, 129–130, 133–135, 141–142, 150, 152, 164, 168, 175, 197, 201, 209, 214–215, 223–224, 242, 259, 270–271, 276, 284, 290, 314, 320, 322, 324, 333, 337, 345, 353, 355, 357, 375, 376–377, 381, 386, 389, 399, 402, 406, 415, 418–421, 439, 449
Franco–Japanese Agreement (1907), **124**
Franco–Prussian War (1870–71), 42, 96, 235, 276, 386, 409
Fuchou River, 373
Fuji, 76, 118, **124–125**, 142, 224, 351, 393, 430, 465–466, 469
Fujii, Koichi, **125**
Fukui Maru, 146, 294, 379
Fukuoka, 28, 106, 174, 197, 269–270, 307, 338, 361, 365, 466
Fukushima, Yasumasa, 102, **125–126**
Fushimi, Sadanaru, 103, **126**, 175, 339
Fuso, 120, 146, 340, 466, 467

Galicia, 79, 165
Gandhi, Mohandas, 157
Gapon, Georgii, 74–75, **126–127**, 203, 439
Gaponov, Leontii, 93
General admiral Graf Apraksin, **127**, 280, 394, 470
Geneva Convention, 138, 296, 308, 309
Genro, **127–128**
Georgii Pobedonosets, 305
Gerard, Montague Gilbert, **128**, 236
Germany, 4, 17–19, 29, 36, 38, 52–54, 59, 62, 65, 71, 73, 75–76, 83, 100, 117, 122, 123–125, **128–130**, 134, 152, 171, 177, 179, 201–203, 214, 216, 227, 236, 242–243, 259, 261, 264, 266–267, 271, 285, 289–290, 314, 322, 324, 329, 332, 337, 344–345, 353, 355, 358, 364, 375–377, 381, 387, 397, 402, 404–405, 418–421, 428–429
Gerngross, Aleksandr, 93, **130–131**, 246, 374
Gershelman, Sergei, 93, **131**
Ginzburg, Moisei, **131–132**
Glebov, Nikolai, 94
Golikov, Evgenii, 304
Gorbatovskii, Vladimir, **132–133**, 296
government, Japanese. *See* Genro; Imperial Council; Itô, Hirobumi; Komura, Jutarô; Kubota, Yuzuru; Kuroda, Kiyotaka; Matsukata, Masayoshi; Meiji, Emperor; Okuma, Shigenobu; Ôyama, Iwao; Sone, Arasuke; Yamagata, Aritomo; Yamamoto, Gonnohyôe
government, Russian. *See* Aleksandr I, Tsar; Aleksandr II, Tsar; Aleksandr III, Tsar; Avelan, Fedor; Izvolskii, Aleksandr; Kuropatkin, Aleksei; Lamsdorf, Vladimir; Miliutin, Dmitrii; Plehve, Viacheslav; Romanov, Sergei; Sakharov, Victor; Witte, Sergei
Great Britain, 6, 17–18, 21, 27–28, 30, 35–38, 40, 50–51, 56, 59, 61–62, 65, 78, 86–87, 90, 100, 109, 111, 122–124, 129–130, **133–134**, 140, 143–144, 149, 153, 156–158, 160–162, 164–166, 170–172, 178, 188, 192, 201–202, 215–216, 225, 231, 236, 242, 249, 254–256, 259, 271, 281, 309, 314, 322, 324, 333,

343–344, 351, 361–362, 368, 370, 375–378, 380, 381, 386, 397, 399, 405, 407, 418–419, 421, 427, 429–430, 435, 439
Greece, 398
Grekov, Vladimir, 82
Grigorovich, Ivan, **134–135**
Grippenberg, Oskar, **135**, 221, 342
Griscom, Lloyd, **135–136**, 212, 302
Gromoboi, 69, 97, **136**, 147, 151–152, 194, 278, 395, 396, 412, 468
Guandong Peninsula. *See* Kwantung Peninsula
gunboats. *See g*unvessels
Gunshin, **136–137**, 415
gunships. *See* gunvessels
gunvessels, **136**, 137, 212, 466–468
Guomindang, 223, 363
Gurko, Vasilii, **137–138**
Gushan. *See* Takushan

Habibullah, Amir, 27
Hagi Rebellion, 266
Hague Peace Conference (1899), **138**
Hague Peace Conference (1907), **138–139**
Haicheng, 46, 47, **139**, 151, 372
Haimun, 91, 414
Hakuai Maru, 227, 229
Haldane, James, 17, **139–140**, 236
Hamadera, 307
Hamilton, Ian, 17, **140**, 236, 322
Hannekin, Constantin von, 290
Haraguchi, Kanezane, 107, 339
Harbin, 33, 76, 98, **140–141**, 145, 198, 205, 223, 377
Harding, Edward, 110, 367
Hasegawa, Yoshimichi, 103, **141–142**, 207, 266
Hashidate, 120, **142**, 224, 466, 470
Hatsuse, 34, 111, 118, **142–143**, 165, 176, 178, 213, 231, 239, 252, 264, 430–431, 465–466
Hawaii, 20, 369, 405–406
Hay, John, **143**, 271, 405
Hayashi, Senjûrô, **143–144**
Hayashi, Tadasu, **144**, 285
Heijô. *See* Pyongyang
Heikoutai, 342
Heilungkiang, 76, 141, **144–145**, 218, 457
Heiminsha, 16, **145**, 172, 183, 338, 357, 401
Hibiya Riots, 16, 18, **145–146**, 172, 303
Hikohachi, Yamada, 119–120
Himeji, 106, 307
Hindenburg, Paul von, 371, 377
Hirohito, Emperor, 149, 378
Hirose, Takeo, 137, **146–147**, 294, 366
Hiroshima, 104, **147**, 178, 230, 353
Hitachi Maru, **147–148**, 395, 396
Hoad, John, **148**, 236
Hoffmann, Carl, 17, **148**, 236, 371
Hohenzollern, Karl Anton von, 175
Hokkaido, 2, 105, 144, 168, 338
Holland, 253, 345, 360–361
Hong Kong, 86–87, 466
Honjô, Shigeru, **149**
Hosoya, Sukeuji, 120, **149**, 466
hospital ships, 227, 229, 85
Hotchkiss, machine gun, 82, **150**, 159, 215, 225
Hôten Kaisen. *See* Mukden, Battle of
Hôten. *See* Mukden
howitzer guns, 34, 66, **150–151**, 189, 281–282, 289, 316
Hsimucheng, Battle of, 13, 46, 63, 105–106, **151**, 240, 377
Hun River, 247, 265, 342

Ibuki, 98
Idzumi. *See* Izumi

Iessen, Karl, **151–152**, 173, 193–194, 277, 356, 412–413, 468
Iguchi, Shôgo, **152**, 415
Iida, Shunsuke, 35, 103
Ijichi, Hikojirô, **152–153**
Ijûin, Gorô, **153**
Ikoma, 98
immigration laws, **154**
Imperator Aleksandr III, 31, **154**, 392–393, 470
Imperator Nikolai I, 33, 95, 115, **154–155**, 280, 328, 394, 442–443, 470
Imperial Council, 7, 9, **155**
Imperial General Headquarters, 98, 120, 137, 147, 152, **156**, 230, 371, 380, 415, 429
Imperial Japanese Army officers. *See* Army officers, Imperial Japanese
Imperial Japanese Army. *See* Army, Imperial Japanese
Imperial Japanese Navy officers. *See* Navy officers, Imperial Japanese
Imperial Japanese Navy. *See* Navy, Imperial Japanese
Imperial Russian Army officers. *See* Army officers, Imperial Russian
Imperial Russian Army. *See* Army, Imperial Russian
Imperial Russian Navy officers. *See* Navy officers, Russian Japanese
Imperial Russian Navy. *See* Navy, Imperial Russian
Inazuma, 434, 465, 469
Inchon. *See* Chemulpo
Independent Cruiser Squadron. *See* Vladivostok Independent Cruiser Squadron
India, 24, 27–28, 36, 126, 128, 133, **156–158**, 202, 230, 262, 376
infantry, 33, 35, 44, 92–95, 99, 121, 148, **158–160**, 182, 196, 213, 248, 266, 268, 319
Inoue, Hikaru, 106, **160**, 423
Inoue, Kaoru, 128, **160**
Inoue, Yoshika, **160–161**, 174
intelligence, military. *See* military intelligence
Iran, 24, 37, 128, 136, **161–162**, 283
Irkutsk, 55, 128, 308, 384
Irman, Vladimir, **162–162**
Italy, 17, 53, 65, 83, 100, 125, 129, 134, 136, 153, 176–177, 197, 231, 236, 256, 259, 264, 271, 369, 428
Itô, Hirobumi, 128, 156, 160, **163**, 167, 174, 186, 192, 204, 312, 337, 352, 374, 431
Itô, Sukeyuki, **163–164**
Itsukushima, 120, 142, 149, **164**, 177, 224, 466, 470
Ivanov, Fedor, 34, 72, 95, 113, **164–165**, 176, 315, 326, 330, 436
Ivanov, Nikolai, 33, 95, **165**
Iwate, 119, **165–166**, 193, 241, 352, 369–370, 393, 425, 434, 465–466, 469
Izumi, 120, 151, **166**, 249, 396, 466, 470
Izumo, 54, 119, 165, **166–167**, 174, 193, 393, 421, 465–466, 469
Izumrud, 59, **167**, 271, 437, 470
Izvolskii, Aleksandr, 25, **167–168**, 168

Jackson, Thomas, **168**, 236, 325
James, Lionel, 414
Japan, **168–172** *passim*
Japanese identity, 22
Japanese Imperial Army. *See* Army, Japanese Imperial
Japanese Imperial Navy. *See* Navy, Japanese Imperial
Jerusalem, 418

Jessen, Karl Petrovich. *See* Iessen, Karl Petrovich
Jews, 56, 131, **173**, 183–184, 190, 211, 286, 305, 344–345, 387–388, 415
Jinsen. *See* Chemulpo
Jinsenchû Kaisen. *See* Chemulpo, Battle of
Jurchen, 218

Kabayama, Sukenori, 427
Kaiser Wilhelm II. *See* William II, Emperor
Kamchatka, 2, 263, 277, 329, 335
Kamimura, Hikonojo, 51, 118–119, 166, **173–174**, 193–194, 241, 344, 393, 396–397, 412, 465, 469
Kan'in, Kotohito, 82, **175**, 349
Kanazawa, 106, 307
Kaneko, Kentarô, **174–175**, 302, 310, 338
Kanghwa Treaty, 190
Kantô. *See* Kwantung
Karafuto senryô sakusen. *See* Sakhalin, conquest of
Karafuto. *See* Sakhalin
Kasagi, 102, 118, **175–176**, 465–466, 469
Kashtalinskii, Nikolai, 95, **176**, 423
Kasuga, 97, 110, 118, **176–177**, 264, 393, 435, 466–467, 469
Kataoka, Shichirô, 120, 164, **177**, 339, 466, 470
Katayama, Sen, **178**, 195, 287
Katô, Tomosaburô, **178–179**
Katsura, Tarô, 6, 8, 20, 36, 128, 155–156, 170, **179**, 186, 337, 357, 367
Katsura–Taft Agreement, 20, **179–180**, 367
Kaulbars, Aleksandr, 72, 135, **180**, 221, 245–246, 342
Kawamura, Kageaki, 42, 46, 106, **180–181**, 202, 220, 245
Keijô. *See* Seoul
Keller, Count Fedor, 95, 165, 176, **181–182**, 315, 436
Kensei Hontô, 241
Khabarovsk, 384, 385
Khitan, 218, 243
Kiaochou, 102, 129, 389, 399, 433
Kideshi, Yasutsuna, 104, **182**
Kinoshita, Naoe, 145, **182–183**
Kintei Island, 422–423
Kirin, 88, 144, **183**, 218
Kishinev, Pogrom of, 173, **183–184**, 286, 344
Klado, Nikolai, 109, **184**, 280
Kniaz Potemkin Tavricheskii, 16, 74, **185**, 304–305, 318, 387
Kniaz Suvorov, **185–186**, 304–305, 318, 326, 363, 392–393, 470
Kodama, Gentarô, 152, **186**, 220, 227, 276, 298, 371
Kôdôha faction, 39, 226
Kojong [Li-hi], 5, 70, 163, **186–187**, 190–191, 237, 312, 354
Kôkai Kaisen. *See* Yellow Sea, Battle of
Kokkôdai kaisen. *See* Sandepu, Battle of
Komura, Jutarô, 155, 170, **187–188**, 197, 237, 281, 301–303, 446
Komura–Weber Memorandum (1896), **188**, 237
Kondratenko, Roman, 121, 132, **188–189**, 298
Konoe, Atsumaro, 171, **189**, 367
Korczak, Janusz, **190**
Korea Straits, Battle of, 63, 193, 404, 406
Korea, 1, 3–9, 11, 18, 20, 23, 25, 29, 36–38, 46, 63, 68, 70, 83–84, 86, 88, 91, 96, 106, 119–120, 125,

133, 136, 142, 145, 152–153, 158, 163, 165–168, 170, 172, 174, 180, 183, 186–188, **190–193**, 197, 202, 204–205, 212, 214, 219–220–221, 227, 234, 237, 240–241, 250, 261, 263–264, 275, 278, 293, 300, 302–304, 311–313, 323–324, 328–329, 333–336, 344, 346–347, 352–354, 366, 374–376, 378–379, 394–395, 402–404, 406, 411–412, 416–417, 422, 424–426, 429, 433, 435–436, 441–442, 446, 452–453
Korean Straits. *See* Tsushima Straits
Korean War, 193, 214, 292, 313, 343
Korean–Japanese Convention (1905). *See* Protectorate Agreement
Koreets, 12, 84–85, 90, 137, **194–195**, 328, 407, 468
Korsakovsk, 267, 339
Kosai Maru, 229
Kôtoku, Shûsui, 145, 178, **195**, 338
Kronstadt Rebellion, 57, 195, **196**
Kronstadt, 52, 57–58, 69, 72, 135, 152, **195–196**, 217, 259, 410
Kruger, Paul, 75
Kubota, Yuzuru, 348
Kuhn, Joseph Ernest, **196–197**, 236, 344
Kuril Islands, 2, 3, 168, 249, 323, 335, 338
Kurino, Shinichirô, 9, 10, **197**
Kuroda, Kiyotaka, 128
Kuroki, Takemoto, 42, 46, 141, 182, **197**, 202, 206–207, 220, 245, 282, 348–350, 422–424, 436
Kuropatkin, Aleksei, 7, 13, 32, 83, 116, 135, 151, 176, 180–182, **197–199**, 201, 206–208, 210, 220, 244–247, 276, 330, 339, 342, 348, 349–350, 360, 372–374, 377, 422, 438, 461
Kutnevich, Nikolai, 92
Kwangchow Bay, 87, 123
Kwantung Army, 141, 144, 149, 200, 223, 292, 366, 371
Kwantung Fortified Region, **199**
Kwantung Peninsula, 12, 18, 47, 88, 98, 136, **199**, 200, 204–205, 249–250, 270, 292, 431
Kwantung Territory, 199, **200**, 219, 274, 300
Kyoto, 107, 126, 175, 189, 230, 336, 380

La Perouse Straits, 267, 448
Lake Baikal. *See* Baikal, Lake
Lamsdorf, Vladimir, 7, 53, 73, **200–201**, 330
landing operations, 11, 83, 85, 103–106, 140, 182, **201–202**, 234, 240, 268, 285, 294–295, 339, 355, 406, 422
Lansdowne, Henry Charles, 36, 59, 109, **202**
Laos, 122
Launits, Mikhail von der, 92
League of Nations, 24, 139, 265, 322
Lena, 412, 468
Lenin, Vladimir, 29, **202–203**, 287, 299, 318, 358, 387–388
Lhasa, 376
Li, Hongzhang, 5–6, 163, **203–204**, 209–210, 290–291, 352–353, 355, 384, 403, 427
Liaoning, 38, 88, 144, **204**, 205, 218, 243, 265, 352, 377
Liaotung Peninsula, 4, 12–13, 70, 86–88, 98–99, 199, **204–205**, 206, 219, 249, 263, 265, 285, 290, 300, 336, 353, 355, 357, 375, 431, 448, 450
Liaoyang, 12–13, 46–48, 63, 72, 81, 92–95, 99–100, 103–106, 131, 137, 139, 142, 151, 165, 176,

182, 197, 200, **205**, 206–208, 220–221, 240, 243, 263, 268–270, 274, 276, 290, 315, 336, 341, 348–349, 358, 366–367, 372, 386, 423, 436
Liaoyang, Battle of, 13, 46–48, 63, 72, 81, 92–95, 99–100, 103–106, 131, 137, 142, 165, 176, 197, **205–209**, 221, 240, 263, 268–270, 276, 336, 341, 348–349, 358, 366–367, 436
Libya, 83
Lieven, Aleksandr, 102, **209**, 211
Li–Lobanov Treaty, 5, 204, **209–210**, 291, 355, 384, 427
Linievich, Nikolai, 43–44, 198, **210–211**, 220, 245–247, 342
Liven, Aleksandr Aleksandrovich. *See* Lieven, Aleksandr Aleksandrovich
loans, 86, 123, 173, 209, 344 368, 415
Lodz Uprising (1905), 16, **211**, 289, 318
Lodz, 211, 284
London, Jack, 17, **211–212**, 413
Long Hill, 297, 461
Loschinskii, Mikhail, **212–213**
Ludendorff, Erich, 148, 371
Lüshun. *See* Port Arthur
Luta. *See* Dalny

MacArthur, Arthur, 17, **213**, 214, 236, 282
MacArthur, Douglas, **213–214**
MacDonald, Claude, **214–215**
Macedonia, 397–398
machine guns, 34, 77, 82, 150, **215**, 225, 232, 245. *See also* Hotchkiss, machine gun; Maxim, machine gun
Macomb, Montgomery, **216**, 236
Madagascar, 36, 60, 115, 258, 279, 280, 327
Mahan, Alfred Thayer, 30, 138, **216–217**, 254, 405
Makarov, Stepan, 14, 32, 69, 114, 132, 152, 165, 189, **217–218**, 239, 278, 283, 296, 299, 317, 346, 356, 359, 382, 404, 408–410
Malaya, 438
Manboyama. *See* Putilov Hill
Manchukuo, 89, 219, 357
Manchuria, 1, 4, 6–9, 11–14, 17–18, 20–22, 38, 42, 44, 55, 61, 68, 70–72, 76–79, 82–83, 86–89, 92–93, 95–96, 108, 110, 122, 125, 128–129, 133, 139–141, 144–145, 147–149, 158, 160, 163, 167, 170, 173, 180, 183, 189–191, 198–199, 203–205, 210, 212–214, **218–219**, 220–223, 226, 228–229, 234, 236, 240, 242–244, 261–262, 264–265, 267, 272, 274, 276, 281–282, 285, 288–292, 295, 300–304, 315, 330, 333–334, 339, 341, 354–355, 357, 367, 369, 372, 375, 384–385, 392, 399, 405, 411, 414, 416–417, 422, 424, 434, 436, 441, 446–448, 450, 452–456, 468
Manchuria–Korea Exchange, **219–220**, 221
Manchurian Army, First, 31, 45, 117, 198, 210, **220**, 221, 245–246, 342
Manchurian Army, Japanese, 12, **220**
Manchurian Army, Russian, 12, 14, 95, **220–221**
Manchurian Army, Second, 45, 92, 95, 135, 180, **221**, 245, 342, 346
Manchurian Army, Third, 33, 45, 71, 72, 77, 180, **221**, 245, 246, 342, 375
Manila, 52, 113, 213, 260, 271, 394, 438

Mankan Kôkan. *See* Manchuria–Korea Exchange
Mannerheim, Carl, **221–222**
Manshû. *See* Manchuria
March, Peyton Conway, **222**
Marconi wireless system, 91
Maria Fedorovna, 70
Maslov, Ignatii, 93
Matiunin, N. G., 70
Matiushenko, Afanasii, 304–305
Matsui, Iwane, **222–223**
Matsukata Masayoshi, 128, **223**
Matsumoto, Yawara, 124–125, 182, **223–224**
Matsumura, Mohan, 103
Matsunaga, Masatoshi, 207
Matsushima, 120, 142, 153, 164, **224–225**, 340, 406, 466, 470
Matsuyama, 30–31, **225**, 227, 307, 389
Maxim, Hiram, **225**
Maxim, machine gun, 45, 150, 159, 215, **225–226**
Mazaki, Jinzaburô, 39, 144, **226**
McCormick, Frederick, 413
McCully, Newton, **226**, 236
McGee, Anita Newcomb, **227**, 229, 310, 314
Meckel, Klemens Wilhelm Jakob, 42, 186, **227–228**
medical treatment, **228–229**
Meiji, Emperor, 112, 155–156, 163, 169, 170, **230**, 247, 260, 266–267, 297, 314, 345, 380
Mensheviks, 318
Mexico, 122, 259, 283, 323, 388, 404
Meyendorf, Feofil, 92, 349
Meyer, George von Lengerke, **230–231**, 301
Middle East, 23, 38, 126, 418
Mikasa, 30, 118, 152–153, **231**, 393, 440, 465–466, 469
Mikhailovich, Aleksandr, 25, 68, 319, 359
military balance, 10, 18, 129, **232–233**, 245, 306
military intelligence, 28–30, 60, 109, 125, 137, 139, 141, 149, 161, 182, 206–207, **234–235**, 245, 262, 362, 414, 422, 439
military lessons. *See* tactics, military
military morale. *See* morale, military
military observers, 3, 17, 20–21, 49, 66, 82, 110, 158, **235–237**, 252, 268, 298, 314, 325, 367
military units. *See* artillery; cavalry; infantry; military intelligence; Nurse Corps
Miliutin, Dmitrii A., 43
Min, assassination of Queen, 5, 72, 186, 191, **237**, 241, 313
minefields, 113, 165, 213, 218, 250, 432
minelayers. *See* Mines, Naval
mines, naval, **238–240**
Ming Dynasty, 205, 218, 377
mining operations. *See* mines, naval
Minto, Lord Gilbert Elliot, 28, 157
Mishchenko, 82, 96, 151, **240**, 349, 350, 422
Misu, Sôtarô, 118–119, 149, 193, **240–241**, 264, 465, 469
Miura, Gorô, 5, 191, 237, **241**
Moltke, Helmuth, 345
Mongolia, 125, 144, 183, 218, 333–334, 376, 452–453, 456–457, 468
morale, military, 60, 160, 217, 230, 246, 295, 298, 350, 395, 396, 422
Mori, Ôgai, 147, 228, **241–242**
Moroccan Crisis, 19, 54, 100, 123, 130, 201, **242–243**, 322, 419
mortars, 48, 50

Mosin M-1891 rifle, 45, 158, **225**, 243, 319
Motien Pass. *See* Motienling
Motienling, 46, 182, 315
Mukden Incident, 244
Mukden, 8, 11, 13, 14, 17, 32, 46–48, 56, 60, 63, 72, 77, 81, 83, 92–96, 99, 103–106, 115, 131, 141, 150–151, 158, 160, 165, 180–182, 186, 197–198, 204–205, 208, 210, 215, 220–222, **243–244**, 245–247, 265–266, 268, 270, 274, 276, 290, 299–302, 311, 315, 341–342, 348–350, 366–367, 374, 377, 386, 413, 417, 436
Mukden, Battle of, 14, 17, 46–48, 60, 63, 72, 81, 83, 92–95, 99, 103–106, 131, 150, 158, 160, 165, 180–182, 186, 197, 210, 215, 220–222, **244–247**, 266, 268, 270, 276, 299, 301, 311, 315, 341–342, 366–367, 377, 436
Murata Type 22 rifle, 39, **247**, 319
Murata, Tsuneyoshi, 247, 365
Mussolini, Benito, 83
Mutsuhito, Emperor. *See* Meiji, Emperor
Mylov, Sergei, 92

Nagant M-95 revolver, 45, 243, **248**, 319
Nagasaki, 2, 132, 223, 253, 335, 343, 366, 395
Nakamura, Satoru, 195, **248**, 298
Nambu Type 35 rifle, **248–249**, 319, 343
Nanchientszu, 46, 106, 202
Naniwa, 85, 119, 241, **249**, 368, 378, 406, 427, 465–467, 469
Nanjing, 223
Nanshan, 12, 14, 47, 63, 88, 103–104, 121, 126, 199, 234, **249–250**, 250–252, 266, 269–270, 292, 295, 360, 373, 431
Nanshan, Battle of, 12, 47, 63, 88, 103–104, 121, 126, 199, 234, 249, **250–251**, 252, 270, 292, 360, 431
Nanzan no Tatakai. *See* Nanshan, Battle of
Nanzan. *See* Nanshan
Napoleon III, Emperor, 122
Nashiwa, Tokioki, 118, 142, **252**, 465
naval arms race, 21, 36, 64, 133–134, 257, 325
Naval Blockade of Port Arthur. *See* Port Arthur, Naval Blockade of
naval observers. *See* military observers
Navarin, 59, 69, **252–253**, 364, 394, 470
Navarino, Battle of, 257
Navy officers, Imperial Japanese. *See* Akiyama, Saneyuki; Arima, Ryôkitsu; Dewa, Shigeto; Fujii, Koichi; Hirose, Takeo; Hosoya, Sukeuji; Ijichi, Hikojirô; Ijûin, Gorô; Itô, Saneyuki; Kamimura, Hikonojo; Kataoka, Shichirô; Kato, Tomosaburô; Matsumoto, Yawara; Misu, Sôtarô; Nashiwa, Tokioki; Ogura, Byoichirô; Samejima, Kazunori; Satô, Tetsutarô; Shibayama, Yahachi; Shimamura, Hayao; Suzuki, Kantarô; Taketomi, Kunikane; Tôgô, Heihachirô; Tôgô, Masaji; Uryû, Sotokichi; Yamada, Hikohachi; Yamamoto, Gonnohyôe; Yamamoto, Isoroku; Yamashita, Gentrô; Yonai, Mitsumasa
Navy officers, Imperial Russian. *See* Abaza, Aleksei; Alekseev,

Evgenii; Avelan, Fedor; Bezobrazov, Petr; Birilev, Aleksei; Enkvist, Oskar; Essen, Nikolai; Felkerzam, Dmitrii; Golikov, Evgenii; Grigorovich, Ivan; Iessen, Karl; Ivanov, Fedor; Klado, Nikolai; Lieven, Aleksandr; Loschinskii, Mikhail; Makarov, Stepan; Nebogatov, Nikolai; Putiatin, Evfimii; Reuzenstein, Nikolai; Romanov, Aleksandr; Romanov, Aleksei; Rozhdestvenskii, Zinovii; Rudnev, Vsevolod; Schultz, Maximilian; Semenov, Vladimir; Sergeev, A. S.; Skrydlov, Nikolai; Stark, Oskar; Ukhtomskii, Pavel; Viren, Robert; Vitgeft, Vilgelm
Navy, British. *See* Royal Navy, British
Navy, Imperial Japanese, 8, 10, 14, 26, 30, 39, 50–51, 54, 56, 60, 65–66, 80–81, 84, 91, 97–98, 101, 111, 114, 118–120, 125, 127, 137, 146, 153, 155–156, 161, 164–166, 168, 170, 177–178, 193, 201, 224, 229, 231–233, 238–240, 248–249, **253–256**, 267, 272, 279–282, 287, 289, 293–294, 308, 316, 319, 325, 327, 337, 340, 343, 347, 351–353, 360–361, 363–364, 368, 375, 378–379, 381–382, 396, 407, 410, 412, 416, 425, 427–430, 433–434, 445
Navy, Imperial Russian, 10, 15, 21, 35, 51, 54, 57, 62, 65, 69, 72–73, 97, 101, 112–113, 132, 134–135, 156, 176, 184–185, 189, 195, 209, 217, 232, 234, 238–239, 255, **256–258**, 264, 277, 279, 304, 308, 320, 326–327, 333, 346, 358–362, 364, 381–382, 391, 409, 416, 445, 463
Nebogatov, Nikolai, 26–27, 60–61, 127, 155, **258–259**, 280, 327, 393–394, 411, 470
Nehru, Jawaharlal, 24, 157
Nelson, Horatio, 378, 440
Nemirovich-Danchenko, Vasilii, **259**, 413
neutrality, 17, 20, 53, 85, 87, 116, 123, 129, 134, 162, 187, **259–260**, 397, 404
Newchwang. *See* Niuchuang
Nicholas I, Tsar, 2
Nicholas II, Tsar, 4–5, 19, 25, 32–33, 58, 68, 70, 73–74, 111–112, 116, 126, 128, 130, 135, 138–139, 167, 203, 209, 211, 221, 232, 243, 257, 259, **260–262**, 263, 268, 275, 278, 280, 290, 302, 317, 320–321, 326, 328, 330, 360, 373, 384, 389–390, 403, 419–420, 426, 437, 439, 445
Nicholson, William, 236, **262**
Nihonkai Kaisen. *See* Tsushima, Battle of
Nihyakusan Kôchi. *See* 203-Meter Hill
Niitaka, 118, **262–263**, 365, 465, 467, 469
Nijuroku Nenshiki Kenjû. *See* Type 26 revolver
Nikolaevsk, 114, 217, 278, 338, 468
Nikolai II, Tsar. *See* Nicholas II, Tsar
Nishi, Kanjirô, 6, 38, 103, 191, 237, **263**, 323, 427, 461
Nishimura, Sukeyoshi, 103
Nishi–Rosen Agreement, 6, 191, 237, **263–264**, 323, 427
Nisshin, 110, 118, 176, 241, **264**, 393, 428, 467, 469
Nitobe, Inazô, 80, **264–265**
Niuchuang, 112, 234, 240, 243, 260, **265**, 433, 468
Nogi, Maresuke, 12, 42, 47, 56, 186, 202, 207, 220, 245–246**,**

265–267, 273, 295–299, 360, 378, 400, 432
Northeast Provinces. *See* Manchuria
Norway, 259
Novik, 89, 114, **267–268**, 278, 293, 317, 345, 391, 433, 467
Nozu, Michitsura, 42, 46, 151, 206–207, 220, 245, **268**, 348, 366, 402, 426
Nurse Corps, 227

observers. *See m*ilitary observers
October Manifesto, 16, 145, 184, 195, 203, **268–269**, 318, 328, 332, 387, 420, 437
Odessa, 44, 180, 304–305, 357, 387, 419–420, 436
Ogawa, Mataji, 104, 250, **269**
Ogura, Byoichirô, 119, **269**
Okinoshima, 127, 396
Oku, Yasukata, 42, 47, 88, 202, 206–207, 220, 245, 250–251, **269–270**, 274, 285, 348, 372–374
Ôkubo, Haruno, 105, **270**
Okuma, Shigenobu, 223
Oleg, 52, 59, 113, 167, **270–271**, 470
Open-Door Policy, 87, 124, 130, 143, **271–272**, 405, 416
Opium Wars, 86, 117, 133
Orange Plan, 20, 406
Orel, 60, **272**, 392, 394, 470
Orlov, N. A., 92
Ôryokkô no tatakai. *See* Yalu, Battle of the
Ôryokkô. *See* Yalu River
Ôsako, Naomichi, **272–273**
Ôsako, Naotoshi, 105, **273**
Ôshima, Hisanao, **273**
Ôshima, Yoshimasa, 104, **273–274**
Osliabia, **274**, 392–393, 468, 470
Otowa, 118, **274–275**, 365, 469
Otsu Incident, 4, 260, **275**, 390, 403
Ottoman Empire. *See* Turkey
Ôyama, Iwao, 12–13, 42, 128, 186, 206–207, 220, 244–247, **276**, 295, 297–298, 342, 348–350

Pacific Fleet, 10, 14, 32, 34, 50–51, 54, 57–58, 66, 72, 76, 78, 84, 97, 102, 112, 114–115, 120, 134, 136, 151–152, 194, 212, 217–218, 233, 238–239, 255, 257, 267, **277–279**, 281–283, 287, 289, 292–293, 295–296, 299, 316–317, 324, 326, 328, 346–347, 356, 358, 381, 389, 404, 407, 410–412, 416, 431, 438, 467
Pacific Squadron, First, 60, 69, 152, 278, **279**, 410
Pacific Squadron, Second, 15, 26, 34, 52, 57–60, 72, 109, 113, 115, 132, 154, 167, 184, 252, 258, 271, 278, **279–280**, 326, 346, 355, 362, 364, 391, 437
Pacific Squadron, Third, 26–27, 57–58, 60, 127, 155, 184, 258, 279, 280, 327, 362, 391, 411
Pakenham, William, 236, **280–281**, 325, 388
Palestine, 56, 83, 320, 389
Pallada, 52, 102, 278, **281**, 293, 467
Panama Canal, 20, 143, 322, 405, 406
Pan-Asianism, 187, 363
Panlung, 121, 296, 461
Paris Conference, 439
Pascal, 84, 86
patriotism, 85, 86
Pearl Harbor, 137, 406, 428
Peikou, 207
Peking, Treaty of (1905), 87, 133, 188, **281–282**
Peresviet, 274, 278, **282**, 287, 404, 433, 467

Perry, Matthew Calbraith, 2, 169
Pershing, John, 17, 236, **282–283**
Persia. *See* Iran
Pescadore Islands, 86, 177
Peter the Great, 57, 73, 195, 256, 277, 327, 357
Petersburg, 121, 397
Petropavlovsk, 14, 218, 239, 257, 277–278, **283–284**, 289, 296, 347, 359, 409, 467
Phan, Boi Chau, 24, **284**
Philippines, 20, 23, 180, 213–214, 282–283, 367, 369, 405
Pikou. *See* Pitzuwo
Pilsudski, Josef, 108, **284–285**, 288–289
Pitzuwo, 47, 104, 202, 250, 270, 284, **285**, 294, 423
Plehve, Viacheslav 71, 184, **286**, 318, 330, 358, 420
Plekhanov, Georgii 29, 178, **286–287**, 387, 439
Pobieda, 278, **287–288**, 432, 467
Pogrom of Kishinev. *See* Kishinev, Pogrom of
poison gas, 138
Poland, 19–20, 108, 190, 221, 284–285, 286, **288–289**, 438
politics, Japanese internal. *See* Anti-Russia Society; Government, Japanese; Diet; Heiminsha; Hibiya Riots; Kôdôha Faction; Konoe, Atsumaro; Kôtoku, Shûsui; Rikken Seiyûkai; Saigô, Takamori; Saionji, Kimmochi; Sakai, Toshihiko; Satsuma Rebellion; Seven Professors Incident; Shakai Minshuto; *Sonnô-joi*; Uchimura, Kanzô; Yosano, Akiko
politics, Russian internal. *See* Bezobrazov Circle; Bezobrazov, Aleksandr; Bloody Sunday; Bolshevik Revolution; Bolsheviks; Duma; Gapon, Georgii; Government, Russian; Kronstadt Rebellion; Lenin, Vladimir; Lodz Uprising (1905); Maria Fedorovna; Mensheviks; October Manifesto; Plekhanov, Georgii; Potemkin mutiny; Revolution of 1905; Stolypin, Petr; Workers Soviet; Zemstvo Movement
Poltava, 257, 278, **289–290**, 293, 467
Port Arthur Squadron, 217, 277–278, 299, 389, 395, 404, 409, 410, 467
Port Arthur, 4, 6, 7–9, 10–11, 11–12, 12–3, 13–14, 15, 16, 28, 32, 34, 43, 47, 49–50, 56, 58, 60, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 78, 84, 87, 89, 91, 98, 101, 102, 107, 111, 114, 121, 122, 124, 132, 135, 139, 142, 143, 145, 151, 152, 162, 188, 193, 199, 200, 203, 204, 205, 206–207, 209, 212, 217, 220, 230, 233, 235, 238–239, 241, 243, 244, 250, 251, 252, 259, 266, 267, 274, 276, 277–279, 281, 283, 287, **290–292**, 292–293, 293–294, 294–299, 299, 300, 301, 308, 310, 316, 317, 318, 325, 328, 330, 340, 345, 347, 350–351, 355, 356, 357, 258, 359, 359–360, 361, 365, 370, 372, 373, 376, 378, 386, 388, 389, 395, 400, 404, 407, 408, 409–410, 411–412, 414, 416–417, 417–418, 425, 430, 431–433, 435, 443–445, 447, 461, 467
Port Arthur, naval attack of, 98, 101, 102, 113, 139, 281, **292–293**, 316, 359, 389
Port Arthur, naval blockade of, 39, 137, 146,224, **293–294**, 410
Port Arthur, Siege of, 13–14, 34, 47, 50, 56, 66, 67, 81, 83, 98, 103,

105, 106, 114, 121, 126, 132, 143, 151, 153, 186, 189, 206, 229, 248, 273, 278, 281, 282, 287, 289, 292, **294–299**, 316, 340, 341, 347, 350, 356, 360, 365, 390, 400, 409, 414, 431
Portsmouth Peace Conference, 16, 20, 36, 136, 143, 146, 180, 187, 197, 231, 261, **300–304**, 311, 317, 321–322, 323, 366, 369, 398, 405, 419–420
Portsmouth, 18, 117, 146, 300, 302, 420, 445, 450, 451, 452
Portsmouth, Treaty of, 15, 16, 18, 29, 88, 145, 155, 172, 183, 188, 192, 197, 199, 211, **300**, 303, 308, 318, 332, 338, 394, 399, 403, 420, 445
Portugal, 260
postwar Russo–Japanese agreements. *See* Russo–Japanese agreements, postwar
Potemkin Mutiny, 16, 74, 185, **304–306**, 318, 387
Potemkin. *See Kniaz Potemkin Tavritcheskii*
POWs. *See* prisoners of war
pre-dreadnought, 64–66, 130, 134, 277, 306, 430
press. *See* war correspondents
prewar military balance. *See* military balance, prewar
prewar Russo–Japanese treaties. *See* Russo–Japanese treaties, prewar
prisoner camps, 173, 225, 298, **307–308**, 311
prisoners of war, 56, 80, 225, 227, 247, 285, **307–309**, 311, 313, 350, 394, 423, 443, 449
propaganda, 56, 202, **309–311**, 431
protected cruisers, 97, 118, 119, 256, 258, 278, 279
Protectorate Agreement, 163, 192, **311–312**
Putiatin, Evfimii, 2
Putilov Hill, 350, 402
Putilov M-1903 75mm gun, 45, 50, **312**, 373
Pyongyang, 46, 106, 268,274, **312–313**, 354

Qing Dynasty, 22, 77, 86, 88, 219
Qingdao. *See* Tsingtao
Queen Min, Assassination of. *See* Min, Assassination of Queen

race (Asian), 23, 157
race, naval arms. *See* Naval arms race
race, relations, 24
radio telegraph, 91
radio. *See* communication
Rasputin, Grigorii, 261
Red Army, 45, 79, 101, 388
Red Cross Society, Japanese 314
Red Cross Society, Russian 313
Reizenstein, Nikolai. *See* Reuzenstein, Nikolai
Rennenkampf, Pavel von, 82, 94, **315–316**, 341, 350, 371
Reshitelnii, 359
Retvizan, 278, 293, 294, 316, 467
Reuzenstein, Nikolai, 277, **316–317**, 412, 468
Revolution of 1905, 16, 19, 38, 73, 74, 75, 111, 116, 196, 211, 261, 268, 287, 289, 299, 304, **317–318**, 332, 333, 358, 387, 419, 421, 437
revolvers, 155, 195, 319, 401
rifles, 40, 43, 45, 75, 79, 82, 150, 196, 243, 319, 386
Rikken Seiyûkai (political party), 163, 179, 337
Riurik. *See* Rurik

Rodzianko, Mikhail, 70
Rohosee Bay, 339
Romania, 79, 305
Romanov, Aleksandr, **319–320**
Romanov, Aleksei, **320**, 330
Romanov, Nikolai Aleksandrovich. *See* Nicholas II, Emperor
Romanov, Sergei, 318, **320–321**, 330
Roosevelt, Franklin Delano, 214, 292
Roosevelt, Theodore, 17, 20, 136, 139, 143, 154, 179, 212, 216, 231, 265, 283, 301–302, 314, **321–322**, 338, 367, 405
Root, Elihu, 322–323, 369
Rosen, Roman, 8–9, 263, 302–303, **323–324**, 446, 450, 451
Rossia, 69, 136, 152, 194, 278, **324**, 395, 412, 468
Royal Navy, 17, 21, 51, 62, 64–66, 91, 97, 101, 110–111, 117, 129–130, 133, 137, 164, 168, 233, 236, 239, 254–255, 256, 280–281, 290, 306, **324–325**, 352, 360–361, 362, 381, 382, 388, 407, 414, 463
Rozen, Roman Romanovich. *See* Rosen, Roman Romanovich
Rozhestvenskii, Zinovii, 15, 57, 58, 91, 100, 109, 113, 115, 184, 185, 254, 279, 280, **326**, 346, 356, 391–394, 470
Rudnev, Vsevolod, 85, **327–328**, 407
Rurik, 69, 194, 278, 324, **328–329**, 336, 395–396, 412, 433, 468
Russia, **329–333** *passim*
Russian Imperial Army. *See* Army, Imperial Russian
Russian Imperial Navy. *See* Navy, Imperial Russian
Russian Orthodox Church, 262, 311
Russo–Japanese agreements, postwar (1907, 1910, 1912, 1916), 144, 304, **333–334**
Russo–Japanese treaties, prewar (1855, 1858, 1875), 2, **335**, 451–454, 454–456, 456–457, 457–459
Russo–Korean Treaty (1884), **335–336**
Russo–Polish Campaign, 79
Russo–Turkish War, 33, 43, 67, 71, 73, 78, 99, 120, 121, 131, 132,135, 162, 165, 180, 181, 198, 210, 217, 238, 240, 259, 320, 326, 341, 356, 359, 381, 408, 436
Ryojun Kôisen. *See* Port Arthur, Siege of
Ryojun Kôkô Heisoku Sakusen. *See* Port Arthur, Naval Blockade of
Ryojun. *See* Port Arthur
Ryôtô. *See* Liaotung
Ryôyô Kaisen. *See* Liaoyang, Battle of
Ryôyô. *See* Liaoyang
Ryukyu Islands, 3
Ryurik. *See* Rurik

Sado Maru, **336**, 395–396
Sai Yen, 120, 337, 466, 467
Saigo, Takamori, 266, 276
Saigo, Tsugumichi, 128, 254, 275, 427
Saigon, 346, 209, 260, 346, 433
Saionji, Kimmochi, 179, **336–337**
Saka kaisen. *See* Sha-Ho, Battle of
Sakai, Toshihiko, 145, 195, 307, **337–338**, 434
Sakhalin, 2, 18, 73, 107, 267, 300, **302–303**, 323, 334, 335, **338**, 339, 345, 391, 433
Sakhalin, conquest of, 18, 73, 107, 267, 302, 338, **339**
Sakharov, Victor, 208, **339**
Sakharov, Vladimir, 93
Sakurai, Tadayoshi, **339–340**

Salisbury, Lord (Robert Arthur Talbot Gascoyne-Cecil), 38, 56, 133, 202
Samejima, Kazunori, **340**, 343
Samejima, Shigeo, 106, **340–341**
Samsonov, Aleksandr, 316, **341**, 371, 439
samurai, 2, 31, 42, 79–80, 125, 128, 153, 155, 160, 163, 169, 174, 197, 253, 266, 270, 361, 390, 401, 425, 427
Sandepu, Battle of, 14, 47, 72, 81, 93, 105, 135, 180, 221, 276, **342–343**, 358, 372
Sanjû nenshiki haheijû. *See* Arisaka Type 30 rifle
Sanjûgo nenshiki suiheijû. *See* Nambu Type 35 rifle
Sanjûhachi nenshiki haheijû. *See* Arisaka Type 38 rifle
Sanjûichi nenshiki sokusha Yahô. *See* Arisaka Type 31 gun
Sasebo, 124, 231, 292–293, 340, 343, 351, 425, 466
Satô, Tetsutarô, **343–344**
Satsuma Rebellion, 35, 125, 126, 141, 153, 160, 181, 182, 197, 241, 248, 263, 266, 268, 270, 273, 274, 276, 314, 341, 372, 374, 390, 402, 426
Sazonov, Egor, 286, 457, 458, 459
Schiff, Jacob, 172, 173, **344–345**, 368, 415
Schultz, Maximilian, 267, **345**
Sea of Japan, Battle of the. *See* Tsushima, Battle of
Seaman, Louis, 229
Searchlights, 250
Second Fleet, Japanese. *See* Fleet, Japanese Second
Second Japanese Army. *See* Army, Japanese Second
Second Manchurian Army. *See* Manchurian, Second Army
Second Siberian Army Corps. *See* Corps, Second Siberian Army
Seiyûkai. *See* Rikken Seiyûkai (political party)
Selivanov, Andrei, 94
Semenov, Vladimir, 102, **346**
Sendai, 103, 307
Seoul, 5, 7, 11, 84, 181, 188, 191,212, 237, 312, 335, **346–347**, 354, 407, 427
Serbia, 323, 388, 398
Sergeev, A. S., 359
Sevastopol, 114, 152, 257, 278, 298, 345, **347–348**, 410, 467
Seven Professors Incident, 15, 171, **348**
Seventeenth European Army Corps. *See* Corps, Seventeenth European Army
Sha-ho, Battle of, 13, 33, 46, 47, 48, 72, 81, 99, 100, 104, 105, 131, 175, 197, 240, 244, 268, 270, 274, 276, 315, 358, 402, 436
Shakai Minshuto (political party), 195
Shanghai, 51, 99, 137, 149, 223, 260, 284, 317, 392, 433, 468
Shantung Peninsula 6, 376
Shenyang. *See* Mukden
Shibayama, Yahachi **350–351**
Shichihakase Jiken. *See* Seven Professors Incident
Shikishima, 50, 118, 142, 231, **351–352**, 393, 465, 466, 469
Shimamura, Hayao, 119, 352, 379, 469
Shimonoseki Treaty, **352–353**
shimose gunpowder, **353**
Shimose, Masachika, **353**
Shtackelberg, Georgii. *See* Stakelberg, Georgii

Siam, 36, 125, 259
Singapore 60, 235, 467
Sino–Japanese War, First, 4–5, 11, 30, 31, 40, 42, 86, 90, 102, 122, 125, 129, 141,146, 147, 152, 156, 160, 161, 163, 164, 170, 172, 174, 175, 177, 178, 179, 181, 182, 183, 191, 197, 199, 204, 219, 223, 224, 227, 230, 237, 242, 247, 248, 249, 251, 252, 254, 263, 266, 268, 269, 270, 273, 274, 276, 285, 290, 295, 308, 310, 312, 314, 337, 340, 343, 351, 352, **353–355**, 364, 365, 368, 370, 371, 372, 374, 375, 378, 379, 382, 390, 402, 417, 426, 427, 429, 431
Sino–Russian Treaty (1896). *See* Li–Lobanov Agreement
Sissoi Velikii, 59, **355**, 394, 470
Sixteenth European Army Corps. *See* Corps, Sixteenth European Army
Skrydlov, Nikolai, 32, 278–279, **356**, 410
Skugarevskii, Arkadii, 92
Smelii, 345
Smirnov, Konstantin, 121,189,298, **356–357**, 360
Smith and Wesson, 248
Smolensk, 121, 397
Sobolev, Leonid, 95, 349
socialist movements, 23
Society of Commoners. *See* Heiminsha
Sone, Arasuke, 155, 170, **357**
Sonnô-joi, 160, 163
South Africa, 140, 157
South Manchurian Railway, 70, 87, 89, 199, 200, 291, 303, **357**
Soya Straits. *See* La Perouse Straits
Spain, 242, 259, 404, 438
Spanish–American War, 30, 136, 213, 216, 227, 282, 300, 321, 405, 438
splendid isolation, 36, 133, 324
St. Petersburg, 3, 7, 9–10, 16, 26, 27, 28, 31, 34, 37, 44, 52, 53, 58, 70, 72, 74, 76, 77, 99, 103, 108, 110, 113, 114, 121, 126, 127, 132, 136, 146, 152, 155, 167, 180, 184, 185, 189, 195, 197, 200, 202–203, 204, 209, 211, 221, 226, 231, 235, 253, 258, 268, 271, 272, 274, 279, 281, 282, 283, 286, 287, 289, 299, 301, 307, 312, 318, 324, 327, 328, 329, 330, 333–334, 335, 339, 341, 346, 347, 355, 356, **357–358**, 359, 360, 403, 411, 426, 437, 439, 443, 449, 452, 453, 455, 456, 457
Stakelberg, Georgii, 93, 270, 342, 349–350, **358**, 372, 373–374
Stark, Oskar, 32, 217, 277–278, 299, **358–359**, 404, 467
Steregushchii, **359**, 467
Stoessel, Anatolii, 43, 95, 121, 162, 189, 199, 250, 295, 297–299, 356, **359–360**, 414, 433
Stolypin, Petr, 116, 261, 332
submarines, 21, 30, 58, 66, 102, 137, 138, 235, 239, 279, 320, 325, **360–361**, 383
Suda Bay, 121
Suematsu, Kenchô, 310, **361–362**
Suez Canal, 23, 26, 27, 34, 59–60, 115, 127, 155, 235, 252, 255, 258, 280, 355, **362**, 365, 397, 411, 437
Suma, 28, 120, 178, 241, 262, 352, **362–363**, 379, 425, 466, 467, 470
Sun, Yat-sen, 23, 88, 345, **363**
Sun, Yat-Sen. *See* Sun, Yixian
Sung Dynasty, 218
Sunjong, 187, 192
Suribachi Yama, 207
Suvorov. *See Kniaz Suvorov*

Suzuki, Kantarô, **363–364**
Svietlana, 59, 69, **364–365**, 470
Sweden, 57, 256, 259, 329
Switzerland, 29, 69, 203, 260, 387
swords, 298, **365**, 444

Tachibana, Koichirô, **365–366**
Tachibana, Shûta, 137, **366**
tactics, military, 237, **366–367**, 387
Tafangshen, 251
Taft, William, 20, 175, 179, 231, **367**
Taiping Rebellion, 203
Tairo Dôshikai. *See* Anti-Russian Society
Taisekihashi no Tatakai. *See* Tashihchiao, Battle of
Taitzu River, 207, 342
Taiwan, 3, 29, 35, 86, 153, 168, 170, 177, 179, 186, 242, 266, 269, 402
Takachiho, 85, 119, 351, **368**, 465, 467, 469
Takahashi, Korekiyo, 172, 344, **368–369**, 415
Takahira, Kogorô, 197, 227, 302, 322, **369**, 446, 450, 451
Takahira–Root Agreement, (1908) 322, **369**, 406
Takasago, 89, 97, 175, **369–370**, 465, 467
Taketomi, Kunikane, 120, 142, **370**, 470
Takushan, 46, 106, 202
Talbot, 84–86
Talien. *See* Dalny
Tanaka, Giichi, **370–371**
Tang Dynasty, 371
Tangier, 59, 115, 242, 468
Tannenberg, Battle of, 83, 148, 316, 341, **371–372**, 439
Tashihchiao, Battle of, 13, 47, 48, 93,93, 104, 105, 270, 358, **372**, 436
Tatsumi, Naobumi, 145, 342, **372**
Teheran Conference, 292
telephone, 250
Telissu, 13, 93, **372**, 373–374
Telissu, Battle of, 13, 47, 93, 104, 105, 131, 240, 269, 270, 312, 341, 358, **372–374**, 436
Tenth European Army Corps. *See* Corps, Tenth European Army
Terauchi, Masatake, 155, 170, 192, 302, **374**
Tetsurei. *See* Tieling
Thailand. *See* Siam
The First Sino–Japanese War. *See* Sino–Japanese War, the First
Third Fleet, Japanese. *See* Fleet, Japanese Third
Third Japanese Army. *See* Army, Japanese Third
Third Manchurian Army. *See* Manchurian, Third Army
Third Siberian Army Corps. *See* Corps, Third Siberian Army
Three Power Intervention, 4–5, 70, 122, 129, 199, 209, 219, 255, 263, 290, 330, 353, 355, **375–376**, 419, 420
Tibet, 37, 158, **376**, 387
Tieling, 180, 247, **377**
Tientsin Convention, 3, 190, 204
Tiger Hill, 422–423
Tiger Peninsula, 114
Tilak, B. G., 157
Tirpitz, Alfred von, **377**, 418
Tochigijô no Tatakai. *See* Hsimucheng, Battle of
Tôgô, Heihachirô, 11, 15, 30, 61, 118, 120, 153, 177, 231, 249, 256, 266, 280, 292–293, 293–294, 295, 327, 339, 363, **377–379**, 391–394, 417, 432, 440, 465, 469

Tôgô, Masaji, 120, 339, 363, **379**, 466, 470
Tokiwa, 193, **379–380**, 465, 466, 469
Tokugawa Shogunate, 169, 230
Tokugawa, Ieyasu, 380
Tokuriji no tatakai. *See* Telissu, Battle of
Tokuriji. *See* Telissu
Tokyo, 5, 7–10, 18, 38–39, 83, 103, 108, 134, 135, 145, 147, 149, 167, 168, 174, 178, 182, 186, 188, 195, 208, 213, 214–215, 223, 224, 226, 230, 235, 237, 242, 248, 263, 246–265, 266, 269, 282, 284, 288, 302–303, 323, 335, 345, 348, 353, 363, 368, 369, 379, **380**, 401, 412, 427, 429, 449
Tomii, Masaaki, 348
Tomizu, Hirondo, 348
Topornin, Dmitrii, 95
torpedo boats, 59, 64, 85, 101, 109, 118, 119, 120, 217, 254–256, 258, 278, 294, 339, 359, 361, **380–381**, 382392, 394, 413, 443
torpedoes, 12, 21, 66, 84, 101, 110, 117, 293, 380, **381–383**, 394, 417
Trans-Siberian Railway, 3, 5–7, 9, 11, 45, 55, 70, 72, 87, 89, 145, 198, 210, 226, 244, 260, 275, 277, 290, 300, 327, 330, 361, **383–385**, 416, 420, 421
treaties. *See* diplomatic agreements and conferences
Treaty of Paris, 73, 329
trench warfare, 67, 83, 96, 151, 158, 215, 366, **385–386**
Tretyakov, Nikolai, 250–251, 400
Tripartite Intervention, the. *See* Three Power Intervention, the
Triple Entente, 19, 123, 124, 201, 333, **386–387**
Trotskii, Leon, **387–388**
Troubridge, Ernest, 17, 236, 325, **388**
Truman, Harry, 214
Trumpeldor, Joseph, 173, **388–389**
Tsar Alexander I. *See* Aleksandr I, Tsar
Tsar Alexander II. *See* Aleksandr II, Tsar
Tsar Alexander III. *See* Aleksandr III, Tsar
Tsar Nicholas II. *See* Nicholas II, Tsar
Tserpitskii, Konstantin, 95
Tsessarevich, 76, 135, 278293, 317, **389–390**, 411, 432–433, 467
Tsingtao, 87, 272, 309, 368, 418, 429
Tsuchiya, Mitsuharu, 106, 107, 390
Tsuda, Sanzô, 275, **390**
Tsukamoto, Katsuyoshi, 104, **390–391**
Tsushima Straits, attack on the, 69, 136, 147, 174, 324, 329, 336, **395–397**
Tsushima Straits, 15, 57, 58, 61, 69, 136, 147, 174, 193, 267, 274, 279, 324, 329, 336, 391–392, **394–395**, 412, 440
Tsushima, 119, 262, 267, 275, 346, **391**, 396, 469
Tsushima, Battle of, 15, 17, 26, 27, 29, 30, 34, 50, 51, 52, 54, 57, 61, 65–66, 72, 76, 89, 90, 91, 101, 102, 107, 110, 113, 115, 118, 119, 120, 124, 127, 142, 153, 154, 155, 164, 166, 167, 168, 174, 175, 177, 185, 224, 230, 231, 241, 249, 252, 258, 264, 269, 271, 272, 274, 275, 279, 280, 281, 300–302, 320, 327, 336, 344, 346, 351, 352, 353, 355, 363, 364, 365, 368, 370, 378, 379, 387, **391–394**, 395, 406, 411, 421, 425, 428, 434, 437, 440, 469
Turkestan. *See* Central Asia

Turkey, 24, 74, 120, 134, 276, **397–398**, 418
Twain, Mark, **398–399**
Twenty-One Demands, 22, 200, **399**, 435
Type 26 revolver, 82, 263, 319, **400–401**

U-boats. *See* submarines
Uchimura, Kanzô, 16, 145, **401**
Uchiyama, Kojirô, **401**
Ueda, Arisawa, 104, 350, **401–402**
Uehara, Yûsaku, **402**
Ugaki, Kazushige, **402–403**
Ukhtomskii, Esper, **403**
Ukhtomskii, Pavel, 278, 299,317, 389, **404**, 409, 433, 467
Ulsa Treaty. *See* Protectorate Agreement
Ulsan, Battle of (1904). *See* Korean Straits, Battle of
United States, 5, 17, 20, 22, 30, 37, 80, 87, 90, 91, 101, 111, 126, 154, 171–172, 176, 178, 179–180, 197, 201, 213–214, 216, 226, 227, 236, 237, 2589, 364–265, 268, 281, 282, 300, 300–301, 309, 310, 314, 316, 321, 322, 323–324, 329, 343–344, 351, 361, 363, 366, 367, 369, 375, 399, 401, **404–406**, 406, 408, 425, 427, 428,431, 439, 446, 449
Uryû, Sotokichi 11, 51, 84–85, 119, 293, 396, 406, 407, 465, 469
Ussanchû Kaisen. *See* Korean Straits, Battle of the
Ussuri River, 329

Van Phong Bay, 280
Variag, 12, 51, 84–85, 97, 278, 327–328, 359, 406, **406–408**, 467
Vel'aminov, Nikolai, **408**
Vereshchagin, Vasilii, 283, **408–409**
Vickers, 225, 231, 428
Vicksburg, 85, 386
Victoria, Queen, 133, 260, 418
Vietnam, 23–24, 60, 122, 258, 272, 280, 284
Vigo, 59, 109, 184
Villiers, Frederic, 17, **409**, 413
Viren, Robert, 299, 404, **409–410**, 467
Visokaya Gora. *See* 203-Meter Hill
Vitgeft, Vilgelm, 14, 193, 278, 296, 299, 389, 395, 404, 409, **410–411**, 419, 431–432
Vladimir Monomakh, 280, 326, 394, **411**, 470
Vladivostok Independent Cruiser Squadron, 69, 119, 120, 136, 151, 152, 193–194, 267, 277, 278, 324, 328, 336, 356, 391, 395, 412, 413, 433, 468
Vladivostok Squadron, 69, 151–152, 277, 316, 412, 468
Vladivostok, 2, 4, 6, 9–11, 14, 15, 18, 34, 43, 60–61, 68, 69, 70, 72, 76, 89, 113, 119, 120, 125, 136, 141, **151–152**, 162, 167, 174, 193, 193–194, 260, 267, 275, 277–279, 281, 296, 302, 317, 324, 328, 336, 345, 356, 361, 366, 381, 383–385, 391, 392–394, 395, 403, 410, **411–412**, 416–417, 431–433
Volkov, Vladimir, 94
Volunteer Fleet. *See* Fleet, Russian Volunteer
voyage of the Baltic Fleet. *See* Baltic Fleet, the voyage of the

Waeber, Carl. *See* Weber, Karl
Wantai, 132, 296–298, 461
war god. *See* Gunshin
Warsaw, 44, 67, 79, 108, 190, 341, 438

warships. *See* armored cruisers; battleships; battlecruisers; blockships; cruisers; destroyers; gunvessels; hospital ships; minelayers; pre-dreadnought; protected cruisers; submarines; torpedo boats
Washington Naval Arms Limitation Conference, 179, 323, 418
weaponry. *See* balloons; barbed wire, bayonets; Hotchkiss, machine gun; howitzer guns; infantry; Maxim, machine gun; mortars; mine, naval; minefields; mortars; Mosin M-1891 rifle; Murata Type 22 rifle; Nagant M-95 revolver; Nambu Type 35 rifle; poison gas; Putilov M-1903 75mm gun; radio telegraph; revolvers; rifles; searchlights; shimose gunpowder; Smith and Wesson revolver; swords; torpedoes; Type 26 revolver; Marconi wireless system
Weber, Karl, 188
Weihaiwei, 30, 87, 91, 325, 337, 355, 414, **417–418**
White Wolf Harbor, 298, 347
White, William, 249, 368
Whitehead, Robert, 382
Wiju, 422–423
Wilhelm II, Emperor. *See* William II, Emperor
William II, Emperor, 4, 73, 129–130, 159, 242, 261 326, **418–419**
Wilson, Woodrow, 367
Wiren, Robert Nikolaevich. *See* Viren, Robert Nikolaevich
Witgeft, Wilhelm Karlovich. *See* Vitgeft, Vilgelm Karlovich
Witte system, **421**
Witte, Sergei, 7, 18, 68–69, 70–71, 94, 201, 209–210, 286, 302–303, 323, 330, 332, 384–385, 403, **419–421**, 446, 450, 451
workers, Soviet, 16
World War I, 17, 19–20, 30–31, 33, 34, 36, 37, 38, 40, 45, 48, 50, 51, 52, 54, 56, 57, 61, 62–63, 66, 67, 78–79, 81, 83, 96, 99, 100, 108, 112, 117, 123, 130, 132–133, 134, 135, 136, 137, 138, 140, 148, 150–151, 158, 163, 165, 168, 172, 185, 190, 199, 202, 214,215, 216, 222, 223, 236–237, 239, 243, 261, 262, 279, 281, 283, 285, 289, 309, 314, 315–316, 322, 323, 324, 325, 332–333, 334, 341, 345, 358, 361, 366–367, 368, 371–372, 377, 381, 383, 385–386, 387, 388, 389, 399, 400, 402, 406, 407, 409, 410, 419, 429, 438
World War II, 39, 40, 41, 48, 52, 54, 58, 67, 80, 83, 97, 99, 137, 145, 147, 149, 183, 204, 214, 223, 226, 240, 243, 309, 313, 343, 344, 357, 381, 401, 403, 406, 428, 430, 431, 434
Yakumo, 27,102, 119, 379, 393, 421, 465, 466, 469

Yalta Conference, 292
Yalu River Timber Concessions, 7, 25, 68, 71, **424–425**
Yalu River, 7, 11, 12, 38, 45, 68, 70, 192, 212, 218, 235, 354, 417, 422–423, **424**, 436
Yalu River, Army of the. *See* Japanese Fifth Army
Yalu, Battle of, 12, 38, 46, 95, 103, 104, 106, 146, 160, 174, 182, 192, 197, 212, 224, 240, 249, 263, 313, 343, 352, 367, 368, 378, 414, 424, 436
Yamada, Hikohachi, 119, 120, **425**

Yamada, Nobuyoshi, 107
Yamagata, Aritomo, 5, 36, 42, 128, 163, 179, 268, 285, 343, **425–426**
Yamagata–Lobanov Agreement, 5, 191, **426–427**
Yamamoto, Gonnohyôe, 102, 155, 170, 254, 343, **427–428**
Yamamoto, Isoroku, **428**
Yamanashi, Hanzô, **428–429**
Yamashita, Gentarô, **429**
Yashima, 34, 111, 118, 143, 165, 176, 213, 239, 264, 406, **430**, 431, 465, 466
Yasukuni Shrine, 81
yellow peril, 4, 129, 154, 299, 310, **430–431**
Yellow Sea, Battle of the, 14, 30, 50, 51, 65, 89, 98, 102, 114,124, 153, 175, 177, 193–194, 209, 224, 231, 252, 267, 278, 282, 287, 289, 296, 316, 317, 345, 346, 347, 364, 378, 379, 382, 389, 391, 393, 404, 409, 411, 421
Yenisei. *See* Enisei
Yingkou. *See* Niuchuang
Yokosuka, 28, 29, 124, 125, 142, 161, 164, 174, 176, 231, 253, 263, 269, 275, 340, 363, 370, 425, 429
Yonai, Mitsumasa, **433–434**
Yosano, Akiko, 16, **434**
Yosano, Tekken, 434
Yoshino, 97, **434–435**, 365, 466
young turks, 398
Younghusband, Francis, 376
Yuan Dynasty, 218
Yuan, Shikai, 363, 365, 399, **435**

Zabudskii, N. A., 312
Zarubaev, Nikolai, 93, 206–207, 349, 372, **435–436**
Zasulich, Mikhail, 94, 151, 182, 422–423, **436–437**
Zasulich, Vera, 29, 436
Zemstvo Movement, 286, 332, **437**
Zhang Zuolin, 371
Zhemchug, 59, 113, 279, **437–438**, 470
Zhilinskii, Yakov, 341, **438–439**
Zilliacus, Konrad, 29, 116, 203, **439**
Z-signal, **440**

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The author genuinely values your feedback. For any comment, error, or update related to this book and the Russo–Japanese War, please contact: kowner@research.haifa.ac.il.