

Developments in the Situation in China and Their Impact on the German Presence, 1902–1908.

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Abstract

Successive Chinese governors (Zhou Fu, Yang Shixiang, and Yuan Shikai) pursued a cautious policy in Shandong Province aimed at excluding German experts and replacing them with Americans and Japanese to safeguard Chinese decision-making and circumvent the terms of the Kiaochow Treaty, which had mandated that trainers be German. Japan's victory in the Russo-Japanese War and the resulting Treaty of Portsmouth—which replaced Russian influence with Japanese influence in Manchuria—led to the diplomatic isolation of Germany. This prompted German Chancellor Bülow to advise German Emperor Wilhelm II to curb expansionist ambitions in Shandong for fear of expulsion by Japan and Britain. Furthermore, German and Chinese efforts to establish a secret alliance with the United States to counter Japanese expansion ultimately failed.

Keywords: China, Germany, Shandong, Qing, Krupp

Introduction

The beginning of the twentieth century witnessed significant shifts in the Chinese political landscape. The Qing government was compelled to implement administrative and military reforms to save the Chinese Empire from the threat of internal revolutions and external pressures. Shandong Province emerged as a major arena for these political and military changes, as the Chinese leadership attempted to restrict the growing German influence in China.

These internal developments were not isolated from regional shifts; the Russo-Japanese War of 1904–1905 effectively redrew the map of power dynamics in the Far East. The rise of Japan as a major power in place of Russia prompted Germany, China, and the United States of America to pursue a strictly confidential tripartite alliance aimed at protecting Chinese territory and ensuring the continuity of the Open Door Policy.

From this context arises the significance of our research paper, titled "**International Rivalry in China and Attempts to Restrict the German Role, 1902–1908.**" The study is structured as follows: an introduction; a first section examining the German military role in China and the attempts to limit it up to 1907; and a second section addressing the Russo-Japanese War of 1904–1905 and its impact on the German presence in China. The paper concludes with a summary of the primary findings reached by the researcher.

First: The German Military Role in China and Attempts to Limit It, 1902–1907

The Qing government initiated its educational and military reforms at the beginning of 1902 by dispatching five ministers, led by Tsai Tse,¹ the Chinese Minister of Finance, to Germany and other foreign nations. The mission was tasked with observing their governments and studying their constitutional frameworks for potential implementation in China. Upon the committee's return, each member recommended adopting the Japanese legal model, which was fundamentally derived from the German Constitution.² Furthermore, Chinese envoys abroad emphasized that such a constitution would remain far from infringing upon the authority of the imperial family.³

Toward the end of its rule, the Qing dynasty began working to curb the German presence in Shandong Province by downsizing their roles in civil service positions. The Tsinan (Jinan) government enlisted foreign experts of various nationalities to prevent the Germans from monopolizing the appointment of foreign advisors to the province, or controlling commercial transactions between the provincial government and foreign firms.

Yuan Shikai proactively pursued a clear policy aimed at avoiding the employment of German personnel. When the governor established Cheeloo University, he appointed the American missionary Watson Hayes⁴ as its president. He justified this choice to the central government in Beijing not only by citing Hayes's competence, but also by pointing to the peaceful nature of the relations binding the United States to China.⁵

While Yuan Shikai utilized some Japanese teachers, he did not appoint any new German personnel. The Germans raised no objections to this, deciding instead to focus their insistence on ensuring that the military trainers operating in the province remained exclusively German. Although the Germans would have welcomed employment in civil fields, Yuan's refusal to utilize German advisors reflected a Chinese willingness to bear additional financial burdens in order to assert the independence of Chinese decision-making.⁶

After Zhou Fu¹ assumed governance of Shandong in 1902 as the successor to Yuan Shikai, he pursued a new policy regarding the employment of Germans. Diverging from Yuan's approach, Zhou Fu began appointing Germans to both civil and military posts, alongside enlisting foreign experts of other nationalities. It appears that Zhou did not hesitate to utilize German expertise, given its reasonable cost. For instance, when he established a modern hospital in Tsinan (Jinan) in 1903, he appointed a German naval doctor to head it. While Zhou was not legally bound to employ German civilians, his inclination to do so is attributed to his confidence in German competence, contrasting with his predecessor's stance.²

On the military front, cooperation between the German firm Krupp and China in 1903 centered on technical collaboration, the field monitoring of weaponry, and strategic intelligence cooperation. The German Minister in Beijing, Maximilian von Brandt,³ played a primary role during this year. He capitalized on the presence of technical flaws in the artillery pieces exported to China to summon technical representatives from the Krupp company in Essen. The objective of this step was to reassure Chinese officials, such as Li Hung-chang,⁴ of the quality of German armaments.⁵

This move effectively blocked French competition from the Schneider company,⁶ which was striving to reclaim its position in the Chinese market. Furthermore, Krupp's overseas sales representatives were required to provide German embassies with detailed military intelligence reports regarding the capabilities and fortifications of the host nations in which they operated. Consequently, during this period, China became an open market that could not dispense with German military expertise and technology. These sales contributed to a steady flow of Chinese gold into the city of Essen in exchange for weapons and steel, thereby enhancing the company's wealth and global industrial standing. Notably, these sales were not limited to armaments but also included steel for the construction of railway networks.⁷

Zhou came under direct German pressure regarding the recruitment of military personnel. In early 1903, as deliberations began for appointing new foreign military trainers, the German consul informed him that the Kiaochow Treaty stipulated these instructors must be exclusively German.¹ Consequently, Zhou appointed two trainers under the guise that they were both German, though it was later revealed that one of them was Austrian. This choice appears to have been an attempt to circumvent German demands² amidst the governor's anxiety over the expansion of German influence in Shandong. Furthermore, Zhou resorted to employing Japanese personnel who performed duties closely resembling military training; however, they were officially designated as "teachers," which effectively prevented any German objections. This limited appointment of Germans failed to consolidate their influence in Tsinan (Jinan), a reality that became starkly evident in 1904.³

Similarly, the German military trainer Seckendorff requested the transfer of certain Chinese military cadets to Qingdao for training instead of sending them to Japan. He argued that dispatching them to Japan had become too costly, and that their training there weakened the leverage of German instructors.⁴ This proposal was rejected by the commander of the German naval base, Oskar von Truppel,⁵ who cited a shortage of his own personnel and staff. This rejection likely reflects the German Navy's own abandonment of attempts to consolidate its influence through the local military in Shandong via regular army and military channels.⁶

Yang Shixiang⁷ followed Yuan's approach of avoiding the employment of Germans, expanding this policy into the military sphere. In 1906, the German consul in Tsinan reported that Germans had become the least fortunate of all nationalities in securing government employment within the province, noting that those who remained only held their posts due to prior appointments made by Zhou Fu. The consul clarified that Chinese officials were now openly declaring their discomfort with hiring Germans for fear of expanding their influence, and that the current governor had become increasingly reliant on the Japanese and other foreign experts. By the end of 1906, German military trainers had lost their positions, and it is highly probable that the Japanese replaced them. Consequently, it can be argued that by 1907, the Germans had not only lost their control over the appointment of foreign advisors, but their previous demands for exclusive rights—particularly in Shandong—had effectively diminished their employment opportunities, despite their competence, especially in military affairs.⁸

Second: The Russo-Japanese War (1904–1905) and Its Impact on the German Presence in China

Japan requested that the Russian government respect the territorial integrity of China in Manchuria.¹ However, the Russian government utilized procrastination and stalling tactics in responding to the Japanese government's memoranda. As a result, Japan decided to expel the Russians from Korea and Manchuria, capitalizing on several strategic advantages: its geographic proximity to Korea and Manchuria compared to Russia's distance from the theater of operations, the containment of the conflict strictly within Northeast Asia, and the diplomatic isolation of Russia. Japan severed diplomatic ties with Russia on February 5, 1904, initiating a series of land and naval battles in which Japan emerged victorious over Russia.

The Japanese victory over Russia intensified the anxieties of the United States regarding potential Japanese hegemony over the Far East, particularly after Great Britain withdrew its naval vessels from East Asian regional waters. While Japan successfully secured victories against the Russians throughout the war, it simultaneously feared a repeat of the 1895 scenario—wherein European powers intervened collectively following the First Sino-Japanese War to strip Japan of the fruits of its victory.²

Consequently, Japan turned to the United States to request its mediation to end the war. Both combatant parties responded to the mediation efforts of American President Theodore Roosevelt.³ The peace

conference convened in the city of Portsmouth, where the two sides signed the Treaty of Portsmouth in September 1905. The treaty stipulated the following:⁴

1. Japan obtained the lease of Port Arthur, including the railway line connecting the port to the city of Mukden in Manchuria.
2. Japan secured fishing rights in Siberian waters.
3. Russia recognized Japan's annexation of Korea.
4. Japan assumed control over infrastructure and development projects in Manchuria, most notably the South Manchuria Railway.

Through these terms, Japan established a firm and powerful foothold on the Asian mainland, achieving political, military, and economic supremacy in Korea, and automatically replacing Russia in dominating southern Manchuria.⁵

In January 1905, as a consequence of the developments unfolding from the war, German Chancellor Bernhard von Bülow⁶ dispatched a letter to German Emperor Wilhelm II. He asserted that the situation necessitated a radical overhaul of German policy in China. The Chancellor anticipated that Russia and England would reconcile after the war, a development that would grant England the freedom to pursue its desire to expel the Germans from the Yangtze River region. Bülow noted that a series of articles in the British press had begun paving the way for this plan, complaining of the penetration of German economic influence into the Yangtze River basin and alleging that Germany intended to transform the entire province into a colony.

Bülow argued that to maintain Germany's position along the Yangtze River, the German Reich had to suppress any outward manifestation of expansionist motives in Shandong. He reassured Emperor Wilhelm II that these new, restrained policies in Shandong did not mean Germany would be forced to completely abandon its standing there.⁷

As a result of the Russo-Japanese War, Germany's diplomatic isolation reached a critical juncture, prompting the German government to begin pulling back from expanding its sphere of influence. Furthermore, the war exposed Russia's domestic and military weaknesses, effectively paving the way for the termination of the Anglo-Russian rivalry and leading to their subsequent alignment.⁸

Germany attempted to utilize these events to strengthen its negotiating position in the Far East and alleviate pressure in East Asia. The ongoing international rivalry initially afforded the German Reich leverage in the Far East and temporarily mitigated the pressure exerted by England on Germany. However, Japan's victory and its rising military prowess raised the probability that the Japanese—having attained significant economic dominance in Shandong—would soon oppose the continuation of German hegemony there. This coincided with Britain's desire to drive the Germans out of the Yangtze River; newspapers in both England and Japan launched a broad press campaign against the German Reich, attacking Germany's ambitions to control Shandong.⁹

In October 1907, encouraged by the German representative in Beijing, the Chinese government contacted U.S. President Roosevelt to discuss a potential German-American-Chinese arrangement to protect China from Japanese expansion. The German Emperor believed that President Theodore Roosevelt would readily acquiesce to the proposal. However, Bülow was well aware that the American President did not possess absolute freedom of action in foreign affairs. He also recognized that this proposal might cause Germany and the United States to interpret the Open Door Policy in their own unilateral way, which would practically mean closing it in the faces of other nations. This specific blueprint was unacceptable to the Americans, who were already making their own diplomatic arrangements to reach an understanding with Japan.¹⁰

Information emerged indicating that Chinese representatives in Berlin and Washington had indeed received instructions to sound out their respective host governments regarding an alliance. However, these instructions were initially mere assessments of the general sentiment in Germany and America toward China concerning the feasibility of such a pact. It appeared that a more attainable objective worth pursuing was a treaty between Germany, America, and China that would guarantee Chinese territorial integrity while granting these powers compensation in the form of specific commercial rights, which were to remain strictly confidential. Among the matters slated for discussion under this framework was granting German and American firms exclusive priority for all Chinese ordnance orders, and potentially a general option on all Chinese state loans placed abroad. Alternatively, a treaty could be concluded secretly from China between Germany, America, and Russia, whereby these three powers would agree to act jointly against Japan if the latter seized territory within China proper north of the Yellow (Huang He) River, or attacked the German concession of Kiaochow.¹¹

Ultimately, concluding a formal treaty of alliance between Germany, China, and the United States proved exceptionally difficult, primarily because the executive branch of the United States could not secure the necessary ratification from the U.S. Senate.¹² This impasse prompted China to request that the United States support a policy based on granting no further territorial concessions to any foreign power and keeping the Open Door policy active for all nations. Under this approach, Germany and the United States were to declare their alignment with this policy while simultaneously reaffirming to China their commitment to preserving its integrity and independence.¹³

It was thought that if such notes were exchanged and adopted in Washington, the other three powers (France, Russia, and Japan) would not object to it—especially since France and Japan had recently reached agreements without inviting China to participate. Such an outcome would also satisfy China; the exchange of diplomatic notes would inform the other powers that the mutual interest of Germany and the United States in the survival of China was the core of the matter. China was expected to prefer a declaration of this nature over a formal treaty of alliance explicitly limited to the eighteen provinces of the Empire proper, since a rigid treaty might leave Chinese territories outside the outer boundaries vulnerable to aggression by third parties.¹⁴

In response to these developments, Prince Bülow sent a directive to Count von Rex stating:

"We must under all circumstances avoid the secret arrangements which your Excellency suggested regarding the concessions to be granted to us by China, because they run counter to the 'Open Door' principle and would not be kept secret either in China or in Washington. Fully confidentially and for your personal guidance, I add that we must avoid giving the impression that we are particularly anxious for an 'exchange of declarations. The initiative must come from China. Please quietly urge the Chinese to begin negotiations as soon as possible. These negotiations must naturally be kept strictly secret by the Chinese as well until they are completed. However, the time is not yet ripe to speak of a wider understanding between Germany, Russia, and the United States at present."¹⁵

Conclusion and Findings

The primary findings reached through this study are as follows:

1. Based on the arguments presented above, it can be concluded that the period between 1902 and 1908 was a decisive phase in restricting and diminishing both the military and civil roles of Germany in China. Successive Chinese governors successfully replaced German personnel with Japanese and American experts.
2. The diplomatic shifts that followed the Russo-Japanese War demonstrated the depth of the dilemma faced by the German Reich. Germany's strategy shifted from pursuing colonial expansion

to merely scrambling to preserve its economic presence in Shandong Province and the Yangtze River basin against British and Japanese designs aimed at its expulsion.

3. The failed attempts to forge a German-Chinese-American alliance revealed that the German blueprint collided directly with the U.S. Senate's constraints and Washington's strict adherence to the Open Door Policy. Consequently, Germany's leverage in the Asian sphere of influence plummeted, redrawing the regional balance of power as the outbreak of the First World War approached.

¹ **Tsai Tse:** Born in 1876 in Beijing, he held the title of "Duke" and married the niece of the Empress Dowager, which granted him immense influence within the imperial palace. He was a well-educated and open-minded young man whom the Empress sent abroad to study systems of governance. He visited Germany, met with Emperor Wilhelm II, and was deeply impressed by its industrial and military progress. Admiring the German model, he convinced the imperial court upon his return that a constitution was the only means to prevent the ruling dynasty from falling to revolutions. He died in 1929. See: Liao Gailong, Lu Shoufeng, Fan Yuan: *Dictionary of Chinese Names: Historical Figures Volume*, Shanghai Lexicographical Publishing House, 1990, p. 199.

² **The German Constitution:** This refers to the constitutional document granted by the Prussian monarchy in 1850 following the 1848 revolutions in Europe. This constitution is classified as a "granted constitution," meaning it was bestowed by the King upon the people as an act of royal grace rather than originating from a free of popular will. Among its primary characteristics, it stipulated that the King held absolute sovereignty

as well as legislative and executive authority in cooperation with the parliament. Under this constitution, the King served as the Supreme Commander of the Armed Forces; he was responsible for appointing and dismissing ministers and possessed the right of absolute veto laws. The parliamentary system consisted of two chambers: the House of Lords, which included nobles and the aristocracy appointed by the King for life, and the House of Representatives, which was elected by the people but through a three-class franchise system. This latter feature was the aspect that most significantly drew the attention of Asian nations; voters were divided into three classes based on the amount of taxes they paid. The first class consisted of the very wealthy, yet it held the same voting weight as the third class, which comprised the poor and laborers. Consequently, the wealthy and the nobility dominated parliament, ensuring that revolutionaries were barred from attaining power.

See: Walter Fairleigh Dodd, *Modern Constitutions: A Collection of the Fundamental Laws of Twenty-Two of the Most Important Countries of the World*, University of Chicago Press, 2009, pp. 70–77.

¹ Mechthild Leutner, *Op. Cit.*, pp. 232–233.

² **Watson Hayes:** Born in 1857 in the U.S. state of Pennsylvania, he was a Protestant missionary and a university professor. He co-founded and presided over Cheeloo University, which was among the first modern universities in China, and established the North China Theological Seminary, serving as its first president. He played an advisory role in 1901 when summoned by Governor Yuan Shikai to assist in the founding of Shandong University. He died in China in 1944. **See:** Charles Hodge Corbett, *Shantung Christian University (Cheeloo)*, United Board for Christian Colleges in China, 1955, pp. 19–21.

³ Archives of German Foreign Office, Dept I, file entitled *Kiautschou und die deutschen Interessen in Schantung*, Yuan Shikai, *Selected Memorials*, 10:8, Nov 4, 1901, p. 44.

⁴ A.G.F., Dept I, file entitled *Kiautschou und die deutschen*, Goltz to Bülow, 10:51, Mar 3, 1903, p. 48.

⁵ **Zhou Fu:** Born in 1837 in Anhui Province, he was a Chinese official who succeeded the famous leader Yuan Shikai as the governor of Shandong Province. He permitted the expansion of German railways but insisted on protecting Chinese sovereignty in the surrounding areas. He died in 1921. See: Demetrius Charles Boulger, *The Life of Sir Halliday Macartney, K.C.M.G.*, Cambridge University Press, 2011, p. 343.

⁶ A.G.F., Dept I, file entitled *Kiautschou und die deutschen*, Mumm to Foreign Office, 11:12, June 27, 1903, p. 50.

¹ **Maximilian von Brandt:** Born in 1835, he was a prominent nineteenth-century German diplomat who played a significant role in relations between Germany and East Asia. He served as Germany's official diplomatic envoy to China, working to sign commercial agreements and establish political relations between the two nations. He acquired an extensive knowledge of East Asian culture and history, earning him high regard within diplomatic circles in Beijing. He died in 1921. See: Max von Brandt, *Dreiunddreissig Jahre in Ost-Asien: Erinnerungen eines deutschen Diplomaten*, Vol. 1, Wigand, 1901, pp. 47–49.

² **Li Hung-chang (Li Hongzhang):** Born in 1823 in Anhui Province, he was one of the most prominent statesmen in China during the late Qing dynasty. He served as Viceroy and Governor-General of several critical provinces and played a vital role in foreign concessions within China. His name was closely linked with railway projects, foreign banks, and European arms companies, such as Germany's Krupp. He died in 1901. See: John King Fairbank and Merle Goldman, *China: A New History*, Second enlarged edition, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts / London, England, 2006, pp. 111–115.

³ William Manchester, *The Arms of Krupp 1587–1968*, Little, Brown and Company, New York / Boston / London, 2003, pp. 63–75.

⁴ **Schneider:** An international French company founded in 1836 when the brothers Adolphe and Joseph Eugène Schneider purchased an iron, steel, and heavy armaments factory. Over time, the company expanded into modern electrical and energy fields. See: Philip Jowett, *Chinese Warlord Armies 1911–30*, Osprey Publishing Ltd, 2012, p. 24.

⁵ William Manchester, *Op. Cit.*, pp. 64–72.

⁶ A.G.F., Dept I, file entitled *Kiautschou und die deutschen*, Goltz to Bülow, 10:51, Mar 3, 1903, p. 51; Mumm to Foreign Office, 11:12, June 27, 1903, p. 55.

⁷ A.G.F., Dept I, file entitled *Kiautschou und die deutschen*, Mumm to Foreign Office, 11:12, June 27, 1903, p. 53.

⁸ A.G.F., Dept I, file entitled *Kiautschou und die deutschen*, Mumm to Bülow, 11:18, Nov 25, 1903, p. 55.

⁹ A.G.F., Dept I, file entitled *Kiautschou und die deutschen*, Truppel to Seckendorff, 13:19, Sept 7, 1904, p. 62.

¹⁰ **Oskar von Truppel:** Born in 1854 in Germany, he was a German naval officer who attained the rank of Vice Admiral in the Imperial German Navy. He initially served as a naval lieutenant and participated in numerous naval and land services. Following the death of the previous governor of the Kiaochow concession territory, he was appointed as its governor in 1901, a post he held for ten years. He died in 1931. See: Demetrius Charles Boulger, *Op. Cit.*, p. 66.

¹¹ A.G.F., Dept I, file entitled *Kiautschou und die deutschen*, Seckendorff to Truppel, 13:19, Aug 22, 1904, p. 60.

¹² **Yang Shixiang:** Born in 1860, he began his professional career as a member of the scholar-official class after passing the rigorous Chinese imperial examinations. He drew attention due to his intelligence and negotiating capabilities, which brought him close to senior statesmen such as Li Hung-chang and Yuan Shikai. He was tasked with managing interactions with German colonialism in the Kiaochow region, succeeding in containing German ambitions and preventing the expansion of their military influence beyond the agreed-upon zones. He was appointed to the position of Viceroy (Governor-General) of Zhili (Chihli), which was the most critical administrative post in China because it surrounded the capital, Beijing. He died in 1909. See: Demetrius Charles Boulger, *Op. Cit.*, p. 457.

¹³ A.G.F., Dept I, file entitled *Kiautschou und die deutschen*, Betz to Bülow, May 26, 1906, p. 16.

¹⁴ **Manchuria:** The historical homeland of the Manchu dynasty (Qing) which ruled China from 1644 to 1912. It extends from north to south in northeastern China, covering an area of approximately 1,160,000 square kilometers across a length of 1,500 kilometers, and stretching nearly 1,499 kilometers from east to west. It is bounded to the north by Russia (the later Soviet Union), to the south by the Korean Peninsula, to the east by the Sea of Japan, and to the west by Mongolia. Its historic administrative center is Mukden (Shenyang). Manchuria is highly rich in primary raw materials such as coal and iron, alongside its renown for diverse agricultural production. See: Kifah Jumaa and Jarr Al-Saedi, *Internal Political Developments in China 1931–1949*, (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation), College of Education - Mustansiriyah University, 2012, p. 41; Wolfram Eberhard, *A History of China*, London, 1960, p. 316.

¹⁵ Hussein Hammad Abdul Rajab, "Land and Naval Battles in the Russo-Japanese War (1904–1905)," *Malwiya Journal for Archaeological and Historical Studies*, Vol. 6, No. 15, February 2019, p. 36; Roman Koudelka, *British Policy in China and Russo-Japanese Rivalry in the Far East*, New York, 1988, p. 262.

¹⁶ **Theodore Roosevelt:** Born in 1858 to a wealthy family in New York. He was a sickly child who suffered from severe asthma but transformed himself through an active outdoor life, strenuous exercise, and sports into a man of robust physique and an avid adventurer. He served as the 26th President of the United States of America (1901–1909). He entered Harvard College in 1876 and graduated in 1880. In 1882, he published his first historical book, *The Naval War of 1812*. He subsequently held various public offices; in 1897, he was appointed Assistant Secretary of the U.S. Navy, where he actively prepared the fleet for the Spanish-American War of 1898. He is considered one of the most influential figures in modern American history. He died in 1919. See: *Biography of Theodore Roosevelt*, Dodo Press, 1985, pp. 67–98; Theodore Roosevelt, *An Autobiography*, Harper Torchbooks.

¹⁷ Emad Karim Abbas, *The Russo-Japanese War 1904–1905*, College of Arts - Anbar University, p. 3.

¹⁸ Muhammad Yunis Abdullah Al-Yasiri, "The Reform Movement in Japan: The Military Aspect and Its Impact on East Asia (1868–1912)," College of Basic Education - Missan University, *Missan Research Journal*, Vol. 29, June 2019, p. 9.

¹⁹ **Bernhard von Bülow:** Born into a distinguished, long-standing diplomatic family; his father served as State Secretary for Foreign Affairs, which granted him an early understanding of the inner workings of political power. In 1900, Emperor Wilhelm II appointed him Chancellor of the German Empire, succeeding Hohenlohe. He was considered the Emperor's preferred Chancellor due to his political maneuvering skills, his ability to retain imperial favor, and his pursuit of transforming Germany from a continental European power into a global empire (*Weltpolitik*). He was forced to resign in 1909 after failing to pass a fiscal budget through the Reichstag and losing the support of the Emperor. He died in 1929. See: Peter Winzen, *Reichskanzler Bernhard von Bülow: Mit Weltmachtphantasien in den Ersten Weltkrieg; Eine politische Biographie*, Verlag Friedrich Pustet, Regensburg, 2013, pp. 55–73.

¹ John E. Schrecker, *Op. Cit.*, p. 147.

² **The Anglo-Russian Entente:** A diplomatic convention concluded between Great Britain, under King Edward VII, and the Russian Empire, under Tsar Nicholas II. The agreement was signed on August 31, 1907, in the city of St. Petersburg, aimed primarily at settling longstanding colonial disputes in Central Asia. Following this accord, Russia joined the existing Anglo-French alliance framework to form the Triple Entente, the geopolitical bloc that confronted Germany and its allies during the First World War. **See:** Saad Haqi Tawfiq, *History of International Relations*, College of Political Science - Baghdad University, 2009, p. 122.

³ John E. Schrecker, *Op. Cit.*, p. 146.

⁴ *German Diplomatic Documents 1871–1914: Vol. IV, The Growing Antagonism, 1898–1910*, Translated by E.T.S. Dugdale, New York / London, 1930, Secret Dispatch: Baron Speck von Sternburg in Washington to Prince von Bülow, September 9th, 1907, p. 262.

⁵ *G.D.D.*, Secret Extract: Count von Rex in Peking to Prince von Bülow, December 7th, 1907, pp. 264–265.

⁶ **The Senate:** The upper chamber of the United States Congress (the legislative branch of the United States), which alongside the House of Representatives comprises the nation's legislative authority. The Senate consists of 100 members, with each U.S. state represented by two senators regardless of its geographical size or population, ensuring structural equality between small and large states. Senators are elected for a six-year term, with elections held every two years to renew one-third of the seats. Candidates must be at least 30 years of age and a U.S. citizen for no less than 9 years. The Vice President of the United States serves as the President of the Senate but only casts a vote to break a tie. The Senate holds exclusive constitutional powers, including advising and consenting to presidential appointments of cabinet secretaries, Supreme Court justices, and ambassadors, as well as ratifying international treaties. **See:** William S. White, *Citadel: The Story of the U.S. Senate*, New York, Harper & Brothers, 1957, pp. 45–68.

⁷ *G.D.D.*, Secret Document: Von Schoen (German Foreign Office) to Baron Speck von Sternburg in Washington, January 20th, 1908, p. 266.

⁸ *G.D.D.*, Secret Document: Von Schoen (German Foreign Office) to Baron Speck von Sternburg in Washington, January 20th, 1908, p. 266.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 266.