

1: State, Peasant, and Merchant in Qing Manchuria,

The Economic History of Manchuria The core area of the historic Manchuria (the land of the Manchus) was the lowland plain enclosed by mountains to the west, north and east but open to the sea on the south.

Coal production in Manchukuo during exceeded 10,, tonnes. In , other areas produced 20,, tonnes with reserves of 20,, tonnes. Coal production was calculated in accord with other sources. In reserves of 4,, tonnes. In estimates increased to 20,, tonnes. The Japanese built coal gasification plants for industrial uses. Manchukuo also exported processed or raw products to Japan. In , the total production of iron in the Anshan and Penhsiho factories was , tonnes. In , , tonnes of low-grade hematite was first produced. The Miaoerkow mine also produced , tonnes of hematite. In the Tungpientao deposits, the reserves are ,, tonnes of high-grade iron. The Anshan Factories in produced 1,, iron tonnes and 1,, steel tonnes. In production increased to 3,, tonnes and Penhsiho produced , tonnes. In addition, the Tungpientao factory had the capacity to produce , tonnes. Manchukuo received from Japan scrap iron for iron and steel processing and at the same time exported unfinished steel products. Petroleum[edit] Manchukuo has little petroleum except at Fushun and Fusin where there were extensive deposits of oil-rich slate , oil shale and shist. Fushun produced 1,, tonnes in In Jehol some oil was extracted in conjunction with coal deposits. Manchukuo also operated oil refineries. Aluminium[edit] The principal sources of bauxite in Manchukuo are alunite deposits in Liaoning. Later another ,, tonnes was discovered. In they founded the "Manchu Society for Light Metals". The refining process used electricity from Fushun coal, hydrochloric acid , potassium chloride and iron silica. During aluminum production increased from 5, to 30, tonnes. Other minerals[edit] In , copper production reached tonnes, growing in to tones. Lead production was 1, tonnes. Zinc extraction was tonnes. Magnesite mines northwest of Tsichiao and Nuishishan opened in , with estimated reserves of 13,, tonnes. Electric power[edit] Sui-ho Dam on the border between Manchukuo and Korea Hydroelectric power provided the majority of electricity during the period. The Japanese invested in power plants on the Sungari and Yalu rivers. Other electricity sources included gas, oil, bunker oil and coal. In there was a slump in soy sales to the United States, and Germany became the principal buyer. In the "Manchu exterior commerce" a Japanese monopoly , recorded that exports exceeded imports. Minor exports were other farming products pigs, mice, kaoliang , peanuts ; imports were cotton, flour of various grains, iron, and unfinished and manufactured products for Industry. The principal commerce was with China and Japan, with some exports going to Russia. In foreign trade rose to 2,, million Manchukuo Yuan. Japan ranked first, but other trading partners included the United States, China, and Germany.

2: WHKMLA : History of Manchuria

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It borders Russia to the north, China and North Korea to the south and shares a maritime border with Japan. Manchuria has a rich history, coming under the rule of Turkic, Mongol, Russian, Japanese and Chinese empires and Soviet rule. In its modern-day, Manchu, Chinese and Russian cultures and influences stand out and predominate the country. As a result, the country is known for its vast array of historical sites and monuments, and is considered one of the most popular tourist destinations in the world. It is also known for its natural beauties as well as lush gardens. Manchurian citizens often enjoy a high standard of living. However, President Talbacik stated he wished to maintain close relations with Moscow, having remembered that the Soviets saved Manchu culture. In 1917, Moscow relinquished control of Manchuria, however, allowed Manchuria to keep Soviet aircraft and warships. In an act of cultural liberalization, Chinese was re-officialized to join Manchu and Russian as one of the official languages of Manchuria. Between 1917 and 1920, however, leaders during that era favored close economic relations with China and the United States and massive westernization. This led to huge economic growth in Manchuria. However, Manchurian leaders have made it clear that they are a military ally of Russia. Russian missionaries spent heavy activity in Manchuria. As the missionary work reached native Manchus and Hans, the Orthodox Church of Manchuria was formed, an autonomous church under the Russian Orthodox Church. Manchuria also became a haven for Chinese Orthodox. During the Boxer Rebellion, the various Orthodox paramilitaries of Manchuria formed the Manchuria Holy Guard, to guard Orthodox property against attacks by anti-Christian rebels. These were highly aligned with the Imperial Russian Army, some units being led by Imperial Russian generals themselves and soldiers themselves. The Manchuria Holy Guard was a self-defense group, but some extremely dedicated members conducted sabotage operations against the Japanese during the Russo-Japanese War. The ethnic Korean Holy Knights of Yanbian soon joined the fight. During the second World War, Manchuria was invaded by Japan and the puppet state of Manchukuo was established. Under the Manchukuo government, Russian Manchurians underwent persecution. As a result, Manchukuo was rocked by guerrilla warfare against the Japanese, all throughout its entire period, forcing the Japanese rulers to cease its persecutions against the Russian community, and continue against the Chinese whom they seemed weak and easy to control. Despite following White Russian culture, many of them eventually called for Soviet aid, to induce fear against the Japanese, who had been beaten by the Soviets in the Soviet-Japanese Border Conflict. In 1945, the Soviets eliminated the remnants of the Japanese military rule in Manchuria, in which the region was divided into the Manchurian SSR to the north and Northeast China to the south. They installed Manchu nationalist Mikel Baijinbu. In addition, Manchuria became home to an active underground White Russian movement. Under Soviet occupation, the Manchu language was revived, and the Soviets used Manchu nationalism to their advantage. Despite that, ethnic Chinese constituted the majority of the Manchurian SSR, the Soviets banned Chinese from having any official recognition. Chinese were commonly suspected of being Maoist or even Kuomintang spies, and were therefore, severely discriminated against. The Soviets allowed Mikel Baijinbu to carry out nationalistic pogroms, which included an attempt to assimilate the ethnic Chinese, as well as the deportation of millions more. Baijinbu also carried out Manchu populist pogrom, offering to give work and housing priorities to ethnic Manchus and non-Chinese Soviet citizens who bear more descendants. However, as tensions with China rose, Leonid Brezhnev recognized the importance of having Soviet Chinese troops, and knowledge of Chinese could be very useful in helping rout out Chinese forces. Despite being outwardly Atheist, Baijinbu secretly funded Orthodox monasteries around Manchuria. However, the attitude regarding Chinese influence was very negative, and the Manchu and Russian elite in the Soviet republic opposed it. However, despite Manchu being co-official to Russian, it was written in the Cyrillic alphabet. Of all the Soviet republics, citizens of the Manchurian SSR enjoyed greater freedoms and standards of living. Soviet railroad workers were given decent housing and food, Manchus were allowed to continue their customs and traditions. In 1989, despite being considered a national hero, President Talbacik was replaced by Fyodor Balashov in the Manchurian Elections, who served as his Prime Minister.

Under the leadership of President Balashov, Manchuria remained a military power in the region, even as its main superpower ally, the Soviet Union went on the decline. However, living conditions in Manchuria were still pretty sub-par. However, in his later stages, he was the first actively encourage American tourists to come to Manchuria. President Urhun distanced his policies from those of the previous three presidents, whom he felt was reluctant to leave behind communist and Soviet ideologies, though praised their strengths. Via a personal face-to-face agreement between the four, they agreed that the country should be led by a "new generation of Manchurians" led by "new generation ideas". Therefore, the other three stepped away from politics, while Urhun allowed for the formation of new political parties. Together, Urhun, Qu and Ponomaryov worked to revamp Manchurian economy, society and defense. In addition, one of the most important aspects of this "new generation" movement was to fix the broken inter-ethnic relations between Manchus, Russians, Chinese and Koreans which resulted from Sinophobic Soviet policies. Major American companies opened businesses and branches in Manchuria. The competition between the four would come to transform Manchuria into a major global economic power. In , the Manchurian military partook in its first overseas operation against Saudi Arabia, helping Russia in the Yemen Conflict. Manchuria would have its first overseas base in Yemen. During the Levantine War, again, Manchurian forces aided Russian forces. Economy A goldsmith pouring liquid gold at Chernyshyov Gold Inc. It is the third-largest economy of East Asia. Manchuria also exports steel to eastern Russia. Manchuria exports livestock, as well as wheat, soy and grains. The Jilin Province has large deposits of oil, gold, nickel and other natural elements. In addition, there are also Russian-language A Russian-owned coat store in Port Arthur and Mandarin-language schools all throughout Manchuria, in addition to the majority Manchu-speaking. In terms of foreign trade, Manchuria is considered a global economy. Like its larger Russian neighbor, Manchuria also has a rich fashion industry, everything from modern and contemporary, to traditional. Stores can be found all over Manchuria selling traditional Manchurian clothing, be it Manchu, Chinese, Russian or Korean. Politics Currently, Manchuria is a parliamentary republic. The head of state is the president, and head of government is the prime minister. Manchuria is also working out agreements with Beijing to open it to the Chinese navy. Manchus and Chinese constitute roughly equal parity each, with an estimated Russians make up an approximate Many ethnologists have proposed that over Many of the assimilated Han more-less display nationalistic attitudes when it comes to their Chinese background, with some outright claiming that they are ethnic Manchus, while others seem to compromise and claim they are mixed Han and Manchu descent. Koreans predominate the southern regions, bordering North Korea. There is a common stereotype and de facto tradition, in which the president is a Manchu, prime minister is Chinese and defense minister is Russian. There are also large numbers of Atheists and Tibetan Buddhists. The Manchurian Constitution guarantees freedom of religion for all citizens of Manchuria. The religious makeup of Manchuria is roughly split between Manchu Shamans and Buddhists. Unlike during Soviet rule, Moscow did little to interfere in the religious lives of Manchurians. More often-than-not, Shamans and Buddhists intertwine their religious beliefs since the two faith systems are nearly compatible and have shared close historical relations. The Manchus are mostly followers of the Orthodox Church of Manchuria, with many Han Chinese following the Chinese Orthodox Church, both autonomous churches within the the jurisdiction of the Moscow Patriarchate. However, Manchu and Chinese Orthodox churches and monasteries tend to fuse in traditional Oriental features, such as gardens, ponds and Oriental-style artistic reliefs. Port Arthur also has the largest Catholic population outside of Yanbian, having its own archbishop.

3: Manchuria in Modern East Asia, sâ€™ - Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Asian History

Naturally we, who thought it fit to compile the economic history of Chosen as a means by which to commemorate the decennial of the bank, have, for the same reason, thought it well to compile a similar book for Manchuria also.

Personal use only; commercial use is strictly prohibited for details see Privacy Policy and Legal Notice. All these contestations redefined the relationship between this region and China Proper, reshaping the social orders, communal identities, and statehood of the local peoples. Located at the nexus of the modern history of multiple ethnic groups and states, studies of modern Manchuria often require scholars to take transnational approaches, or at the least to adopt cross-border perspectives. Hong Taiji in It was widely used in Japanese writings during the years from the late 19th century to the mid-20th century. The complexity of the place term used to refer to the region under discussion reflects its nature as a historical borderland in East Asia, where different forces collided or coincided. This borderland had experienced successive contestations between powers and witnessed a series of changes in territoriality before the 17th century covered in this article, which introduces only the general history of this region from the 16th to 19th centuries. His troops unified the Jurchen tribes and helped him to win allegiance from other ethnic groups. He launched a full-scale war against troops stationed by the Ming court in Manchuria. After the Battle at Sarhu C: In 1619, Mukden C: After Nurgaci died of battle wounds, his son, Hong Taiji C: Hong Taiji carried out a series of domestic political, economic, and military reforms that set up efficient administrative, economic, and military systems. Under Hong Taiji, the Eight-Banner troops recruited people from a variety of ethnic groups, including the Mongols, the Han, and the Russians, and expanded quickly. In addition to consolidating the allegiance of tribes and peoples under his rule, Hong Taiji sent troops to Korea twice and forced the Yi royal clan to surrender and become a tributary country. In 1621, he named his kingdom the Great Qing C: Dorgon led the Eight-Banner troops into Beijing in May, 1644. Within several months, the Qing court relocated from Mukden to Beijing. Following the relocation of the court, hundreds and thousands of the Manchus and other peoples migrated from Manchuria to areas south of the Great Wall. While banner troops were dispatched to conquer areas of China Proper in the early Qing, Manchuria, where the dynasty was founded, became scarcely populated. On the vast expanse of this fertile land, there were no people. In 1644, however, the court began to retreat from the policy of repopulating Manchuria. In this vice capital existed five of the six boards that had been established at the central government in Beijing: While the former regions that had been ruled under Ming Dynasty and recently conquered by the Qing usually were administered within a provincial system under a civil governor, Manchuria was divided into three regions ruled by three generals: Usually only Manchu or Mongol officers were appointed to these positions until the last several years of the Qing Dynasty. With the development of new banner garrisons, banner soldiers and their families were relocated from Fengtian northward to Jilin and Heilongjiang. In 1649, the first garrison city, Aihui, was established in Heilongjiang. The second garrison city, Heilongjiang, was established in 1652, and the third, Morgen, in 1653. From 1653 to 1683, Qiqihar was constructed at the location of the office of the Heilongjiang General. The banner garrisons in Fengtian Liaoning today, Jilin, and Heilongjiang all performed similar duties with minor variations depending on location. In Fengtian area, the duties assigned to banner offices included not only military services, but also responsibility for royal rituals. In Jilin, the banner offices were in charge of sacrificial rituals designated for Changbai Mountain C: The banners in Heilongjiang bore the heavy duty of border patrol and defense because they directly faced the threats of Russian encroachment and Korean border crossers. To balance such contradictory visions of Manchuria within the empire and to solve the livelihood problems of the banner people whose population grew fast and relied on governmental stipends in China Proper, emperors in later years tried to relocate some Manchus from Beijing to Manchuria as well as banner people from China Proper to Manchuria, and promised to provide housing, tools, and other resources for agricultural settlement. Manchuria, however, was not attractive to the Manchus who had lived in China Proper for generations. Although the Qing court prohibited Han people from entering Manchuria freely, for various reasons some groups of Han people moved to and lived in this land beginning in the late 18th century. In addition to Han exiles who were sent to Manchuria, mainly for political crimes, single immigrants

with official travel certificates were allowed to enter the region in most years. The Manchu emperors themselves bent the prohibition principle at times when national disasters in provinces south to the Great Wall forced civilian refugees to move northward. He did so only in , after years of international contestation that led to Russo-Japanese War in Manchuria and years of Japanese incursions leading to the colonization of the Three Eastern Provinces. In fact, about two hundred years before the Opium War, the Qing court had already clashed with a foreign power that also had attempted to expand in Manchuria and negotiated with neighboring regimes over boundaries. As the Qing was expanding its territory in Manchuria in the 17th century, it clashed with Russia, which had been expanding into Siberia and the Far East since the mid-17th century. After several military campaigns between Russian and Qing troops the latter sometimes allied with Korean forces in the 1680s, the two empires negotiated over border setting and signed the Treaty of Nerchinsk C: The original documents of the treaty were written in Manchu, Latin, and Russian. This treaty defined sections of the borders between Russia and the Qing, decided to dismantle the town of Albazin C: Korea under the Yi Dynasty also negotiated with the Qing to define their boundaries in Manchuria since the early 18th century. In late 19th century, settlers in the region, from China and Korea, who had become rivals over natural resources, found themselves caught in the contestation for political allegiance and cultural identification between the Qing and Joseon governments. This Convention also included regulations on bilateral trade and diplomatic relations. Russia even acted as a mediator during the Second Opium War. While Manchuria was encroached upon by foreign powers, its neighboring land of Korea had experienced a similar loss of sovereignty to a newly arising colonizing power—Japan, an East Asian country that began its rapid modernization during the reign of Meiji Emperor r. With these treaty rights, Japan had a solid stepping-stone and a convenient base of supplies on its way to expand on the continent. Their expansion in Korea, however, faced resistance from the Qing. These soldiers, who disagreed with a military reform that granted Japanese officers high status, killed Japanese advisers and attacked the Japanese legation. After the incident, in a treaty signed with Korea later the same year C: Qing Dynasty obtained extra territoriality and the right to sail or anchor naval ships along the Korean coast. Japan and Korea signed the Treaty of Chemulpo K: While competing with China in Korea, the Japanese government invested heavily in its navy during the s. Japanese policy makers had a vision of their national security lines beyond Japanese territory, including Korea and Manchuria as their lines of interests. The Qing government was invited to provide military aid to the Korean government in early June. Japan also sent in troops in early June. But the Korean government and the leaders of the Donghak Uprising had reached an agreement before the Japanese and Chinese joined the battlefield. Japanese and Qing envoys, however, could not reach an agreement on an agenda concerning the withdrawal of their troops from Korea. International mediators also had no success in settling the dispute. On August 1, , Japan and China officially declared war. The First Sino-Japanese War ended in April , after a fatal defeat of the Qing Beiyang Fleet and Army and after a Japanese invasion into Manchuria and occupation of several important towns and ports. Russia led this Triple Intervention because its interests in Manchuria were directly challenged by Japan. In , a secret treaty between Russia and the Qing granted the former exclusive rights to build China Eastern Railway and its branches. Russia sent a large army into Manchuria and occupied the old capital of the Qing Dynasty, Mukden, and a few other strategic sites. After the Alliance, troops withdrew from Beijing, and Russian troops stayed in Manchuria. Under the pressure of international powers, Russia promised to withdraw its troops in Yevgeni Ivanovich Alekseyev in Russian: The Japanese and Russians negotiated over their respective spheres of influence in Manchuria, but the negotiations ended in vain. The Russo-Japanese War began, and the warfare spread from the ocean to inland areas. In May , Russia surrendered. Ironically, the Qing government claimed neutrality in the war. Local people in Manchuria suffered from heavy casualties and loss of property as well as the destruction of their hometowns and disturbance to social order. In , the South Manchurian Railway Company was founded. Japan stationed troops along the railway. A series of Japanese colonial regulations imposed taxes on all residents including Qing subjects living in the railway zones leased to Japan in South Manchuria. Between Empires and Nations s— The same year the SMR established its headquarters in Dalian, the Qing court began to provincialize their homeland; that is, the three regions governed by three generals became provinces and were officially integrated into the same administrative system, granting similar political

status as other provinces in China Proper. A series of reforms were initiated or implemented in the Three Eastern Provinces, reaching sectors of finance, military, education, administration, law, medicine, and more. However, all these reforms were too late to save the Qing Dynasty from collapsing. The Revolution C: People in the Three Eastern Provinces experienced a different Revolution, one that seldom promoted anti-Manchuism or allowed military clashes. The Revolution in this region sometimes is regarded as a failure because local conservatives and late-Qing officials still exercised continuous control over the local government. The comparatively peaceful change of regime in this region can be attributed to the different Manchu-Han relationship in local society from that in China Proper, where the revolutionaries were provoked by anti-Manchu rhetoric. In particular, by the late Qing, Han banner people in Manchuria actually outnumbered Manchu and Mongol banner people. In addition, some revolutionary leaders regarded Manchuria as a non-Han land separated from China Proper. Instead, they promoted anti-Qing patriotism and anti-imperialist nationalism. Local Qing officials were comparatively lenient on the revolutionaries. Zhao Erxun , a Han bannerman who was appointed governor-general of the Three Eastern Provinces as well as imperial commissioner, attempted to suppress the revolutionaries without disturbing the stability of the local area. Between the Revolution and the Second Sino-Japanese War, the region was under the control of warlords. On September 18, , the Mukden Incident C: Japanese troops occupied Shenyang and soon controlled the whole region of Northeast China. In , the last Manchu emperor, Puyi, returned to Manchuria secretly and collaborated with the Japanese colonial authorities, who claimed they would build a new state for the Manchurians in his homeland. In , Puyi became the emperor of Manchukuo. The Manchukuo government implemented a series of agricultural, industrial, educational, legal, and business reforms. As a de facto colony of Japan, a large number of Japanese and Korean immigrants entered this region. Puyi announced his abdication on August 15, He was arrested on August 19, , by Soviet troops that entered Manchuria, as agreed by the Allied Forces at the Tehran Conference and the Yalta Conference

4: Economy of Manchukuo - Wikipedia

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At various times in antiquity, Han dynasty , Cao Wei dynasty, Western Jin dynasty , Tang dynasty and some other minor kingdoms of China had established control in parts of Manchuria. Various kingdoms of mixed proto-Korean and Tungusic ethnicity, such as Gojoseon , Buyeo , Goguryeo and Balhae were also established in parts of this area. Various ethnic groups and their respective kingdoms, including the Sushen , Donghu , Xianbei , Wuhuan , Mohe and Khitan have risen to power in Manchuria. Balhae From to , the kingdom of Balhae occupied northern Korean peninsula and parts of Manchuria and Primorsky Krai , consisting of the people of the recently fallen Goguryeo kingdom of Korea as an aristocratic class, and the Nanai , the Udege , and the Evenks and descendants of the Tungus -speaking people as a lower class. Balhae was an early feudal medieval state of Eastern Asia, which developed its industry, agriculture, animal husbandry, and had its own cultural traditions and art. People of Balhae maintained political, economic and cultural contacts with the southern Chinese Tang dynasty , as well as Japan. After subduing the Yulou Mohe

Hangul: Manchuria under the Liao and Jin[edit] Main articles: Liao dynasty and Jin dynasty With the Song dynasty to the south, the Khitan people of Western Manchuria, who probably spoke a language related to the Mongolic languages , created the Liao dynasty in the region, which went on to control adjacent parts of Northern China as well. They went on to control parts of Northern China and Mongolia after a series of successful military campaigns. Most of the surviving Khitan either assimilated into the bulk of the Han Chinese and Jurchen population, or moved to Central Asia ; however, it is thought that the Daur people , still living in northern Manchuria, are also descendants of the Khitans. The Jin moved their capital Kaifeng, [8] which fell to Mongols in In , the Jin dynasty collapsed after the siege of Caizhou. The last emperor of the Jin, Emperor Mo , was killed while fighting the Mongols who had breached the walls of the city. Days earlier, his predecessor, Emperor Aizong , committed suicide because he was unable to escape the besieged city. Mongol conquest of the Jin dynasty In , after the conquest of Western Xia , Genghis Khan mobilized an army to conquer the Jin dynasty. His general Jebe and brother Qasar were ordered to reduce the Jurchen cities in Manchuria. However, the Jin forces dispatched a punitive expedition against them. Jebe went there again and the Mongols pushed out the Jins. Puxian Wannu allied with the Mongols in order to secure his position. However, he revolted in after that and fled to an island while the Mongol army invaded Liaoxi , Liaodong , and Khorazm. Fearing of the Mongol pressure, those Khitans fled to Goryeo without permission. But they were defeated by the Mongol- Korean alliance. Genghis Khan “ gave his brothers and Muqali Chinese districts in Manchuria. The Mongols suppressed the Water Tatar rebellion in In Manchuria and Siberia , the Mongols used dogsled relays for their yam. The capital city Karakorum directly controlled Manchuria until the s. In , Naghachu , a Mongol commander of the Mongolia-based Northern Yuan dynasty in Liaoyang province invaded Liaodong with aims of restoring the Mongols to power. Although he continued to hold southern Manchuria, Naghachu finally surrendered to the Ming dynasty in In order to protect the northern border areas the Ming decided to "pacify" the Jurchens in order to deal with its problems with Yuan remnants along its northern border. The Ming solidified control only under Yongle Emperor “ Manchuria during the Ming dynasty[edit] Main article: Manchuria under Ming rule The locations of Jurchen tribes in s. The Ming dynasty took control of Liaoning in , just three years after the expulsion of the Mongols from Beijing. During the reign of the Yongle Emperor in the early 15th century, efforts were made to expand Chinese control throughout entire Manchuria by establishing the Nurgan Regional Military Commission. Mighty river fleets were built in Jilin City , and sailed several times between and ca. Around , a defence wall was constructed to defend the northwestern frontier of Liaodong from a possible threat from the Jurched-Mongol Oriyangan. In

168 the wall was expanded to protect the region from the northeast as well, against attacks from Jianzhou Jurchens. Although similar in purpose to the Great Wall of China, this "Liaodong Wall" was of a simpler design. While stones and tiles were used in some parts, most of the wall was in fact simply an earthen dike with moats on both sides. Over the next several decades, the Jurchen later to be called Manchu, took control over most of Manchuria, the cities of the Ming Liaodong falling to the Jurchen one after another. In 1616, Nurhaci declared himself a khan, and founded the Later Jin dynasty which his successors renamed into Qing dynasty. Manchuria during the Qing dynasty[edit] See also: The conquest of the Amur basin people was completed after the defeat of the Evenk chief Bombogor, in 1689. In 1644, the Manchus took Beijing, overthrowing the Ming dynasty and soon established the Qing dynasty rule over all of China. The Manchus ruled all of China, but they treated their homeland of Manchuria to a special status and ruled it separately. The "Banner" system that in China involved military units originated in Manchuria and was used as a form of government. For decades the Manchu rulers tried to prevent large-scale immigration of Han Chinese, but they failed and the southern parts developed agricultural and social patterns similar to those of North China. The Manchus became a small element in their homeland, although they retained political control until 1911. As Manchu landlords needed the Han peasants to rent their land and grow grain, most Han migrants were not evicted. South of the Stanovoy Mountains, the basin of the Amur and its tributaries belonged to the Qing Empire. In 1858, a weakening Qing Empire was forced to cede Manchuria north of the Amur to Russia under the Treaty of Aigun; however, Qing subjects were allowed to continue to reside, under the Qing authority, in a small region on the now-Russian side of the river, known as the Sixty-Four Villages East of the River. In 1860, at the Convention of Peking, the Russians managed to acquire a further large slice of Manchuria, east of the Ussuri River. As a result, Manchuria was divided into a Russian half known as "Outer Manchuria", and a remaining Chinese half known as "Inner Manchuria". In modern literature, "Manchuria" usually refers to Inner Chinese Manchuria. Inner and Outer Mongolia. The Qing government began to actively encourage Han Chinese citizens to move into Manchuria since then. The Manchu War in 1858 was the first attempt by Russia to expel Chinese from territory it controlled. Hostilities broke out around Vladivostok when the Russians tried to shut off gold mining operations and expel Chinese workers there. The Chinese resisted a Russian attempt to take Askold Island and in response, 2 Russian military stations and 3 Russian towns were attacked by the Chinese, and the Russians failed to oust the Chinese. History of the Russian Far East and Northeast China By the 19th century, Manchu rule had become increasingly sinicized and, along with other borderlands of the Qing Empire such as Mongolia and Tibet, came under the influence of Japan and the European powers as the Qing dynasty grew weaker and weaker. Russian and Japanese encroachment[edit] See also: Some poor Korean farmers moved there. In Chuang Guandong many Han farmers, mostly from Shandong peninsula moved there, attracted by cheap farmland that was ideal for growing soybeans. Japan replaced Russian influence in the southern half of Inner Manchuria as a result of the Russo-Japanese War in 1905. Jiandao in the region bordering Korea, was handed over to Qing dynasty as a compensation for the South Manchurian Railway. From 1911 to 1945 Manchuria was nominally part of the Republic of China. In practice it was controlled by Japan, which worked through local warlords. Japanese influence extended into Outer Manchuria in the wake of the Russian Revolution of 1917, but Outer Manchuria came under Soviet control by 1924. Japan took advantage of the disorder following the Russian Revolution to occupy Outer Manchuria, but Soviet successes and American economic pressure forced Japanese withdrawal. Harbin held the largest Russian population outside of the state of Russia. The Han civilian population was in the process of absorbing and mixing with them when Lattimore wrote his article. For Japan, Manchuria became an essential source of raw materials. Japanese invasion of Manchuria and Manchukuo Map of the Manchukuo state in 1932 Around the time of World War I, Zhang Zuolin, a former bandit Honghuizi established himself as a powerful warlord with influence over most of Manchuria. He was inclined to keep his Manchu army under his control and to keep Manchuria free of foreign influence. The Japanese tried and failed to assassinate him in 1928. They finally succeeded in June 1931. Under Japanese control Manchuria was one of the most brutally run regions in the world, with a systematic campaign of terror and intimidation against the local Russian and Chinese populations including arrests, organised riots and other forms of subjugation. At the end of the 1940s, Manchuria was a trouble spot with Japan, clashing twice with the Soviet

Union. These clashes - at Lake Khasan in and at Khalkhin Gol one year later - resulted in many Japanese casualties. The Soviet Union won these two battles and a peace agreement was signed. However, the regional unrest endured. With the encouragement of the Soviet Union, Manchuria was used as a staging ground during the Chinese Civil War for the Communist Party of China, which emerged victorious in . The treaties of and , which ceded territory north of the Amur, were ambiguous as to which course of the river was the boundary. This ambiguity led to dispute over the political status of several islands. This led to armed conflict in , called the Sino-Soviet border conflict. With the end of the Cold War , this boundary issue was discussed through negotiations. In , Russia agreed to transfer Yinlong Island and one half of Heixiazi Island to China, ending an enduring border dispute. Both islands are found at the confluence of the Amur and Ussuri Rivers, and were until then administered by Russia and claimed by China. The event was meant to foster feelings of reconciliation and cooperation between the two countries by their leaders, but it has also provoked different degrees of dissent on both sides. Russians, especially Cossack farmers of Khabarovsk , who would lose their ploughlands on the islands, were unhappy about the apparent loss of territory. The transfer was carried out on October 14,

Economic History of Manchuria Compiled in Commemoration of the Decennial of the Bank of Chosen by T. Hoshino
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Vries, Peer Published by EH. Stanford University Press, Christopher Mills Isett is associate professor of history at the University of Minnesota and a specialist in the economic history of Manchuria, Taiwan, and China during the Qing dynasty. His book consists of three parts. The second one shows what property and labor relations evolved in the region. The third part presents an analysis of the way in which those relations limited possibilities for economic development. By Qing Manchuria Isett basically means the provinces Heilongjiang, Jilin and Liaoning, especially the southern parts of these last two provinces. The period covered is from , the establishment of Qing rule in most of China Proper, to , the opening of the Manchurian port at Niuzhang. That means that it could and did grow via extension of the market and increasing specialization. When it comes to characterizing the economy of China in early modern times, authors like, again, Pomeranz, Wong and Li Bozhong, have also urged for revision. In the case of early modern China too there is a long tradition, in this case to consider its economy as a clear example of a Malthusian economy in which a sustained increase of the population was bound to lead to over-population and crisis. Isett clearly does not agree. For him the Smithian model, as he defines it, is a model of development, and English. The Malthusian-Ricardian model, as he defines it, in the end stands for non-development and it nicely fits most of the characteristics of the economy of early modern China, including Manchuria. In his approach he clearly is inspired by Robert Brenner. That means that he thinks the dynamism associated with a Smithian economy does not occur in a vacuum but only in specific social and political settings in which, in particular, the existing property relations are essential. To have a Smithian market economy, as he interprets it, the sheer presence of buyers and sellers does not suffice. When it comes to analyzing Malthusian dynamics one has to be aware that those too are not simply the result of the ratio between available resources and population, but have to be placed in a broader social and political context as well. But let us first discuss the actual empirical content of the text. How did things actually work out in Manchuria? Their livelihood was supposed to be taken care of by a labor force primarily consisting of bonded labor. In an extensive and detailed analysis Isett shows that and how this policy failed: The bailiffs in charge of the manors did not heed official policy very much, and although the region from onwards was officially closed to permanent settlement, new settlers kept on coming in. What emerged was a peasant-dominated agriculture in which wage labor was quite exceptional. Manchuria in that sense became a replica of Northern China. Manchurian peasants, buying and selling products and, very occasionally, services, clearly and increasingly were integrated in markets. In absolute terms we are talking about a substantial amount of exchange. Firstly, this is because for him commercialization is a matter of relative and not of absolute amounts and his analysis of the main trade of Manchuria, that in soy beans, has convinced him that, relatively speaking, market exchange was fairly small and much less relevant in Manchuria than in Britain. Even a superficial reading of existing literature suffices to show that China Proper too was far less commercialized than Britain. Manchurian peasants did not, to loosely paraphrase Smith, need to continually exert themselves to find out the most advantageous employment for what capital or labor they could command. The reason is simple: In Manchuria, however, at least for Chinese circumstances, plots continued to be fairly big. Again, the broader context has to be taken into account. In the footsteps of Philip Huang, Isett claims that opting for intensification was not just, and not even necessarily, a matter of the land to labor ratio. It also was a result of a specific rationality of the peasant and his household. Overall, peasants tend to not systematically regard extra input of household labor in terms of calculable extra costs. But that is not all. What according to Isett also played a role, is the fact that, in Manchuria as well as in China, there was no primogeniture. This tended to diminish the size of the existing farms and, with state support, actually precluded the formation of big estates. In the end, Manchurian peasants were integrated into the market under conditions that facilitated merchant extraction of their surplus instead of promoting ways of increasing their labor productivity. Capital costs were too high for the peasants. Direct investment in agriculture by people

with capital was very scarce. The return on their capital was rather unsafe. It was easier to earn money by providing loans to peasants. Merchants were increasingly used by government to provide all kinds of services. Britain, where the peasantry no longer existed as a major social class, developed in a completely different direction. Just think of its commercial farms whose survival as productive units depended on their success on the market; its massive proletarianization; the very substantial increase of labor productivity in the agricultural sector; the relative decrease of the number of people working in it; and the big increase in specialization. Let us come to a general evaluation and start on the positive notes. Isett is quite explicit, not to say somewhat repetitive, about his goals and results. His description and analysis of developments in Manchuria are detailed, clear and convincing. His claim that the actual development of an economy along Smithian lines requires a very specific and persistent kind of behavior, that of the homo oeconomicus of neo classical economics, certainly is to the point. But Isett clearly wants more in his book: For them, so it seems, the term refers to any situation where legally free people engage in substantial market exchange in conditions of fairly free and fair competition. In the specific context they are discussing, i. In both Britain and China market exchange between legally free people was the rule and in both this exchange was substantial, though relatively speaking much smaller in China than in Britain. When it comes to the kind of competition, the term Smithian becomes much more problematic – in particular for the British case! Let us only refer to the role of the state. But considering the fact that Isett is so keen on comparing Smithian Britain and Malthusian China, opportunities are missed here. Government interference in the market, in particular but not only in sectors of the economy that were relevant to foreign trade, was the rule rather than the exception. Even in agriculture, the sector that Isett focuses upon, there was tampering with the market, e. Britain at the time was a fiscal-military, highly interventionist state. The California School focuses on certain parts of China Proper. That also at least gives the impression Isett has a strange way of engaging with it. Is not all the information on Manchuria in that respect something of a detour? Personally I found the permanent switching from Manchuria to China and vice versa not always convincing and not always helpful. In that respect Isett ought to have been more specific about the exact impact of the differences he has found. It would have been helpful had he distinguished between development, growth, and modern economic growth. For Isett Smithian dynamics mean development and growth without any further specification. I think that nevertheless two comments are in order here. In the long run they will inevitably peter out and hit a ceiling, as long as one is dealing with an organic economy. Neither is the question addressed of the connection between Smithian dynamics and so-called modern economic growth, i. He, and most present-day economic historians, clearly would not claim such a revolution simply evolves out of commercialization. Isett is too optimistic when he writes on page that England was already breaking free of Malthusian constraints in the early modern era. He may be right in claiming against the Californians that eighteenth-century Britain was not yet in a Malthusian cul-the-sac. But that does not imply that Britain had got rid of Malthus: The challenge ahead for Isett and other historians who are interested in the Great Divergence and who think its explanation resides in Smithian dynamics, is to look for the exact mechanisms by which these dynamics could have brought about a transition from a pre-industrial to an industrial economy. Isett has proven to be very qualified to take up that challenge. Peer Vries is professor of global economic history, in particular for the early modern era, at the University of Vienna. Apart from various articles dealing with global economic history in that era, he published *Via Peking back to Manchester: Britain, the Industrial Revolution and China* Leiden In the spring of his *A World of Surprising Differences:*

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USA The Economic History of Manchuria The core area of the historic Manchuria the land of the Manchus was the lowland plain enclosed by mountains to the west, north and east but open to the sea on the south. Although this plain was the core area of Manchu territory, the Manchus historical controlled a portion of northern Korea and the coastal area where the Russian city of Vladivostok eastern fortress is located. Manchuria also included the Liao Peninsula which partial encloses the Gulf of Chihli. It is now called the Northeast Beidong. A bit of ethnic history is now necessary for following the economic history of the area. In very ancient times BCE the region was occupied by the Tung-hu tribe. When the Chinese Empire was established c. This Chinese Imperial influence continued up until about AD. In the Khitan tribe gained control of the area, but in AD another tribe, the Juchens, wrested control from the Khitans and became the dominant tribe in the area. In an attempt to forge a new greater Juchen tribal identity the name of the people was changed to Manchu. In , through a historical fiasco, the Manchus captured Beijing, the capital of the Ming Empire, and thereby gained control of most of China, although it took until to make this effective. The empire established by the Manchus was the Qing Empire that lasted until It is said that the invading army which captured Beijing was made up of many tribes; the Manchus were only a small portion. The ethnic affiliations of the Manchus are revealed by the linguistics of their language. Manchu is part of group called the Manchu-Tungus group. This group has vowel harmony which means the vowels are divided into two sets and a word contains only vowels belonging to the same set. The Manchu-Tungus group belongs to the Altaic language family. This family also includes Mongol and Turkish. The Manchukuo Affair In Japan took control of Manchuria and created the puppet state of Manchukuo on the basis that it was not part of China proper. Since China overthrew the Manchu Empire, reasoned the Japanese, an separate Manchu state was called for. Japan poured a great amount of industrial investment in Manchuquo and after World War II this area was the most heavily industrialized in China. But the operations required ongoing subsidization. Because of the large amounts of labor and capital involved the government had no choice but to provide the subsidies needed, but it did not give the plants the funds that were needed to update their equipment. This made it more difficult to compete and subsequently the Northeast became a rust belt. Japanese businesses offered the hope of joint ventures which would supply the necessary capital to update the equipment in the region.

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Manchuria is a region in East Asia. Depending on the definition of its extent, Manchuria can either refer to a region falling entirely within China, or a larger region today divided between Northeast China and the Russian Far East.

See Article History Alternative Titles: Strictly speaking, it consists of the modern provinces of Liaoning south, Jilin central, and Heilongjiang north. Often, however, the northeastern portion of the Inner Mongolia Autonomous Region also is included. Manchuria is bounded by Russia northwest, north, and east, North Korea south, and the province of Hebei southwest. Manchuria to about Prior to the 17th century, the history of Manchuria was shaped by three converging ethnic groups: The Tungus from which several groups emerged were forest and plain dwellers who had a mixed economy of agriculture, fishing, hunting, and livestock breeding. The Mongols and Proto-Mongols were nomadic pastoralists who occupied the grasslands of the eastern rim of the Mongolian Plateau and the eastern slope of the Da Hinggan Greater Khingan Range. The agricultural Chinese migrated from the north of China to cultivate the soil of the rich Liao Plain in southern Manchuria. The successive hegemonies and kingdoms in Manchuria resulted from violent clashes among these ethnic groups. Prehistoric Manchuria was the eastern terminus of a natural highway for nomadic peoples who moved across the great Eurasian plain from the Volga River to the Korean peninsula. As early as bce, certain Manchurian tribes are mentioned in Chinese sources. The earliest settlement of Chinese colonies in southern Manchuria began about the 3rd century bce. Chinese immigration into southern Manchuria accelerated during the following centuries: During the chaotic period following the collapse of the Han empire, China was able to maintain only a loose hegemony over Manchuria. Under the Sui and Tang dynasties, China was able to reassert some control over south Manchuria. Centred in the modern province of Jilin, Bohai at its height covered nearly the whole of Manchuria and northern Korea. With the collapse of the Tang dynasty in 907, the Mongol subgroup known as the Khitan gradually gained ascendancy in Manchuria and began expanding south against China and west against the Turkic nations. In 937 the Khitan forces overthrew Bohai. At the height of its power, the Khitan empire under its reigning Liao dynasty occupied practically the whole of Manchuria, part of northern Korea, part of North China, and the greater part of the Mongolian Plateau. In the late 11th century there ensued a marked decline in the administrative efficiency and military prowess of the Khitan empire. The non-Khitan subjects staged frequent rebellions against their overlord. Of particular importance among these rebels were the Juchen tribes, a group of Tungus peoples who lived beyond the Liao frontier but were in a tributary relationship to the Liao court. In 1125, the paramount chief of the Juchen, signaled the drastic decline of Khitan power by proclaiming the establishment of the Jin kingdom. An alliance between the Juchen Jin kingdom and the Chinese Song dynasty succeeded in destroying the Liao empire in 1125. After the destruction of their common enemy, the Jin turned against the Song. In 1127 the Juchen sacked the Song capital, and the Song court retreated to the south, where it existed as the Nan Southern Song dynasty. The Juchen decided to incorporate the occupied Song territory into their own domain, and in 1127 their capital was moved from Manchuria to Yanjing modern Beijing. By then, however, the formidable Jin military machine had become moribund and was an easy prey to the Mongols, who rose to power in the Mongolian Plateau in the 12th century. In 1211 the Mongols invaded Jin under the leadership of the great Genghis Khan, and by 1234 Jin had succumbed to the combined pressure of the Mongols and the Song Chinese. Occupying the whole of Manchuria, the Mongols made it one province, the Liaoyang. In 1279 the Mongols completed the conquest of China, having already established the Yuan dynasty. The victorious Chinese established a native dynasty the Ming, pursued the Mongols into the steppes, and reinstated Chinese rule over the Liaodong Peninsula. During the 15th and 16th centuries the Mongols regained their strength and began pressing upon the Chinese frontier. As a result, the Ming position in Manchuria gradually deteriorated, and by the 17th century the Juchen were strong enough to challenge the Ming rule. It was the Jianzhou tribes under the leadership of Nurhachi who succeeded in forging a new and greater Juchen empire. Beginning in 1616, Nurhachi led a series of campaigns that ultimately brought all the Juchen tribes under his control. Nurhachi named his dynasty Jin,

sometimes called the Hou Later Jin, in an attempt to rekindle the desire for imperial greatness among the Juchen people. Abahai adopted the name Manchu for his people and changed the dynastic designation from Jin to Qing. In the Manchu, with the help of dissident Chinese, established themselves as the new rulers of China. Although the Chinese had colonized the Liao Plain more than a thousand years before and had made it a centre of Chinese cultural influence, they had never been able to secure a foothold in central and north Manchuria, which remained predominantly a preserve of tribal groups. Paradoxically, it was during the period of Manchu ascendancy that the Chinese succeeded in penetrating the Sungari and Amur valleys. Until the Qing government encouraged Chinese immigration to Liaodong in order to revive its economy. After Chinese immigration was restricted. But the Manchu soon had to modify their exclusion policy when they were forced to strengthen the thinly spread Manchu garrisons in the Amur River valley with Chinese recruits to counter the eastward march of Russian power in the area. The flow of immigration became a flood tide in the 19th and 20th centuries as the Qing government actively sponsored planned colonization of virgin lands in Jilin and Heilongjiang. The growing Chinese presence helped the Manchurian economy develop from primitive self-sufficiency to an important centre of international trade. The great Manchuria frontier was thus inexorably Sinicized by Chinese colonists: The conflict between Russia and Japan for the control of Manchuria first raged over the possession of the Liaodong Peninsula. But Russia, backed by France and Germany, compelled Japan to abandon this claim. After its defeat, Russia ceded to Japan all its interests in southern Manchuria. Library of Congress, Washington, D. After the Chinese Revolution of , Manchuria came under the nominal control of the local warlord Zhang Zuolin , who was forced to grant the Japanese vast concessions in the region in return for their tacit military support. Guandong; at the tip of the Liaodong Peninsula for 99 years and to grant the Japanese far-reaching civil and commercial privileges in Manchuria. During the Chinese civil war Japan exercised a controlling influence in south Manchuria with the support of its Kwantung Army. The overambitious Zhang Zuolin ran afoul of the Japanese and was assassinated in His more patriotic son and successor, Zhang Xueliang , ignored Japanese warnings and decided to cast his lot with the Nationalist government in Nanjing. The Chinese Nationalist Kuomintang government in Nanjing chose not to resist the Japanese, as they were ill equipped to mount a full-scale war against Japan and their support base was weak. This response enabled the Japanese to occupy all of Manchuria within five months. On March 9, , the Japanese created the puppet state of Manchukuo Pinyin: Manzhouguo out of the three historical Manchurian provinces. The Japanese took over the direction, financing, and development of all the important Manchurian industries, with the fortunate result that by the end of World War II Manchuria was the most industrialized region in China. Manchuria was a land under Japanese colonial rule from to After the fall of Manchuria, many former Manchurian soldiers, aided by armed civilians, cooperated with the Chinese communist underground in organizing a vast anti-Japanese guerrilla movement. At the Yalta Conference of February , Soviet premier Joseph Stalin demanded the restoration of all former Russian rights and privileges in Manchuria as a price for Soviet entry into the Pacific war, an offer readily accepted by his fellow Allied heads of state. In May , Soviet troops began to move from Europe to Asia. By August 15 the war was over, however. The next day the Manchukuo emperor Puyi was captured by the Russians. Having struck a good bargain for joining the war, the Soviets now plundered Manchuria as a conquered territory, systematically confiscating food, gold bullion, industrial machinery, and other stockpiles. To the Nationalist government the political damage of the Soviet occupation of Manchuria was even greater than the economic ravages. Under the protection of the Soviet army, the underground Chinese communist guerrillas there united with communist forces from North China to form the United Democratic Army. Equipped with Japanese arms turned over to them by the Russians, the communist force occupied much of Manchuria. Nationalist progress in taking over the major Manchurian cities was slow. The United States, the major supplier of arms and equipment to the Nationalists, at first had discouraged the Nationalists from military intervention in Manchuria, opting instead to sponsor negotiations aimed at peacefully resolving the differences between the Nationalists and communists. By June the Nationalists had occupied Changchun , but by then the communists were well established in the countryside. Nearly , of the elite Nationalist troops found themselves surrounded by communists in Changchun, Shenyang, Jinzhou , and Yingkou. The communist rehabilitation of the Manchurian economy began with land reform in ,

and by the end of all the lands had been redistributed among the peasants. The power of the landlords was eliminated. Industrially, the initial task of the communists was to reconstruct industrial plants so that Manchuria could serve as a major base for the further industrialization of China. Today it is still one of the industrial heartlands of China. Learn More in these related Britannica articles:

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