

Chapter 1 : Glimpses on History of Tibet | Central Tibetan Administration

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British expedition to Tibet Save The British expedition to Tibet, also known as the British invasion of Tibet or the Younghusband expedition to Tibet began in December and lasted until September. The expedition was effectively a temporary invasion by British Indian forces under the auspices of the Tibet Frontier Commission, whose purported mission was to establish diplomatic relations and resolve the dispute over the border between Tibet and Sikkim. The Tibetan Ganden Phodrang regime, which was then under administrative rule of the Qing dynasty, remained the only Himalayan state free of British influence. The Dalai Lama had fled to safety, first in Mongolia and later in China, but thousands of Tibetans armed with antiquated muzzle-loaders and swords had been mown down by modern rifles and Maxim machine guns while attempting to block the British advance. At Lhasa, the Commission forced remaining Tibetan officials to sign the Treaty of Lhasa, before withdrawing to Sikkim in September, with the understanding the Chinese government would not permit any other country to interfere with the administration of Tibet. Francis Younghusband The causes of the conflict are obscure; historian Charles Allen considered the official reasons for the invasion "almost entirely bogus". The Dalai Lama declined to have dealings with the British government in India, and sent Dorjiye as emissary to the court of Czar Nicholas II with an appeal for Russian protection in. The Chinese were willing, and ordered the thirteenth Dalai Lama to attend. However, the Dalai Lama refused, and also refused to provide transport to enable the amban, You Tai, to attend. Wilson as Deputy Commissioners, to Khampa Dzong. The British authorities, anticipating the problems of high altitude conflict, included many Gurkha and Pathan troops from mountainous regions such as Nepal; six companies of the 23rd Sikh Pioneers, four companies of the 8th Gurkhas in reserve at Gnatong in Sikkim, and two Gurkha companies guarding the British camp at Khamba Jong were involved. The Tibetans were aware of the expedition; to avoid bloodshed, the Tibetan general at Yadong pledged that if the British made no attack upon the Tibetans, he would not attack the British. Colonel Younghusband replied, on 6 December, that "we are not at war with Tibet and that, unless we are ourselves attacked, we shall not attack the Tibetans". When no Tibetan or Chinese officials met the British at Khampa Dzong, Younghusband advanced with some 1, soldiers, porters, labourers, and thousands of pack animals, to Tuna, 50 miles beyond the border. After waiting more months there, hoping in vain to be met by negotiators, the expedition received orders in to continue toward Lhasa. On the slope above, the Tibetans had placed seven or eight sangars. The Tibetans would not fight, but nor would they vacate their positions. Younghusband and Macdonald agreed that "the only thing to do was to disarm them and let them go". This at least was the official version. The writer Charles Allen has also suggested that a dummy attack was played out in an effort to provoke the Tibetans into opening fire. Henry Newman, a reporter for Reuters, who described himself as an eye-witness, said that following this shot, the mass of Tibetans surged forward and their attack fell next on a correspondent for the Daily Mail, Edmund Candler, and that very soon after this, fire was directed from three sides on the Tibetans crowded behind the wall. However, no evidence exists to show such trickery took place and the likelihood is that the unwieldy weapons were of very limited use in the circumstances. Furthermore, the British, Sikh, and Gurkha soldiers closest to the Tibetans were nearly all protected by a high wall, and none were killed. Behind them, they left between and dead and wounded, of whom survived in British field hospitals as prisoners. British casualties were 12 wounded. After one battle, surviving Tibetans showed profound confusion over the ineffectiveness of these amulets. Macdonald ordered his Gurkha troops to scale the steep hillsides of the gorge and drive out the Tibetan forces ensconced high on their cliffs. This they began, but soon were lost in a furious blizzard, which stopped all communications with the Gurkha force. Some hours later, exploratory probes down the pass encountered shooting and a desultory exchange continued till the storm ended around noon, which showed that the Gurkhas had by chance found their way to a position above the Tibetan troops. Thus faced with shooting from both sides as Sikh soldiers pushed up the hill, the Tibetans moved back, again coming under severe fire from British artillery and

retreated in good order, leaving behind dead. British losses were again negligible. Following this fight at the "Red Idol Gorge", as the British later called it, the British military pressed on to Gyantse, reaching it on 11 April. Francis Younghusband wrote to his father; "As I have always said, the Tibetans are nothing but sheep. The central feature was the Temple of One Hundred Thousand Deities, a nine-storey stupa, modelled on the Mahabodhi Temple at Bodhgaya, the spot where Gautama Buddha first achieved enlightenment. Reaction in Britain to the massacre at Chumik Shenko had been one of "shock [and] growing disquiet". The Spectator and Punch magazines had expressed views critical of a spectacle that included "half-armed men" being wiped out "with the irresistible weapons of science". In Whitehall, the Cabinet "kept its collective head down". Meanwhile, intelligence reached Younghusband that Tibetan troops had gathered at Karo La, 45 miles east of Gyantse. Brander consulted Younghusband instead, who declared himself in favour of the action. Perceval Landon, correspondent of The Times who had sat in on the discussions, observed that it was "injudicious" to attack the Tibetans, and that it was "quite out of keeping with the studious way in which we have hitherto kept ourselves in the right. The Tibetan war whoops gave the Mission staff time to form ranks and repulse the assailants, who lost dead; three men of the Mission garrison were killed. Younghusband sent a message to Brander telling him to complete his attack on Karo, and only then to return to relieve the garrison. He wrote privately to Lord Curzon: The garrison responded with its own attacks; some of the Mounted Infantry returned from Karo La, armed with new standard-issue Lee-Enfield rifles, and pursued Tibetan horsemen, and one of the Maxims was stationed on the roof and short bursts of machine-gun fire met targets as they appeared on the walls of the Jong. British troops stationed at Lebondong, the 1st battalion of the Royal Fusiliers, the nearest British infantry available, were sent, as well as six companies of Indian troops from the 40th Pathans, a party from the 1st Battalion, the Royal Irish Rifles with two Maxim guns, a British Army Mountain Battery with four ten-pounder guns, and Murree Mountain Battery, as well as two Field Hospitals. About 50 Tibetans were gunned down and the building was renamed the Gurkha House. No more assaults were contemplated at this point until Macdonald returned with more troops and Brander concentrated on strengthening the 3 positions: By now the Commander-in-Chief in India, Lord Kitchener, was determined to see that Brigadier-General Macdonald should henceforth be in charge of the Mission at all times. The feeling in Simla was that Younghusband was unduly eager to head straight for Lhasa. Since Karo La we are dealing with Russia. These were claims with no foundation. Younghusband was ordered by Lord Amthill, as acting Viceroy, to re-open negotiations and try again to communicate with the Dalai Lama. On 10 June Younghusband arrived at New Chumbi. Once the obstacle of Gyantse Dong was cleared, the road to Lhasa would be open. On 26 June, a fortified monastery at Naini which covered the approach was taken in house-to-house fighting by the Gurkhas and 40th Pathan soldiers. Further, Tibetan forces in two forts in the village were caught "between two fires" as the garrison at Changlo Manor joined the fight. Apart from the failed assault on Chang Lo two months previously, the Tibetans had not made any sallies against British positions. This attitude was born of a mix of justifiable fear of the Maxim Guns, and faith in the solid rock of their defences, yet in every battle they were disappointed, primarily by their poor weaponry and inexperienced officers. On 3 July, a formal durbar was held at the Mission and the Tibetan delegation told by Younghusband to clear out of the Jong in 36 hours. Younghusband made no effort to negotiate, though why talks could not take place while the Tibetans held the Jong was not clear. An artillery bombardment with mountain guns would then create a breach, which would be stormed immediately by his main force. The ancient monastic complex at Tsechen, dating from the fourteenth century, was torched, to prevent its re-occupation by the Tibetans. The eventual assault on 6 July did not happen as planned, as the Tibetan walls were stronger than expected. Yet at the opening of the attack there was a near disaster when two columns blundered into each other in the dark. It took eleven hours to break through. The breach was not completed until 4: As Gurkhas and Royal Fusiliers charged the broken wall, they came under heavy fire and suffered some casualties. Gurkha troops climbed the rock directly under the upper ramparts, scaling the rock face as rocks rained down on them and misdirected fire from one of the Maxims hit more of these Gurkhas than Tibetan defenders above them. They gained a foothold which the following troops exploited, enabling the walls to be taken. The Tibetans retreated in good order, allowing the British control of the road to Lhasa, but denying Macdonald a route and thus remaining a constant threat although never a

serious problem in the British rear for the remainder of the campaign. The two soldiers who broke the wall at Gyantse Jong were both well rewarded. Major Wimberley, one of the Medical Officers to the Mission, wrote that though he had seen the Gordons at Dargai he considered "the storming of the breach at Gyantse Jong by the Gurkhas a far finer performance. According to Major William Beynon, in a letter to his wife of 7 July, some of the looting was officially approved" claims by Dr Waddell, Brigadier-General Macdonald and his chief of staff, Major Iggulden that monastic sites were "most religiously respected" look hollow. Younghusband at Lhasa At the Karo La, the Wide-Mouthed Pass that had been the scene of fighting two and a half months earlier, the Gurkhas skirmished with a determined group of Tibetan fighters on the heights to the left and right. Essentially however resistance faded before the advance and a policy of scorched earth was adopted" the Tibetans removed what food and fodder they could and emptied villages. Nevertheless, troops could fish in the lakes, where there were also plenty of gulls and redshanks. They passed along the shores of the Yamdok Tso , and reached the fortress of Nakartse, unoccupied except for a party of delegates from Lhasa. Macdonald urged Younghusband to settle the business but Younghusband would negotiate only at Lhasa. On 25 July, the army began to cross the Tsangpo in the wake of the Mounted Infantry, a feat that took four days to achieve. The force arrived in Lhasa on 3 August to discover that the thirteenth Dalai Lama had fled to Urga , the capital of Outer Mongolia. The Amban escorted the British into the city with his personal guard, but informed them that he had no authority to negotiate with them. The Tibetans told them that only the absent Dalai Lama had authority to sign any accord. The Amban advised the Chinese emperor to depose the Dalai Lama. The Tibetan Council of Ministers and the General Assembly began to submit to pressure on the terms as August progressed, except on the matter of the indemnity which they believed impossibly high for a poor country. He wrote gleefully to his wife that he had been able to "ram the whole treaty down their throats". The British allowed to trade in Yadong, Gyantse, and Gartok. Tibet to pay a large indemnity 7, rupees , later reduced by two-thirds; the Chumbi Valley to be ceded to Britain until paid. Recognition of the Sikkim-Tibet border. Tibet to have no relations with any other foreign powers effectively converting Tibet into a British protectorate. The Secretary of State for India, St John Brodrick, had in fact expressed the need for it to be "within the power of the Tibetans to pay" and given Younghusband a free hand to be "guided by circumstances in this matter". Younghusband raised the indemnity demanded from 5,, to 7,, rupees, and further demanded the right for a British trade agent, based at Gyantse, to visit Lhasa "for consultations". Younghusband wanted the payment to be met by yearly instalments; it would have taken about 75 years for the Tibetans to clear their debt, and since British occupation of the Chumbi valley was surety until payment was completed, the valley would remain in British hands. I have got Russia out for ever". The Amban later publicly repudiated the treaty, while Britain announced that it still accepted Chinese claims of authority over Tibet. Acting Viceroy Lord Amthill reduced the indemnity by two-thirds and considerably eased the terms in other ways. The provisions of this treaty were revised in the Anglo-Chinese Convention of Britain had "won" and had received the agreements it desired, but without actually receiving any tangible results. The Tibetans had lost the war but had seen China humbled in its failure to defend their client state from foreign incursion, and had pacified the invader by signing an unenforceable and largely irrelevant treaty. It was in fact the reaction in London which was fiercest in condemnation of the war.

Chapter 2 : British expedition to Tibet - Wikipedia

After one of the most uneven military actions in the history of British expansionism, Younghusband destroyed the Tibetan 'Army', marched on Lhasa and imposed a year treaty on the Dalai Lama, forcing Tibet to pay reparations and defer to London on foreign relations.

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Chapter 3 : British massacres of the 20th century – Crimes of Britain

In , a British missionary force under the leadership of Colonel Francis Younghusband crossed over the border from India and invaded Tibet. Younghusband insisted on the presence of the Dalai Lama at meetings to give tribute to the British and their Empire. The Dalai Lama merely said he must.

This answer relates entirely to geography. If you exercise control these two rivers, power can be projected over heavily populated East China. The Himalayas make an excellent frontier. After a hundred years of misery handed to China by colonial powers, securing the border territories was important. First, from Wikipedia, the basics of Chinese geography. This map shows population density, where dark means more people: China has most of its people in the East, while Tibet on the other hand, has very few. It is well known that China today has over a billion people. Back in , China had about million, also mostly in the East. Most of the agriculture is in the East, and as I will cover in a moment, the North China Plain relies heavily on irrigation from the Huang He. Timeline of when these provinces came under dominance by the hungry, populated Eastern parts of China: See how the rivers come from Tibet? The North China Plain, the heartland of the ancient Chinese culture, is sorta like a gigantic Kansas. They grow a lot of food there, enough to feed million. Without irrigation, this means mass starvation, and political instability. This explains the vital importance of securing Tibet and Qinghai. Many of the fatalities were related to starvation, caused by irregular irrigation. As the long term survival of the CCP regime was less than certain in , expanding control of water resources was a priority. Mass starvation in the North China Plain had to be avoided. Why does did China need to control Tibet? The British, of course, from the s through until the at least , sought to dominate and control much of the world. They had a decades long campaign to erode Qing power and gain control of China. But what was the legal status of all these places? Between and , the Moguls were legally in charge. However, Egypt until was a province of the Ottoman empire. There were a variety of legal arrangements after The point is that the British empire often gained and held colonial power without legal colonial status. So Tibet declared its independence from China in What does this mean? A glance at the map above shows that on the other side of the Himalayas lies India. And, of course, in , India was part of the British Empire. Was Tibet just another British colony? Or an actual independent country? Was Tibet an independent country? Or was it a British colony? If Tibet was truly independent of European colonial powers, and had a strong army, then invasion would be risky with little gained security. However, Tibet had limited armaments in comparison with the PLA, and British influence was almost certain. Since Tibet was legally part of China anyways, how could Mao not have invaded? They had been at war for decades, and still needed to rebuild the Chinese economy and extend its influence to its neighbors. Mao was very concerned about American and British influence in its territories. This nascent CCP regime had many weaknesses in the early s. What motivated the soldiers in the Chinese Army? They fought against tremendous odds against a wealthy, technologically superior US military. Nearly half a million Chinese soldier were killed, and another half million were wounded. These soldiers were overwhelmingly opposed to any foreign powers controlling China, and opposed to having US military bases right on their border. This was not just an idea that came from the CCP; it was one that was popular throughout China. Those who went to fight against the US in North Korea felt they were protecting themselves and their loved ones against foreign exploitation. Why China during the Qing came to control Tibet is another interesting question. The answer is easy: China was plagued for thousands of years with invasions by "Barbarians. For hundreds of years, the Tibetans were a significant military threat. This is why the Qing maintained strict control over Tibet and Mongolia. Taking Tibet and the western regions was a continuation of the long war; the last "easy" part; a mopping up operation [Note 2] The GMD put this number at 1 million, the CCP at 10 million. I have seen figures saying dislocated farmers and irrigation failures during wartime were responsible for a least 20 million fatalities.

Chapter 4 : British invasion of Tibet – Buddhism now

In thousands of soldiers of the British Empire marched north from the Indian state of Sikkim and violated the border with Tibet. Some of the few sources that refer to it call this little known imperial excursion the British invasion of Tibet, and although technically that's exactly the right.

It is a land rich in minerals and the variety of its flora and fauna. And, contrary to popular belief, Tibet is not entirely arid and barren – it has vast areas rich in forests, endless pasturelands suitable for animal husbandry and extensive fertile valleys. Moreover, covering an area in excess of 2. Tibet, therefore, commands not only the highest but also the most strategic position in Central Asia. The Tibetan people are a distinct race with its own spoken and written language, culture, traditions, food and dress. In the population of Tibet was estimated at six million. A brief account of this nation; its origin, how it grew into a great military power and carved for itself a huge empire in Central Asia; then how it renounced the use of arms to practice the teachings of the Buddha and the tragic consequences that it suffers today as a result of the brutal onslaught of the communist Chinese forces is given in the following passages. Five hundred years before Buddha Shakyamuni came into this world, i.e. Tiwor Sergyi Jhagruchen was the first Shangshung king. Shangshung, before its decline, was the name of an empire which comprised of the whole of Tibet. As the Shangshung empire declined, a Kingdom known as Bod the present name of Tibet came into existence at Yarlung and Chongyas valleys at the time of King Nyatri Tsenpo, who started the heroic age of the Chogyals Religious Kings. Bod grew until the whole of Tibet was reunited under King Songtsen Gampo, when the last Shangshung king, Ligmigya, was killed. This lineage of Tibetan monarchy constituted for well over a thousand years, till King Tri Wudum Tsen, more commonly known as Lang Dharma, was assassinated in They are called the Three Great Kings. During the reign of King Songtsen Gampo b. He promoted Buddhism in Tibet and sent one of his ministers and other young Tibetans to India for study. He first took a Tibetan princess from the Shangshung King as his wife and then obtained a Nepalese Consort. After invading the Chinese Empire he also obtained a Chinese princess as one of his wives. The two latter wives have been given prominence in the religious history of Tibet because of their services to Buddhism. During the reign of King Trisong Deutsen the Tibetan empire was at its peak and its army invaded China and other Central Asian countries. As the Chinese Emperor had fled, the Tibetans appointed a new Emperor. This memorable victory has been preserved for posterity in the Zhol Doring stone pillar in Lhasa and reads, in part: He conquered and held under his sway many districts and fortresses of China. They offered a perpetual yearly tribute of 50, rolls of silk and China was obliged to pay this tribute. He also declared Buddhism as the state religion of Tibet. The inscription of the text of the treaty exists in three places: He tried to reinstate the Bon religion and persecuted the Buddhists. After his assassination by a Buddhist monk the kingdom was divided between his two sons. With warring princes, lords and generals contending for power the mighty Tibetan Empire disintegrated into many small principedoms from CE. His son and successor, Sakya Kunga Nyingpo, formulated the tantric traditions of the great scholars Marpa and Drogme and began the Sakya sect. The Sakya lamas grew in power and from to CE. Tibet was ruled by a succession of 20 Sakya lamas. The Mongols, who invaded many countries of Europe and Asia, also invaded Tibet and reached up to Phenpo, north of Lhasa. The influence of the Sakya priest-rulers gradually declined after the death of Kublai Khan in But, after the death of Drakpa Gyaltsen, the fifth Phamo Drupa ruler, in , the power passed into the hands of the Rinpung family who were related to Drakpa Gyaltsen by marriage. From to the heads of the Ringpung family held the power. Meanwhile, Tsongkhapa Lobsang Dragpa, one of the greatest scholars of Tibet, was born in He founded Ganden, the first Gelugpa monastery, in and began the Gelug lineage. During the first decade of the 16th century, Tsetan Dorje, a servant of the Rinpung family, with the help of some local tribes and Mongols, managed to gain control of Shigatse and the surrounding regions of Tsang province. Sonam Gyatso, born in , emerged as a scholar of great spiritual and temporal wisdom. He became the spiritual teacher of the Phamo Drupa ruler, Drakpa Jungnay. He was the abbot of Drepung Monastery and the most eminent lama of that time. He provided extensive relief to the Kyichu flood victims in , founded Kham Lithang monastery in and Kumbum Monastery in He also

successfully mediated between the various warring factions in Tibet. The title was posthumously conferred on his two previous reincarnations. A close spiritual relationship developed between Tibet and Mongolia. The Gelugpa sect grew stronger and gradually eclipsed the waning Sakya authority. He was invited to China by the Manchu Emperor and received him as an independent sovereign and as an equal. It is recorded that the Emperor went out of his capital to meet the Dalai Lama and that he had an inclined pathway built over the city wall so that the Dalai Lama could enter Peking without going through a gate. The Emperor not only accepted the Dalai Lama as an independent sovereign but also as a Divinity on Earth. Henceforth, there started a Priest-Patron relationship which brought a new element into the relations of Tibet, China and Mongolia. Another important event was the statement of the Fifth Dalai Lama that the line of the first Panchen Lama, Choekyi Gyaltzen, who was one of his tutors, would continue. The glorious reign of the Great Fifth was followed by a period of intrigue and instability. To start with, the powerful prime minister, Desi Sangye Gyatso, had kept the death of the Fifth Dalai Lama secret for fifteen years in order to complete the construction of the Potala palace and also to ward off possible interference from Manchus, who had become increasingly powerful in China. When the Sixth Dalai Lama, Tsanyang Gyatso, was finally enthroned in he turned out to be an embarrassment to the Desi and his associates – refusing to take interest in the affairs of State and leading a frivolous life. Circumstances arising from the behaviour of the young Dalai Lama and also the personal conflict between the Desi and Lhazang Khan, the grandson of Gusri Khan and the chief of the Qosot Mongols in Central Tibet, led to the resignation of the Desi and the complete take over of political power by Lhazang Khan, who later allied himself with the Manchus and sent the young Dalai Lama into exile. Lhazang Khan was himself defeated and killed by Dzungar Mongols who had come to Tibet at the invitation of the monks of the three big Gelugpa monasteries in Lhasa, who had requested them to overthrow Lhazang Khan. But the Dzungars, who were staunch followers of the Gelugpa tradition, were not content with the death of Lhazang Khan. They proceeded to persecute the adherents of the Nyingmapa sect. This brought about a feeling of disenchantment against their presence among sections of the Tibetan people. When Kalsang Gyatso, the reincarnation of the Sixth Dalai Lama, was discovered in Lithang, in eastern Tibet, there was a struggle among various tribes of the Mongols and the Manchus to gain control over him so that they could exercise their influence in Tibet. The Manchus were successful in this endeavour and in the Manchus sent in troops to escort the young Dalai Lama and also to avenge the death of their ally, Lhazang Khan. At the same time, Tibetan troops under Khangchennas and Pholhanas took advantage of the situation to attack the Dzungars, who fled with as much loot as they could take with them. So when the Manchu troops entered Lhasa, the Dzungars had already left. But they had other designs and when their troops finally left in they left behind a Resident or Amban – ostensibly to serve the Dalai Lama but in actual fact to look after their own interests. This was the beginning of Manchu interference in Tibetan affairs. The Manchus also put their own nominee as the Tibetan Regent against Tibetan wish. A few years later the Manchu nominee was killed and the then Manchu Emperor, Yung Cheng, sent a military force which was the first time the Manchus invaded Tibet. The occupation Manchu force in tried to bring changes in the administration of the Tibetan Government. But the Tibetans regarded the seals as a compliment and did not acknowledge them as a mark of vassalage. However, the Manchu Resident Ambans began to meddle in Tibetan state matters, whenever the opportunity arose. The Tibetans retaliated by massacring the Manchus in Lhasa. Again the Manchus invaded Tibet in and they tried in vain to increase the power of the Manchu Resident. In the Gurkhas of Nepal invaded Tibet. The cause of this invasion went back a few years before the Gurkhas had gained full control of Nepal. Nepal had started to add copper to the silver coins which they were supplying to Tibet. In the Seventh Dalai Lama had written to the three Newari kings, who ruled over the principalities of Kathmandu, Patan and Bhatgaon to protest against this practice. When Prithvi Narayan, chief of the Gurkhas, overthrew the Newari rulers he was similarly apprised of the situation. Another sore point in the relations between the Gurkhas and the Tibetans had been the intervention of Tibet in the Gurkha invasion of Sikkim. Tibet offered help to Sikkim and a treaty was concluded between Nepal and Sikkim in the presence of two Tibetan representatives. The Gurkhas resented this interference and were looking for an excuse to attack Tibet. The latter hoped to use the backing of the Gurkhas for his claim and the Gurkhas used the claim of Shamar Tulku to invade Tibet. The Manchu army

which entered Tibet in became more harmful to the Tibetans and they again tried to increase the power of the Manchu Resident. This imperialist imposition was not adhered to by the Tibetans and the Thirteenth Dalai Lama, whose own choice had not even been referred to the Manchus, publicly abolished this form. During this period Tibet was invaded several times and the Manchu resident at Lhasa engaged in nefarious intrigues and meddled in Tibetan state affairs. But Tibet never lost her sovereignty. The sovereignty of Tibet was further shown in her dealings with Nepal in when a treaty was signed between the two countries without reference to China. In the internal affairs of Tibet, the sovereignty of the Central Government of Tibet at Lhasa was most clearly illustrated in the internal war which broke out during the middle of the nineteenth century between the chieftain of Nyarong on the one side and the king of Derge and the Horpa princes on the other. The Tibetan Government sent an army, crushed the Nyarong Chief, whose invasion of his neighbour was the cause of the trouble, and set up a Tibetan Governor in his place, charging him with general supervision of the affairs of Derge and the Horpa principalities. He was an outstanding personality and helped Tibet to reassert her rightful sovereignty in international affairs. At this period the British had close and profitable ties with China. Two more similar agreements – the Peking Convention of 24 July , and the Calcutta Convention of 17 March were also repudiated in-to-to by the Tibetans. The Tibetan Government refused to have anything to do with the British, who were dealing over their head with the Chinese. This coincided with new contacts between Russia and Tibet around to There followed an interchange of letters and presents between the Dalai Lama and the Russian Czar. This strengthened British fears about Russian involvement in Tibetan affairs. As the Russian power in Asia was growing, the British felt that their interest was at stake. Tibet was invaded by the British expeditionary force under Col. Younghusband, which entered Lhasa on 3 August

Chapter 5 : British expedition to Tibet | Revolv

EPISODE # Why did the British invade Tibet in ? Perhaps more important, might that somewhat minor expedition be significantly linked to the later conquest of Tibet by Mao's China? SUPPORT.

Neolithic Tibet Some archaeological data suggests archaic humans passed through Tibet at the time India was first inhabited, half a million years ago. However, there is a "partial genetic continuity between the Paleolithic inhabitants and the contemporary Tibetan populations". Zhangzhung According to Namkhai Norbu some Tibetan historical texts identify the Zhang Zhung culture as a people who migrated from the Amdo region into what is now the region of Guge in western Tibet. Tibetan tribes 2nd century AD [edit] In AD , "the Kiang or Tibetans, who were then entirely savage and lived a nomadic life west and south of the Koko-nor , attacked the Chinese posts of Gansu , threatening to cut the Dunhuang road. Liang Kin, at the price of some fierce fighting, held them off. Pre-Imperial Tibet The pre-Imperial Yarlung Dynasty rulers are more mythological than factual, and there is insufficient evidence of their definitive existence. There he was greeted as a fearsome being, and he became king. Tibetan Empire The Yarlung kings gradually extended their control, and by the early 6th century most of the Tibetan tribes were under its control, [16] when Namri Songtsen ? Throughout the centuries from the time of the emperor the power of the empire gradually increased over a diverse terrain so that by the reign of the emperor in the opening years of the 9th century, its influence extended as far south as Bengal and as far north as Mongolia. The varied terrain of the empire and the difficulty of transportation, coupled with the new ideas that came into the empire as a result of its expansion, helped to create stresses and power blocs that were often in competition with the ruler at the center of the empire. Era of Fragmentation and Cultural Renaissance 9thth century [edit] Fragmentation of political power 9thth century [edit] Map showing major religious regimes during the Era of Fragmentation in Tibet Main article: Era of Fragmentation The Era of Fragmentation is a period of Tibetan history in the 9th and 10th century. During this era, the political centralization of the earlier Tibetan Empire collapsed. A civil war ensued, which effectively ended centralized Tibetan administration until the Sa-skya period. Thrikhyiding migrated to the western Tibetan region of upper Ngari Stod Mnga ris and married a woman of high central Tibetan nobility, with whom he founded a local dynasty. The younger son, Srong-nge, administered day-to-day governmental affairs; it was his sons who carried on the royal line. The late 10th and 11th century saw a revival of Buddhism in Tibet. Coinciding with the early discoveries of " hidden treasures " terma , [26] the 11th century saw a revival of Buddhist influence originating in the far east and far west of Tibet. In the west, Rinchen Zangpo was active as a translator and founded temples and monasteries. Prominent scholars and teachers were again invited from India. There his chief disciple, Dromtonpa founded the Kadampa school of Tibetan Buddhism, under whose influence the New Translation schools of today evolved. Other seminal Indian teachers were Tilopa " and his student Naropa probably died ca. Its most famous exponent was Milarepa , an 11th-century mystic. It contains one major and one minor subsect. The first, the Dagpo Kagyu, encompasses those Kagyu schools that trace back to the Indian master Naropa via Marpa Lotsawa , Milarepa and Gampopa [17] Mongol conquest and Yuan administrative rule " [edit] Main articles: The first documented contact between the Tibetans and the Mongols occurred when the missionary Tsang-pa Dung-khur gTsang-pa Dung-khur-ba and six disciples met Genghis Khan , probably on the Tangut border where he may have been taken captive, around "2. Closer contacts ensued when the Mongols successively sought to move through the Sino-Tibetan borderlands to attack the Jin dynasty and then the Southern Song , with incursions on outlying areas. One traditional Tibetan account claims that there was a plot to invade Tibet by Genghis Khan in , [29] which is considered anachronistic; there is no evidence of Mongol-Tibetan encounters prior to the military campaign in This existed as a " diarchic structure" under the Mongol emperor, with power primarily in favor of the Mongols. Sakya lamas remained the sources of authority and legitimacy, while the dpon-chens carried on the administration at Sakya. However there was no doubt as to who had the political clout. Phagpa became a religious teacher to Kublai Khan. Phagpa developed the priest-patron concept that characterized Tibeto-Mongolian relations from that point forward. Through their influence with the Mongol rulers, Tibetan

lamas gained considerable influence in various Mongol clans, not only with Kublai, but, for example, also with the Il-Khanids. A census was conducted in and Tibet was divided into thirteen myriarchies administrative districts, nominally containing 10, households. The revolt was suppressed in when the Sakyas and eastern Mongols burned Drikung Monastery and killed 10, people. The rule over Tibet by a succession of Sakya lamas came to a definite end in , when central Tibet came under control of the Kagyu sect. They also saw the birth of the Gelugpa school also known as Yellow Hats by the disciples of Tsongkhapa Lobsang Dragpa , and the founding of the Ganden , Drepung , and Sera monasteries near Lhasa. After the s, the country entered another period of internal power struggles. Tibet would be de facto independent from the midth century on, for nearly years. They also kept friendly relations with some of the Buddhism religious leaders known as Princes of Dharma and granted some other titles to local leaders including the Grand Imperial Tutor.

Chapter 6 : The War And The British Invasion Of Tibet, Â» Brill Online

The British invasion of Tibet in is one of the strangest events in British imperial history. Planned by Lord Curzon as a strategic move in the Great Game, the incursion was in fact ill-conceived and inspired by only the weakest of motivations.

North King Street massacre, Ireland, At least seventeen civilians were shot and bayoneted to death by the British Army who went on a murderous rampage on North King Street and its environs. Some of the victims were buried in their gardens and cellars by the soldiers. Troup strongly advised against publishing the evidence on the grounds it would show the extent of British tyranny in Ireland. But because it was Ireland, instead of the soldiers facing trial for murder, they were simply allowed to get away with it. Fire was directed towards the few open gates through which people were trying to flee. Reginald Dyer who ordered the massacre was hailed a hero in Britain. Although the British continue to arrogantly dispute the figure, claiming it to be in the hundreds as if that would absorb them of the crime. Gujranwala massacre, India, Two days after the massacre at Amritsar, the RAF were dispatched to bomb and machine gun people protesting against it in Gujranwala. At least 12 people were killed. The ground became a war zone as the British fired indiscriminately. A boycott on British goods was declared. As troops moved into the Bazaar, British armoured cars drove into the square at high-speed, killing several people. The crowd however continued their non-violent protest, and offered to disperse if they could gather their dead and injured, and if the British left the square. The Brits refused to leave, and it was ordered for them to open fire with machine guns on the unarmed crowd. Harry Arrigonie, a British colonial policeman recalled the massacre in his memoirs: The driver of the bus was forced to drive along the road, over a land mine buried by the soldiers. The British demanded that all guerrilla groups should disarm on the 2nd December. Despite several investigations into the murders no charges have been brought against any of the perpetrators. The British Ministry of Defence refused to release files relating to the massacre. Rape, castration, cigarettes, electric shocks and fire all used by the British to torture the Kenyan people. On Monday 9th August internment without trial was introduced by the British government in the North of Ireland. Over British soldiers entered the Ballymurphy area of West Belfast, raiding homes and rounding up men. Young and old were shot and beaten as they were dragged from their homes. McGurks Bar massacre, Ireland, On the evening of Saturday 4th December a loyalist terror outfit known as the UVF directed by the British military planted a no-warning bomb on the doorstep of a family run pub in Belfast, Ireland. Bloody Sunday massacre, Ireland, On the 30th January 14 unarmed civilians shot dead by the British Army on the streets of the Irish city of Derry. Shortly after the massacre the Queen decorated Derek Wilford who commanded the Parachute Regiment and went on to give honours to Mike Jackson who spread lies about the victims. Three were civilians, including a priest. The two others were members of Fianna Eireann, an Irish revolutionary youth organisation. New Lodge massacre, Ireland, On the night and early morning of the 3rd and 4th of February, six young local men from the New Lodge Road area of North Belfast were shot dead in a coordinated attack by the British Army and a loyalist death squad. Loughinisland massacre, Ireland, On the 18th June in the village of Loughinisland members of the British backed terror outfit the UVF burst into a pub with assault rifles and fired on customers. Six people were killed. Britain overtly and covertly colluded with death squads in Ireland. A biographical companion], pg.

Chapter 7 : Why Did China Invade Tibet? - Why Guides

A film, a television series, four plays and an opera have been produced in China since dramatising the invasion of Tibet by the British in

In general, the history of Tibet begins with King Srong-tsan-gam-po Songtsen Gampo 629 CE, although there were 27 kings before him. Christianity is known to have been present in Tibetan regions prior to Tibet sent an army to drive it from the valleys around the source of Huang He. A Tibetan army defeated him on the high plateau of Qinghai. Subsequently, Tibet conquered all small tribes in Qinghai and southern Xinjiang. During this period, Tibet had a population of 10 million with 3 million Tibetans as an army of comparable strength facing the two Tang armies of Southern Xinjiang 24, soldiers and of the Silk Road 75, soldiers. Disputes involved trade controls. Tibet wanted the four Tang garrisons at the Southern Xinjiang which guarded the silk-road from central Tang through Xinjiang and Central Asia. Tibet had also conquered the ethnic tribes scattered in the present areas of Lijiang and Dali, Yunnan, and had established a military administration in northwest Yunnan. Yunnan was a tributary of Tibet. Tibet also bordered with India, and Persia. This was the largest area which was ever controlled by Tibet. The military route used by the Tibetans to reach Yunnan was closely related to the contemporary tea and horse route. According to one study, more than 20, warhorses per year were exchanged for tea during the Northern Song dynasty. The distinctive form of Tibetan society, in which land was divided into three different types of holding—estates of noble families, freeheld lands and estates held by monasteries of particular Tibetan Buddhist sects—arose after the weakening of the Tibetan kings in the 10th century. This form of society was to continue into the 13th century, although Tibetans themselves claim that this is not an accurate description and that Tibetans consist of many different background and not just monks, masters, and serfs. The Mongol khans had ruled northern China since 1206. They were the emperors of the Yuan Dynasty. Kublai Khan was a patron of Tibetan Buddhism and appointed the Sa-skya Lama his "Imperial preceptor," or chief religious official. Tibetans viewed this relationship as an example of *yon-mchod*, or priest-patron relationship. In practice, the Sa-skya lama was subordinate to the Mongol khan. The collapse of the Yuan dynasty in 1368 led to the overthrow of the Sa-skya in Tibet. Tibet was then ruled by a succession of three secular dynasties. Beginning in the early 18th century, the Qing government sent a resident commissioner *amban* to Lhasa. Tibetan factions rebelled in 1705 and killed the *amban*. Then, a Qing army entered and defeated the rebels and installed an administration headed by the Dalai Lama. The number of soldiers in Tibet was kept at about 10,000. The defensive duties were partly helped out by a local force which was reorganized by the resident commissioner, and the Tibetan government continued to manage day-to-day affairs as before. British expedition to Tibet In a British diplomatic mission, accompanied by a large military escort, forced its way through to Lhasa. The head of the diplomatic mission was Colonel Francis Younghusband. The principal motivation for the British mission was a fear, which proved to be unfounded, that Russia was extending its footprint into Tibet and possibly even giving military aid to the Tibetan government. But in his way to Lhasa, Younghusband killed tibetans in Gyam-Tse as written in "The Great Game" of Peter Hopkirk, because the natives were in fear of what kind of unequal treaty the English would offer to the Tibetans. When the mission reached Lhasa, the Dalai Lama had already fled to Urga in Mongolia, but a treaty was signed by lay and ecclesiastical officials of the Tibetan government, and by representatives of the three monasteries of Sera, Drepung, and Ganden. It also made provision for a British trade agent to reside at the trade mart at Gyantse. The provisions of this treaty were confirmed in a treaty signed between Britain and China, in which the British also agreed "not to annex Tibetan territory or to interfere in the administration of Tibet. It was not until 1904, with the creation of the position of "Head of British Mission Lhasa", that a British officer had a permanent posting in Lhasa itself. In the Anglo-Chinese Convention of 1907 which confirmed the Anglo-Tibetan Treaty of 1904, Britain agreed "not to annex Tibetan territory or to interfere in the administration of Tibet" while China engaged "not to permit any other foreign State to interfere with the territory or internal administration of Tibet". In the same month, the Chinese Qing government issued a proclamation deposing the Dalai Lama and instigating the search for a new incarnation. The official position of the British Government was that they would not

intervene between China and Tibet, and it would only recognize the de facto government of China within Tibet at this time. The new Chinese Republican government wished to make the commander of the Chinese troops in Lhasa their new Tibetan representative, but the Tibetans were in favour of having all of the Chinese troops return to China Proper. In 1907, a treaty was negotiated in India by representatives of China, Tibet and Britain: When negotiations broke down over the specific boundary between Inner and Outer, the British demanded instead to advance their line of control, enabling them to annex 90, square kilometers of traditional Tibetan territory in southern Tibet, which corresponds to most of the modern Indian state of Arunachal Pradesh, while recognizing Chinese suzerainty, but not sovereignty, over Tibet. Tibetan representatives secretly signed under British pressure; however, the representative of Chinese central government declared that the secretive annexation of territory was not acceptable. The boundary established in the convention, the McMahon Line, was considered by the British and later the independent Indian government to be the boundary; however, the Chinese view since then has been that since China, which was sovereign over Tibet, did not sign the treaty, the treaty was meaningless, and the annexation and control of southern Tibet Arunachal Pradesh by India is illegal. This paved the way to the Sino-Indian War of 1962 and the boundary dispute between China and India today. The subsequent outbreak of World War I and civil war in China caused the Western powers and the infighting factions of China proper to lose interest in Tibet, and the 13th Dalai Lama ruled undisturbed. The situation in Amdo Qinghai was more complicated, with the Xining area controlled by ethnic Hui warlord Ma Bufang, who constantly strove to exert control over the rest of Amdo Qinghai. Argument has always been made by Tibetans that Tibet would be modernized by itself without the unnecessary intervention by China. Any attempt at land redistribution or the redistribution of wealth would have proved unpopular with the established landowners. This agreement was initially put into effect in Tibet proper. However, Eastern Kham and Amdo were outside the administration of the government of Tibet, and were thus treated like any other Chinese province with land redistribution implemented in full. As a result, a rebellion broke out in Amdo and eastern Kham in June of 1955. It was crushed by the Chinese. Tibetan exiles claim that during this campaign, tens of thousands of Tibetans were killed. The 14th Dalai Lama and other government principals fled to exile in India, but isolated resistance continued in Tibet until when the CIA abruptly withdrew its support. Although the Panchen Lama remained a virtual prisoner, the Chinese set him as a figurehead in Lhasa, claiming that he headed the legitimate Government of Tibet since Dalai Lama has fled to India after the failed Tibetan uprising in 1959 and established the traditional head of the Tibetan government. The monastic estates were broken up and secular education introduced. Some young Tibetans joined in the campaign of destruction, voluntarily due to the ideological fervour that was sweeping the entire PRC [19] [20] and involuntarily due to the fear of being denounced as "enemies of the people". In 1960, the Panchen Lama mysteriously died, just as his open condemnation of Chinese policies intensified. Gyancain Norbu was raised in Beijing and has appeared occasionally on state media. Gedhun Choekyi Nyima and his family have gone missing, into imprisonment according to Tibetan exiles, and under a hidden identity for protection and privacy according to the PRC. Since 1959, there have been major economic changes, like the rest of the PRC, but the political system remains undemocratic and repressive. Some PRC policies in Tibet have been described as moderate, while others are judged to be more oppressive. Most religious freedoms have been officially restored, provided the lamas do not challenge PRC rule. Foreigners can visit most parts of Tibet, and it is claimed that the less savoury aspects of PRC rule are kept hidden from visitors. The PRC continues to portray its rule over Tibet as an unalloyed improvement, and foreign governments continue to make occasional protests about aspects of PRC rule in Tibet because of frequent reports of human rights violation in Tibet by many human rights groups such as Human Rights Watch. Tibetan exiles state that the number that have died in the much unwanted Great Leap Forward, of violence, or other indirect causes since 1959 is approximately 1 million. According to Patrick French, the estimate is not reliable because the Tibetans were not able to process the data well enough to produce a credible total. There were, however, many casualties, perhaps as many as 2 million. This figure is extrapolated from a calculation Warren W. Smith made from census reports of Tibet which show a "missing" 2 million from Tibet. The Dalai Lama sees the millions of Han immigrants, attracted to the TAR by economic incentives and preferential socioeconomic policies, as presenting an urgent threat to the Tibetan nation by diluting the Tibetans both

culturally and through intermarriage. Exile groups say that despite recent attempts to restore the appearance of original Tibetan culture to attract tourism, the traditional Tibetan way of life is now irrevocably changed. Supporters of the Dalai Lama argue that comparisons between the theocracy before and the Tibet of today are false because, if China had not invaded, the Dalai Lama would have worked to improve the material lot of the people, their political rights, and in doing so has disturbed the natural process of a legitimate nation. It is reported that when Hu Yaobang , the general secretary of the Chinese Communist Party, visited Lhasa in he was unhappy when he found out the region was behind neighbouring provinces. But monks and nuns are still sometimes imprisoned, [29] and many Tibetans mostly monks and nuns continue to flee Tibet yearly. At the same time, many Tibetans view projects that the PRC claims to benefit Tibet, such as the China Western Development economic plan or the Qinghai-Tibet Railway , as politically-motivated actions to consolidate central control over Tibet by facilitating militarization and Han migration while benefiting few Tibetans; they also view the money funneled into cultural restoration projects as being aimed at attracting foreign tourists. They note that Tibet is still behind the rest of the PRC: Operational since July The government of the PRC says that the population of Tibet in was about 8 million, and that due to the backward rule of the local theocracy, there was rapid decrease in the next two hundred years and the population in was only about 1. Today, the population of Greater Tibet is 7. Based on the census numbers, the PRC also rejects claims that the Tibetans are being swamped by Han Chinese; instead the PRC says that the border for Greater Tibet drawn by the government of Tibet in Exile is so large that it incorporates regions such as Xining that were never traditionally Tibetan in the first place, hence exaggerating the number of non-Tibetans. The modern Chinese city of Xining in Qinghai province. Claimed as part of "Greater Tibet" by the Tibetan exile community. The China Western Development plan is viewed by the PRC as a massive, benevolent, and patriotic undertaking by the wealthier eastern coast to help the western parts of China, including Tibet, catch up in prosperity and living standards. Tibet has beautiful mountainous terrain. Most of the Himalaya mountain range, one of the youngest mountain ranges in the world at only 4 million years old, lies within Tibet. The average altitude is about 3, m in the south and 4, feet in the north. The atmosphere is severely dry nine months of the year, and average snowfall is only 18 inches, due to the rain shadow effect whereby mountain ranges prevent moisture from the ocean from reaching the plateaus. Western passes receive small amounts of fresh snow each year but remain traversable year round. Low temperatures are prevalent throughout these western regions, where bleak desolation is unrelieved by any vegetation beyond the size of low bushes, and where wind sweeps unchecked across vast expanses of arid plain. The Indian monsoon exerts some influence on eastern Tibet. Northern Tibet is subject to high temperatures in summer and intense cold in winter. Historic Tibet consists of several regions: Amdo A mdo in the northeast, incorporated by China into the provinces of Qinghai , Gansu and Sichuan. Kham Khams in the east, divided between Sichuan, northern Yunnan and Qinghai. On the border with India, the region popularly known among Chinese as South Tibet is claimed by China and administered by India as the state of Arunachal Pradesh. Several major rivers have their source in the Tibetan Plateau mostly in present-day Qinghai Province , including:

Chapter 8 : 20th century - Why did China invade Tibet? - History Stack Exchange

A melodramatic movie about the British invasion, "Red River Valley," was released in It was a hit, and Chinese still rave about it. It was a hit, and Chinese still rave about it.

Why Did China Invade Tibet? To this day, the reasons why China invaded Tibet are still being debated and argued. There are differing opinions and some background information is necessary for forming an opinion. In the British sent thousands of troops to Tibet. Hundreds, if not thousands of civilians were killed. Shortly afterwards the British took control of the land. In Britain and China entered into an agreement. The Chinese agreed to pay Britain 2 million rupees. To this day, the reason why China invaded Tibet is its belief that it rightfully belongs to the mainland. Independence for Tibet In the Dalai Lama, the leader of Tibet, made his return to the country after years in exile. During this period, China was in chaos as the Qing dynasty had collapsed. The few Chinese troops that were stationed in Tibet where easily defeated. The Dalai Lama proclaimed independence. On October , the Chinese Army took over the country, starting at Chamdo. A year later the Dalai Lama through his representatives, signed a treaty with the Chinese. In it they recognized the authority of China over their country. When looking at the reasons why China invaded Tibet, the importance of this agreement the 17 Point Treaty cannot be overlooked. While the Chinese say it verifies their claim, the Dalai Lama states that they were forced to sign it. Tibetan Viewpoint Since the s, the Dalai Lama has been governing in exile. Along with his supporters they claim that under Chinese rule the local population has been subjected to economic, social and racial inequalities. According to their supporters, over half a million Tibetans have died since the Chinese occupation. They also pointed out that the entire country is being absorbed into the mainland. The reason why China invaded Tibet was to turn it into a home for its own people. The time will come when Tibet and its culture will disappear as it gets assimilated into he Chinese culture. The authorities in Beijing say that from to , the economic situation in the country had deteriorated. What the Chinese Army did was to liberate the people from suffering and inept leadership. With help from the mainland, the economic and individual status of the people had improved. The government also releases statistics saying GDP figures have risen tremendously since the occupation. They also point out that workers there are paid high and infrastructure has improved. The Chinese authorities have also stated that they have embarked on a mission to preserve historical sites in the country. There is no easy answer to the question of why China invaded Tibet. It is bound to provoke passionate and heated responses. To this day, the issue has yet to be settled.

Chapter 9 : History of Tibet - Wikipedia

"Tibet" () is an account of early British attempts to gain influence in Tibet. The 13th Dalai Lama in At the beginning of the 20th century the British and Russian Empires were competing for supremacy in Central Asia.

Francis Younghusband The causes of the war are obscure, and it seems to have been provoked primarily by rumours circulating amongst the Calcutta -based British administration Delhi not being the capital until that the Chinese government, who nominally ruled Tibet , were planning to give it to the Russians, thus providing Russia with a direct route to British India and breaking the chain of semi-independent, mountainous buffer-states which separated India from the Russian Empire to the north. These rumours were confirmed seemingly by the facts of Russian exploration of Tibet. In view of the rumours, the Viceroy , Lord Curzon , during sent a request to the governments of China and Tibet for negotiations to be held at Khampa Dzong , a tiny Tibetan village north of Sikkim to establish trade agreements. The Chinese were willing, and ordered the thirteenth Dalai Lama to attend. However, the Dalai Lama refused, and also refused to provide transport to enable the amban the Chinese official based in Lhasa , You Tai, to attend. Curzon concluded that China did not have any power or authority to compel the Tibetan government, and gained approval from London to send a military expedition, commanded by Colonel Francis Younghusband , to Khampa Dzong. On July 19, , Younghusband arrived at Gangtok , the capital city of the Indian state of Sikkim , to prepare for his mission. A letter from the under-secretary to the government of India to Younghusband on July 26, stated that "In the event of your meeting the Dalai Lama, the government of India authorizes you to give him the assurance which you suggest in your letter. The entire British force numbered over 3, fighting men and was accompanied by 7, sherpas, porters and camp followers. The Tibetans were aware of the expedition. To avoid bloodshed the Tibetan general at Yetung pledged that if the British made no attack upon the Tibetans, he would not attack the British. Colonel Younghusband replied, on December 6, , that "we are not at war with Tibet and that, unless we are ourselves attacked, we shall not attack the Tibetans". When no Tibetan or Chinese officials met the British at Khapma Dzong, Younghusband advanced, with some 1, soldiers, 10, porters and labourers, and thousands of pack animals, to Tuna, fifty miles beyond the border. After waiting more months there, hoping in vain to be met by negotiators, the expedition received orders during to continue toward Lhasa. The government was aware that help could not be expected from the Chinese government, and so intended to use their arduous terrain and mountain-trained army to block the British path. The entire British force numbered just over 3, fighting men and was accompanied by 7, sherpas , porters and camp followers. Permission for the operation was received from London , but it is not known whether the Balfour government was completely aware of the difficulty of the operation, or of the Tibetan intention to resist it. Initial advance Major Francis Younghusband leading a British force to Lhasa in The British army which departed Gnatong in Sikkim on the 11 December was well prepared for the coming conflict due to its lengthy experience of service in Indian border wars. The commander, Brigadier-General James Ronald Leslie Macdonald, wintered in the border country, using the time to train his troops near regular supplies of food and shelter before advancing properly in March, and making over 50 miles before his first major obstacle was presented on the 31 March at the pass of Guru, near Lake Bhan Tso. On the slope above they had placed seven or eight "sangars" stony emplacements. He hoped to prevent bloodshed, as the conflict was not yet a shooting war, and perhaps as a gesture of goodwill appears to have ordered his men to extinguish the fuses of their muskets, the relighting of which is a lengthy and difficult operation. Macdonald refused to accept the warnings of the Tibetan general and dispatched Sikh and Gurkha soldiers to disarm the Tibetan forces, who were unable to resist the advance due to their extinguished fuses, but still refused to surrender their arms, resulting in a brawl amidst the sangars which while violent, was not yet deadly. It was at this stage that war was declared irreparably, although the cause of it has never been established and probably never will be. Whatever the truth of the battle, the actual fighting did not last long. Once disarmed, the Tibetan forces attempted to retreat, but became entangled with each other and the steep landscape, opening them to disciplined rifle volleys from the Sikh and Gurkha regiments as well as attack by the deadly British Maxim Guns. Despite this withering attack, the Tibetan

forces fell back in good order, refusing to turn their backs or run, and holding off cavalry pursuit at bayonet point. Half a mile from the battlefield the Tibetan forces reached shelter and were allowed to withdraw by Brigadier-General Macdonald. Behind them they left between and fatalities and wounded, of whom survived in British field hospitals as prisoners. British losses were twelve casualties. After one battle, surviving Tibetans showed profound confusion over the ineffectiveness of these amulets. Macdonald ordered his Gurkha troops to scale the steep hillsides of the gorge and drive out the Tibetan forces ensconced high on their cliffs. This they began, but soon were lost in a furious blizzard, which stopped all communications with the Gurkha force. Some hours later, exploratory probes down the pass encountered shooting and a desultory exchange continued till the storm ended around noon, which showed that the Gurkhas had by chance found their way to a position above the Tibetan troops. Thus faced with shooting from both sides as Sikh soldiers pushed up the hill, the Tibetans moved back, again coming under severe shooting from British artillery and retreated in good order, leaving behind dead. British losses were again negligible. It was clear that the mission was going to have to contest almost every pass and village it crossed, a problem Macdonald attempted to solve by splitting his forces, packets of several hundred being dispatched to various points on his route to drive in smaller Tibetan defences to speed the passage of the main force. Two minor actions occurred around this time, one on the 5 May at a fortified farm named Chang Lo involved an assault by an estimated Tibetans on the British garrison of the fort, who were alerted by the cries of the Tibetan war whoops in time to form ranks and drive back the assailants with dead. The other skirmish on the 9 May was possibly the highest action ever fought, when a Tibetan position at the Garo Pass 19, feet above sea level was assaulted by Gurkha troops who climbed a vertical cliff under fire to outflank the Tibetans who were driven back by a charge of Gurkha, Sikh and British soldiers. For once, casualties were more evenly distributed, although the Tibetans still suffered greatly. During the following two months, Macdonald collected his forces near Chang Lo and cleared minor obstacles with the intention of assaulting the main Tibetan stronghold at Gyantse Dzong. Once this obstacle was cleared, the road to Lhasa would be opened, due to the removal of the small Tibetan forces occupying it by the dispersal of the British force. On 28 June the final obstacle to the assault was cleared when a fortified monastery which covered the approach was taken in house to house fighting by Pathan soldiers. Tibetan responses to the invasion so far had relied totally on static defences and sniping from the mountains at the passing column neither of which had proved effective, and apart from the failed assault on Chang Lo two months previously that had not made any sallies against British positions or any aggressive movements against the besieging army. This attitude was a mix of justifiable fear of the Maxim Guns, and partly faith in the solid rock of their defences, but in every battle they were disappointed primarily by their poor weaponry and inexperienced officers. The British did not have time for a lengthy formal siege and so Macdonald proposed that feints would draw Tibetan soldiers away from the walls over several days before an artillery bombardment with mountain guns would create a breach, which would be stormed immediately by his main force. This plan was implemented on the 4 July, when Gurkha troops captured several batteries in the vicinity of the fortress by climbing vertical cliffs under fire, a feat they achieved with impressive frequency. The eventual assault on July 6 did not happen as planned, as the Tibetan walls were stronger than believed previously. It took eleven hours to break through. The breach was not completed until 4: As Gurkhas and Royal Fusiliers charged the broken wall, they came under heavy shooting and suffered some casualties. After several failed attempts to gain the walls, two soldiers broke through a bottleneck under fire and stormed the walls, despite both being wounded. They gained a foothold which the following troops exploited, enabling the walls to be taken. Knowing by now the power of British weaponry upon a defeated force, the Tibetans retreated in good order from the fort, allowing the British control of the road to Lhasa, but denying Macdonald a rout and thus remaining a constant threat although never a serious problem in the British rear for the remainder of the war. The two soldiers who broke the wall at Gyantse Dzong were both well rewarded. Entry to Lhasa The British made a triumphal procession to the Potala Palace Younghusband now assumed command of the mission, as the road had been cleared successfully. He took on his procession to Lhasa nearly 2, soldiers, all those not required to protect the road back to Sikkim. Crossing several obviously fortified ambush points without incident and recrossing the Garo Pass, the force arrived in Lhasa on 3 August to discover that

the thirteenth Dalai Lama had fled to Urga , the capital of Outer Mongolia. For this, the Chinese government stripped him of his titles and had their amban post notices around Lhasa that the Dalai Lama had been deposed, and that the amban was now in charge. However, Tibetans tore down the notices, and Tibetan officials ignored the amban. The amban escorted the British into the city with his personal guard, but informed them that he did not have any authority to negotiate with them. The Tibetans told them that only the absent Dalai Lama had authority to sign any accord. But Younghusband intimidated the regent, Ganden Tri Rinpoche, and any other local officials he could gather together as an ad hoc government, to sign a treaty drafted unilaterally by himself, known subsequently as the Anglo-Tibetan Agreement of 1904. It allowed the British to trade in Yadong, Gyantse, and Gartok; called for Tibet to pay a large indemnity , pounds; subsequently this sum was reduced , ceding the Chumbi Valley to Britain until it was paid; formally recognized the Sikkim-Tibet border; and declared that Tibet would not have any relations with any other foreign powers converting Tibet into a British protectorate. The amban publicly repudiated the treaty, and Britain later announced that it still accepted Chinese claims of authority over Tibet. Acting Viceroy Lord Anthill reduced the indemnity by two thirds and considerably eased the terms in other ways as well. The provisions of this treaty were revised in a treaty Anglo-Chinese Convention signed between Britain and China. The British, for a fee from the Qing court, also agreed "not to annex Tibetan territory or to interfere in the administration of Tibet", while China engaged "not to permit any other foreign state to interfere with the territory or internal administration of Tibet". In the event, neither side could be too unhappy with the outcome of the war. Britain had "won" and had received the agreements it desired, but without actually receiving any tangible results. The Tibetans had lost the war but had seen China humbled in its failure to defend their client state from foreign incursion, and had pacified the invader by signing an unenforceable and largely irrelevant treaty. Damage to civilian life and property was virtually nil, and there are not any contemporary reports of looting or wanton destruction by the soldiers of either side. Some Chinese historians of a much later date have attempted to portray this as a series of savage massacres of unarmed men during a vicious war of expansion, but apart from the controversial beginning battle at Guru, such tragedies did not occur, the war instead being conducted with the minimum possible bloodshed, all British commanders being mindful of their own government, where their actions were thoroughly scrutinized at the distance of some weeks[citation needed]. It was in fact the reaction in London which was fiercest in condemnation of the war. By the Edwardian period, colonial wars had become increasingly unpopular, and public and political opinion were unhappy with the waging of a war for such slight reasons as those provided by Curzon, and with the beginning battle, which was described in Britain as something of a deliberate massacre of unarmed men. It was only the support given to them by King Edward VII that provided Younghusband, Macdonald, Grant and others with the recognition they did eventually receive for what was quite a remarkable feat of arms in taking an army in such a remote, high-altitude location, driving through courageous defenders during freezing weather in difficult positions and achieving all their objectives in just six months, losing just men to enemy action and to other causes. Tibetan casualties have never been calculated, but must have reached the several thousands during the course of 16 major and minor actions, including two battles. Force composition An early Maxim Gun , the type used to good effect by the British The composition of the opposing armies explains a lot about the outcome of the ensuing conflict. The Tibetan soldiers were almost all rapidly impressed peasants, who lacked organisation, discipline, training and motivation. Only a handful of their most devoted units, composed of monks armed usually with swords and jingals proved to be effective, and they were in such small numbers as to be unable to reverse the tide of battle. This problem was exacerbated by the generals who commanded the Tibetan forces, who seemed in awe of the British and refused to make any aggressive moves against the small and often dispersed convoy. They also failed conspicuously to properly defend their natural barriers to the British progress, frequently offering battle in relatively open ground instead, where Maxim Guns and rifle volleys caused great numbers of casualties. By contrast, the British and Indian troops were experienced veterans of mountainous border warfare on the North-West Frontier , as was their commanding officer. Amongst the units at his disposal in his 3, strong force were elements of the 8th Gurkhas , 40th Pathans , 23rd and 32nd Sikh Pioneers , 19th Punjab Infantry and the Royal Fusiliers , as well as mountain artillery, engineers, Maxim gun detachments from four

regiments and thousands of porters recruited from Nepal and Sikkim. With their combination of experienced officers, well-maintained modern equipment and strong morale, they were able to defeat the Tibetan armies at every encounter. Aftermath The Tibetans were in fact not just unwilling to fulfil the treaty; they were also unable to perform many of its stipulations. Tibet did not have any substantial international trade commodities and already accepted the borders of its neighbours. Nevertheless, the provisions of the treaty were confirmed by a treaty Anglo-Chinese Convention signed between Britain and China. However, the Qing dynasty was overthrown in the Xinhai Revolution , which began during October Although the Chinese forces departed once more in , the First World War isolated Tibet and reduced Western influence and interest there with the communist takeover in Russia. During , neither the British nor the Indians were able or willing to become involved against the return of Chinese forces. It was not until , with the creation of the position of "Head of British Mission Lhasa", that a British officer had a permanent posting in Lhasa itself. They also assert that the British made a good impression on the Tibetans by giving medical treatment to wounded Tibetan prisoners and giving them gifts before freeing them, and by paying local inhabitants well for supplies[citation needed]. Chinese historians write of Tibetans opposing the British heroically out of loyalty not to Tibet, but to China[citation needed]. They assert that the British troops looted and burned, that the British interest in trade relations was a pretext for annexing Tibet, a step toward the ultimate goal of annexing all of China; but that the Tibetans destroyed the British forces, and that Younghusband escaped only with a small retinue.