Introduction

In February 1784, one of the world’s newest countries sent a trading ship to one of the Earth’s oldest civilizations. Thus began the story of the relationship between the peoples of the United States and China. Over the course of the next 225 years, the United States became a superpower, while imperial China was transformed into a modern nation, ready to assume its place on the 21st century stage.

While there were ups and downs in the bilateral relationship, for most of that time, each government concentrated its diplomatic efforts on more urgent threats to its national interests. Throughout the 19th and 20th centuries, the Chinese often focused on Europe, Japan, Russia, and later the Soviet Union, while the United States turned toward Latin America, Europe, and the Middle East.

Yet despite difficulties, the interest of both Americans and Chinese in building ties across the Pacific persisted. And that interest was fueled by the ways in which countless individuals, both Chinese and American, perceived each other. American businessmen first sought profit from tea and fine porcelain, and later dreamed of millions of new “China Trade” customers. Qing officials hoped that the United States could provide some protection against European imperialists, and later, Nationalist Chinese leaders looked to the United States for aid against their Japanese enemies. American missionaries saw China as an opportunity to spread the Christianity, while Chinese laborers and students journeyed to America in search of wealth or education, to help their families back home.

No matter how often these hopes and aspirations went frustrated or unfulfilled, the dream of such possibilities remained and brought Chinese and Americans together in the pursuit of separate and shared goals. Most importantly, both peoples considered their relationship—despite evidence to the contrary—as one of friendship.

What may have begun as myth became, over time, part of the reality of U.S.-China relations. Realists and ideologues may have dominated diplomacy, and profit-driven businessmen may have dominated trade, but genuine friendship sparked educational and developmental programs. Today, this interrelationship of official and unofficial contacts has produced the most important bilateral relationship of the new century.

At the dawning of the 21st century, the United States and China are deeply intertwined, with countless arenas of possible cooperation or conflict. The implications are global, and it is more important than ever to make that historical belief in friendship a reality.
This book does not claim to be a full or even a partial—survey of the many ups and downs of the U.S.-Chinese political relationship over the course of more than two centuries. What it does try to do, is something quite different. *A Journey Shared* takes a closer look at the relationships between the Chinese and American peoples and the ways—surprising and varied—that they have influenced each other during the last 200-plus years. It is those myriad personal relationships that undergird our political and diplomatic relations and will continue to strengthen the ties between our two countries, and our two peoples, into the 21st century.

This book was prepared by the Office of the Historian, Bureau of Public Affairs. The text was researched and written by Susan K. Holly and Evan N. Dawley; Anne L. McCarthy was the graphic designer. Invaluable assistance was provided by Ambassador Randt and the staff of Embassy Beijing; most especially Donald M. Bishop, James B. Lane, Douglas E. Towns, Michael D. Crain, and Alex M. Berenberg. Finally, special thanks must go to Jaime E. Salcedo and Sharon C. Eaton of the Special Projects Division of the Bureau of Overseas Building Operations for envisioning this project as an integral component in the commemoration of the 2008 opening of Embassy Beijing.

This book is dedicated to the memory of Department of State historian Paul Claussen, our colleague and friend, who conceived this project as part of his longtime efforts to use history to educate and enlighten people in the United States and all over the world.

Marc J. Susser
The Historian
U.S. Department of State
August 2008
Dear Reader:

The United States of America and the People’s Republic of China will celebrate the Thirtieth Anniversary of the establishment of diplomatic ties in January 2009. Few nations in history have grown to be as significant to one another in such a short period of time. In fact, however, the United States’s interest in, and relationship with, China and the Chinese people date back centuries.

A young American republic sent its first consul to the “Middle Kingdom” even before the United States Constitution was duly ratified. Samuel Shaw of Massachusetts, a veteran of the Revolutionary War, served as Consul of the United States at Canton (now Guangzhou) without salary. Much has changed since the eighteenth century. Today, the United States Mission in China has nearly five hundred American officials and approaches two thousand in total staff. The burgeoning economic relationship first established in the days of the Old China Trade, when sailing ships from New England plied the ports of Canton, Hong Kong, Amoy and Shanghai, has grown to nearly U.S. $400 billion in two-way trade, making China our second largest trading partner.

Understanding the past is crucial to the future of our critical and complex relationship, a relationship that increasingly touches the lives of every American. Both Herbert Hoover and George H.W. Bush lived in China before becoming Presidents of the United States. Dr. Sun Yat-sen, called the Father of Modern China, spent years in Hawaii and the mainland United States fundraising and developing contacts for a popular rebellion against the Manchu Empire. The American people and Chinese people have also served as brothers in arms. The fabled “Flying Tigers” of the American Volunteer Group scored significant victories against enemy forces while serving in the Chinese Air Force under General Claire Chennault during the Second World War. Aircrews of the United States Army Air Forces later braved the Himalayan peaks to “fly the Hump” in order to supply forces fighting for China’s very survival.

I have had the honor and privilege of serving as United States Ambassador to the People’s Republic of China for the past seven years, a witness to history, both with respect to United States-China relations and to China’s development. The rise of China is one of the most important events of our lifetime, an event that will significantly impact the sort of world our children and grandchildren inherit. We at the United States Embassy have had front row seats to this dramatic transformation. China has become a more integrated and influential member of the global community, and we encourage China to continue along the path of becoming a responsible actor in international affairs. As President George W. Bush observed, a stable and prosperous China, at peace with itself and the world, is both in the interest of the United States and in the interest of global peace and prosperity. I am confident that this important bilateral relationship will continue to broaden and deepen long into the future. As President Bush has said, “working together, the United States and China can achieve great things.”

Very truly yours,
Clark T. Randt
U.S. Ambassador to China
A Chinese Diplomat in the United States

Standard:

I. Culture
III. People, Places, and Environments
IV. Individuals, Groups, and Institutions
VI. Power, Authority, and Governance
IX. Global Connections

Grade Level: 9-12

Objectives: The student will:
✓ Assess U.S. Government legislation through the eyes of a Chinese diplomat
✓ Examine diplomatic interaction between U.S. and China
✓ Determine the pros and cons of U.S. diplomatic actions

Time: 1-2 class periods

Materials: Access to web sites
Handouts or visual displays of activities

Procedures:

1. Introduce this activity with the following story.

President Ulysses S. Grant resides in the largest tomb in North America, overlooking the Hudson River in Manhattan. Behind this imposing mausoleum is a ginkgo tree beside a plaque in the ground with the inscription:

This tree is planted at the site of the tomb of General U.S. Grant, Ex-President of the United States of America, for the purpose of commemorating his greatness by Li Hung Chang, guardian of the Prince, Grand Secretary of State, Earl of the First Order, Yang Yu Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of China, Vice President of the Board of Censors Kwang Hsu 23rd year, 4th Moon, May 1897.

Questions:

a. What do we know based on this inscription?
b. Who commemorated Grant with this inscription and why?
c. What occasion(s) might have generated a connection between Grant and Li Hung-chang?
2. Explain to students that Li Hung-chang (Li Hongzhang) (1823-1901) was one of the most influential and powerful leaders in China. He was a general and principal statesman during the Qing Dynasty. Li was one of the first Chinese leaders to promote the military superiority of Western machinery and arms and he established the Chinese navy. However, his military engagements usually ended in failure, casting a negative image in China for what was otherwise an influential career. Li met with President Grant in 1879 during Grant’s Asian tour to discuss Chinese-U.S. relations. In 1896, he visited the United States advocating for the reform of American immigration policies manifested in the Chinese Exclusion Act (1882). More detailed information is available at:

http://www.nationmaster.com/encyclopedia/Li-Hongzhang

3. Mutual admiration developed between President Grant and Li Hung-chang when President Grant visited China during his world tour (1877-1879). An interesting account of this visit is Grant’s Tour Around the World by J.F. Packard, pp. 709-714. The content of the toasts by each man appear quite sincere.

4. Li Hung-chang visited the United States in 1896. He appealed to the U.S. Government to repair damage created by the Chinese Exclusion Act (1882). (See the activity, Exclusion By Law, to view content of the Exclusion Act.) Li’s visit received much media attention with varied reports about and reactions to Li and China in general. An indication of attention paid to the visit was the cartoon that depicted Li visiting the “Yellow Kid” and Hogan’s Alley.

5. Before using the Yellow Kid cartoon, provide students with this background information:

"By 1895, cartoonist Richard Felton Outcault’s creation, "The Yellow Kid," had evolved from the June 2, 1894, edition of "Truth" magazine to full-page color drawings under the title Hogan’s Alley (a street sign used in early "Truth" cartoons) in Joseph Pulitzer’s newspaper, “The New York World.” This distinctive street kid, wearing a bright yellow nightshirt, and sporting a bald head with large ears and two teeth, and dialog written on his nightshirt, became a cartoon social commentator for “The New York World."

The Kid was a huge commercial success. Dolls, candy, cigars, and other goods, bore the image of the Yellow Kid. The cartoon inspired theater and vaudeville shows across the country. The Kid was the spokesperson for the common man, the underprivileged, and the working class. Most of his commentary was about everyday life in the city’s tenements, the ethnic groups living in New York, and class divisions. The Kid was an icon for the “little guy.”

6. Show students the cartoon “Li Hung Chang Visits Hogan’s Alley.”

Note that this type of mass gathering was a common device use by Outcault to portray an important event or issue. Therefore, Li Hung Chang’s visit to the U.S. was a significant event. Have students answer these questions:

a. Does Li Hung Chang appear to occupy a position of respect in the Hogan’s Alley reception? Evidence?

b. What interpretations are there of “Chinese culture?”

c. Determine if this is a fair representation of Li’s Chinese heritage. Is there evidence of stereotyping?
7. Some of the writing throughout the cartoon is difficult to read. This site allows the viewer to read the cartoon:
http://cartoons.osu.edu/yellowkid/1896/semester/1896-09-06.jpg

8. Certain signs read:
   • Top of building (left): "Be sure to get the “Rediculous” Dress Stay. It makes your waist 1 foot smaller—and you are a sight—what you want is to be uncomfortable.”
   • Top of building (right): “Ladies Ask for the Li Hung Chang Corset If your dealer says something else is just as good tell him he is a big liar.”
   • Goat (top of building): “They are giving him some genuine Chinese music.”
   • Kid falling off building (left) has commentary offered by the parrot: “That kid is always falling off the house. Some day he will be hurt.”
   • Placard in the crowd: “Quiet Corner Club Picnic fer Li Hung Chang in Ryan’s vacant lot next Thursday. Gents 50 cents...Ladies 25 cents...Real Ladies Free.”
   • What appears to be a Chinese inscription about Outcault’s signature reads from top to bottom: “NOTHING IS SO MUCH FUN AS LOTS OF NOISE and BE GEE.”
   • Near this sign, the little girl's fan reads, “Hurrah! Fer Lie-Hang-Chang.” The small Chinese inscription to the right by the dog reads, “QUIT YER KIDDIN.”
   • The writing on the Yellow Kid’s shirt reads, “Me and Li has made a big hit with each other. Say! He tinks I’m a Chinaman—Don’t say a word. I’m goin ter give a yellow tea fer him—I know my Q.”
   • The sign attached to the dog reads, “I am leading an upright life. We are all at our best today.”

Another bit of information is that Li always wore a YELLOW jacket in his public appearances.

9. Have students try to imagine that they are reading a copy of The New York World, September 6, 1896 and they are deciphering this comic. What commentary would they offer about Li Hung-chang’s visit to the United States? Record responses and share with the class.

10. Assess the success of Li Hung Chang’s visit to the United States. Did he negotiate an end to the Chinese Exclusion Act (1882) and other legislation that affected Chinese immigration?

Extension Activities:

1. Li Hung Chang kept a diary. Have students react to this quote from Li:

   "Nanking, 1869. All foreigners regard China in the light of a yellow corpse, buried by itself, and never to awaken without the white devil’s medicines. When they are looking upon China these foreigners all use the same spectacles; yet at home they fight among themselves, and have more bitter hatreds against each other than they have against us. The French hate the Germans, and the Russians kill the Jews, but they are all Christians when they come to China."
A Journey Shared: The United States and China

The United States and the People’s Republic of China are two of the most powerful nations in the world today. Their relationship affects every person on earth. Will we be friends—or enemies? Will we cooperate or compete? That decision will depend, in part, on how much each country understands about the other. And that understanding depends on how much we know about our shared journey.

Opening Sequence

In 1784, Americans knew very little about China. Benjamin Franklin believed everyone wore silk, and some thought that China was the size of a single American state.

But Americans did want Chinese silk, tea, and porcelain. In February 1784, the Empress of China was the first ship to travel from the new United States to China. Americans, like other foreigners, were confined to tiny trading islands outside the city of Canton. They were allowed to trade through middlemen, but not to travel or meet average Chinese. The Emperor called foreigners “ocean barbarians” and did not want contact with the Government of the United States.

For 60 years, the United States had no diplomatic relations with China. Then, in 1844, Caleb Cushing negotiated the Treaty of Wang-xia. During the 19th century, American diplomats accomplished very little. They preferred to wait for the Europeans to win new concessions from the Chinese.

Americans believed their relationship with China was special, because they didn’t use force to win concessions like the British. But they did little to protect China from its predatory neighbors—Japan and Russia—and nothing to protect it from the Europeans.

China’s leading diplomat, Li Hung-chang, met with former President Ulysses S. Grant in 1879 and traveled to the United States to ask for help. He was not successful.

Americans learned more about China during Li’s visits, but most of our information still came from U.S. missionaries, who spoke Chinese and stayed in China for long periods of time. But the missionaries came in contact with only a tiny segment of Chinese society. They were not always aware of the vast differences between American and Chinese cultures.

The United States was founded on Enlightenment principles. Americans believed in individual freedom and individual choice. Chinese society was based on the teachings of Confucius, who emphasized duty, obedience, and conformity.
By the late 1890s, the United States was an important world power, after winning the Spanish-American War and gaining control of the Philippines, Guam, and the Hawaiian Islands. American Secretary of State John Hay feared that the Europeans were about to divide China into separate spheres of influence. This threatened America’s economic interests. Hay proposed an “Open Door” policy to stop the partition of China and to keep its ports open to U.S. merchants. Hay won European support for the proposal, but internal tensions in China led to an explosion.

Many Chinese joined the Society of Right and Harmonious Fists, or “Boxers,” which rose against the foreign influences they saw as corrupting society. Several hundred Christian missionaries and thousands of Boxers were killed. Diplomats barricaded the legation quarter in Peking and resisted for 55 days, until foreign troops arrived.

Even though China’s Dowager Empress Cixi supported the rebels, Li Hung-chang asked American Minister Edwin Conger for help in ending the crisis. China survived as a nation, but was forced to pay an indemnity to the Western powers. Weak and poor, the Qing Dynasty was overthrown in 1911.

The leader of the new Chinese government, Dr. Sun Yat-sen, was educated in the United States and was a Christian. He wanted to modernize China and establish peace, freedom, and equality. Sun’s forces controlled the south, but warlords controlled the north. Sun decided to join forces with another group that opposed the warlords—the small Chinese Communist party. After Sun’s death in 1925, General Chiang Kai-shek won control of the Government by joining forces with the warlords and throwing out the communists.

In 1927, Chiang first tried to destroy the Communist party in Shanghai, where it was strongest. This was the start of the Chinese Civil War. The Nationalists and the Communists kept fighting, even after Japan invaded Manchuria in 1931. To escape, in 1934, the communists traveled 6,000 miles across China during the “Long March.” Their leader was Mao Zedong.

Most Americans only knew about Chinese prosperity in cities like Shanghai and Canton through China’s Westernized elite. Only a handful of Americans knew about the 500 million Chinese who lived in disease and poverty. In 1932, diplomat Edmund Clubb reported that poverty—not communism—was the breeding ground of revolution in China. The Government in Washington did not know how much support Mao had—or how corrupt Chiang’s government was.

President Franklin D. Roosevelt sent a personal envoy, Evans Carlson, to China in 1938. Carlson reported that the communist army could help defeat Japan. But some U.S. naval officers close to Chiang’s government opposed this view. Chiang did not allow Carlson to return to China again.

Throughout World War II, President Roosevelt received conflicting advice from American military officers close to Chiang, and from American diplomats who reported on Mao. They couldn’t agree because they were reporting on two different Chinas. Diplomats John Davies and John Service warned Washington that it was dangerous to give aid to only one side in the Chinese Civil War. They believed it was in the best interest of the United States to know more about Mao Zedong.
In 1944, the United States sent John Service and a small group of military observers to Mao’s headquarters in Yenan. They called themselves the “Dixie Mission.” Service wrote: “We have come into a different country and are meeting a different people.”

But it was too late to change U.S. policy. Influential Americans like Ambassador Patrick Hurley and the powerful China Lobby in Congress argued that the United States should only send aid to Chiang. Diplomats who disagreed with Hurley were labeled disloyal and sent out of China.

**Ambassador Patrick Hurley:**

*The career men in the State Department desired to give Lease-Lend supplies to the Chinese armed party. I opposed that because my mission was to prevent the collapse of the Nationalist Government. To arm a belligerent party in China against that government would in my opinion have destroyed the government.*

In March 1945, the Dixie Mission ended. The Chinese civil war continued.

At the end of World War II, tension grew between the United States and the Soviet Union. Americans believed that the Soviet goal was to replace Western democracies with communist states. Many also believed that Moscow controlled the communist party in China. Some U.S. leaders felt that only Chiang Kai-shek’s government could stop the expansion of world communism in Asia.

**Newsreel Announcer:**

*Well-known to every American is lean, keen Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek: undisputed leader and idol of 450 millions of Chinese.*

But Chiang’s army kept losing ground. American conservatives attacked President Harry S Truman for being “soft” on communism. In 1949, Secretary of State Dean Acheson released a White Paper on China. The White Paper explained that Chiang’s government was corrupt and that the diplomats had told the truth: No matter how much aid went to Chiang, The United States could not prevent Mao’s victory.

Chiang lost control of the mainland and fled to the island of Taiwan in December 1949, where he set up a Chinese government in exile. The United States still recognized Chiang as China’s leader, but American conservatives accused President Truman of “losing” China to communism. They wanted someone to blame. On February 9, 1950, Senator Joseph McCarthy accused 205 State Department diplomats of being communist sympathizers and traitors to the United States.

**Senator Joseph McCarthy:**

*...and even if there were only one communist in the State Department that would still be one communist too many.*

McCarthy targeted the Department’s “China hands,” who had been the most critical of Chiang and who had first-hand knowledge of Mao. John Service and John Davies, among others, were fired because of the reports they had written during the 1930s and 1940s. Both eventually cleared their names, but it was much too late. Those who knew the most about Mao—and communism in Asia—were silenced.
Presidential candidate Adlai Stevenson:

The United States must never be in a position—now or in the future—when another country can make its foreign policy. The great mistake we have made in the Far East in respect to Chiang Kai-shek, is that we have permitted him to involve us in matters which were not, in my judgement, proper for us to be involved in: the Chinese Civil War.

When Mao took control of China, American diplomats were caught up in the conflict. Consulates were invaded, and U.S. Consul Angus Ward and his staff were interned in their Mukden compound for one year. In April 1950, the last American diplomat left China. Relations between the two countries were broken.

Journalist Theodore White:

At the American consulate in Hong Kong there are cascades, mountains, piles of translations that come in from the Chinese. And these are sandy, gritty, gravely little bits of information that are meaningless because we don’t know who does what to whom in Peking. We don’t know how they think or how they make up their minds. It’s as if there were a struggle of sea monsters going on deep, deep beneath the surface of our vision and only these bubbles come to the surface to tell us that these are terrible struggles, but we don’t know what they’re struggling about.

The Cold War in Asia brought the United States and China into conflict in Korea and into confrontation over the Taiwan Straits and Vietnam. In 1971, President Richard M. Nixon wanted to resolve the Vietnam War and balance the global influence of the Soviet Union. He took a dramatic step.

President Richard Nixon:

There can be no stable and enduring peace without the participation of the People’s Republic of China and its 750 million people. I sent Dr. Kissinger, my assistant for National Security Affairs to Peking for the purpose of having talks with Premier Zhou Enlai.

In 1972, Nixon traveled to China and met with Mao Zedong and Premier Zhou Enlai. In the Shanghai Communiqué, both countries agreed to work to establish full diplomatic relations. The United States agreed that there was only one China, but deferred settlement of the Taiwan issue. In 1979, President Jimmy Carter and Chairman Deng Xiaoping established full diplomatic relations, even though the status of Taiwan was unresolved.

Relations remained stable as long as both sides wanted to balance the power of the Soviet Union. But in 1989, the Soviet Union began to crumble. American leaders were pleased that freedom was spreading. But Chinese leaders were afraid that their government would be the next to fall because discontent was rising in China.

American journalists in Beijing had little knowledge of Chinese politics. They did not always know how to interpret what was happening. Many journalists could not speak Chinese and focused on students who spoke English and adopted Western symbols.

**Chinese Student:**

*I think people support us. Police cannot injure us.*

Americans saw a pro-democracy movement crushed on TV. Chinese leaders believed that the United States was interfering in China’s internal affairs.

**Winston Lord:**

*The history books, I’m afraid, are going to record Deng, not only as a reformer the last 10 years, but as one of the butchers of Beijing.*

Diplomatic relations were strained. Neither side could accept the other’s position.

The events at Tiananmen in 1989 still affect U.S.-China relations today. The on-going struggle for human rights is just one of the many challenges China faces. A booming economy has brought environmental and health problems, and great disparity between rich and poor. For the United States, the challenge remains to understand both Chinas, the poor as well as the prosperous, the insecure state as well as the international superpower. The future depends on it.

**Journalist:**

*Can you sing a little Chinese opera for us?*

**American Middle-schooler:**

*OK...[sings] ■*
Recall and Reproduction—Depth of Knowledge (DOK) Level 1

Recall and Reproduction asks students to recall facts, terms, concepts, trends, generalizations and theories or to recognize or identify specific information contained in graphics. This level generally requires students to identify, list, or define. The items at this level usually ask the student to recall who, what, when and where. Items that require students to “describe” and “explain” could be classified at Level 1 or 2 depending on the complexity of what is to be described and explained. A Level 1 “describe or explain” would recall, recite or reproduce information. Items that require students to recognize or identify specific information contained in maps, charts, tables, graphs or drawings are generally Level 1.

A student answering a Level 1 item either knows the answer or does not: that is, the answer does not need to be “figured out” or “solved.”

Skills and Concepts/Basic Reasoning—Depth of Knowledge (DOK) Level 2

Skills and Concepts/Basic Reasoning includes the engagement of some mental processing beyond recalling or reproducing a response. This level generally requires students to contrast or compare people, places, events and concepts; convert information from one form to another; give an example; classify or sort items into meaningful categories; describe, interpret or explain issues and problems, patterns, reasons, cause and effect, significance or impact, relationships, points of view or processes. A Level 2 “describe or explain” would require students to go beyond a description or explanation of recalled information to describe or explain a result or “how” or “why.”

Strategic Thinking/Complex Reasoning—Depth of Knowledge (DOK) Level 3

Strategic Thinking/Complex Reasoning requires reasoning, using evidence, and a higher level of thinking than the previous two levels. Students would go beyond explaining or describing “how and why” to justifying the “how and why” through application and evidence. The cognitive demands at Level 3 are more complex and more abstract than Levels 1 or 2. Items at Level 3 include drawing conclusions; citing evidence; applying concepts to new situations; using concepts to solve problems; analyzing similarities and differences in issues and problems; proposing and evaluating solutions to problems; recognizing and explaining misconceptions or making connections across time and place to explain a concept or big idea.

Extended Thinking/Reasoning – Depth of Knowledge (DOK) Level 4

Extended Thinking/Reasoning requires the complex reasoning of Level 3 with the addition of planning, investigating, or developing that will most likely require an extended period of time. The extended time period is not a distinguishing factor if the required work is only repetitive and does not require applying significant conceptual understanding and higher-order thinking. At this level the cognitive demands should be high and the work should be very complex. Students should
be required to connect and relate ideas and concepts within the content area or among content areas in order to be at this highest level. The distinguishing factor for Level 4 would be evidence through a task or product that the cognitive demands have been met. A Level 4 performance will require students to analyze and synthesize information from multiple sources examine and explain alternative perspectives across a variety of sources and/or describe and illustrate how common themes and concepts are found across time and place. In some Level 4 performance students will make predictions with evidence as support, develop a logical argument, or plan and develop solutions to problems.

Many on-demand assessment instruments will not include assessment activities that could be classified as Level 4. However, standards, goals, and objectives can be stated so as to expect students to perform thinking at this level. On-demand assessments that do include tasks, products, or extended responses would be classified as Level 4 when the task or response requires evidence that the cognitive requirements have been met.
**Depth of Knowledge (DOK) Levels**

**Level One**
(Recall)
- Draw
- Define
- Calculate
- Arrive
- Recall
- Define
- Calculate
- Identify
- Memorize
- Label
- Illustrate

**Level Two**
(Skill/Concept)
- List
- Name
- Use
- Quote
- Measure
- Report
- Infer
- Categorize
- Collect and Display
- Identify Patterns
- Organize
- Construct
- Separate
- Cause/Effect
- Estimate
- Compare
- Relate
- Distinguish
- Use Context Cues
- Make Observations
- Summarize
- Show

**Level Three**
(Extended Thinking)
- Hypothesize
- Formulate
- Develop a Logical Argument
- Use Concepts to Solve Non-Routine Problems
- Explain Phenomena in Terms of Concepts
- Draw Conclusions
- Differentiate
- Cite Evidence

**Level Four**
(Extended Thinking)
- Prove
- Revise
- Apprise
- Critique
- Critique
- Apprise
- Revise
- Prove

**Level One Activities**
Recall elements and details of story structure, such as sequence of events, character, plot and setting.
Conduct basic mathematical calculations.
Label locations on a map.
Represent in words or diagrams a scientific concept or relationship.
Perform routine procedures like measuring length or using punctuation marks correctly.
Describe the features of a place or people.

**Level Two Activities**
Identify and summarize the major events in a narrative.
Use context cues to identify the meaning of unfamiliar words.
Solve routine multiple-step problems.
Describe the cause/effect of a particular event.
Identify patterns in events or behavior.
Formulate a routine problem given data and conditions.
Organize, represent and interpret data.

**Level Three Activities**
Support ideas with details and examples.
Use voice appropriate to the purpose and audience.
Identify research questions and design investigations for a scientific problem.
Develop a scientific model for a complex situation.
Determine the author’s purpose and describe how it affects the interpretation of a reading selection.
Apply a concept in other contexts.

**Level Four Activities**
Conduct a project that requires specifying a problem, designing and conducting an experiment, analyzing its data, and reporting results/solutions.
Apply mathematical model to illuminate a problem or situation.
Analyze and synthesize information from multiple sources.
Describe and illustrate how common themes are found across texts from different cultures.
Design a mathematical model to inform and solve a practical or abstract situation.

A Journey Shared: The United States & China

Glossary

The following terms related to government, foreign affairs, and diplomacy are used in this documentary and curriculum. The definitions are drawn from a variety of sources, including dictionaries, textbooks, and official United States Government websites.

**Ambassador**

The official representative from one country to another. An Ambassador is the highest ranking official assigned to live in a foreign country for an extended period of time. In the United States, an Ambassador is appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate. The title of Ambassador was first used in the United States in 1893. Prior to that, the highest ranking American diplomats were Ministers.

**Cold War**

A state of tension between the United States and the Soviet Union that began after World War II and continued for more than 40 years. Unlike a traditional “hot war,” the Cold War did not involve direct armed conflict between the two states. Rather, it was characterized by diplomatic, political, economic, technological, and cultural competition. It also involved a nuclear arms race, and some instances in which each superpower became engaged in armed conflict involving smaller nations.

**Communism**

A theory and system of social and political organization that sought to overthrow capitalism through a workers’ revolution and redistribute wealth to the proletariat, or working class.

**Congress**

The Legislative branch of the U.S. Government, made up of the Senate and the House of Representatives.

**Concession**

A grant of property or of a right by a government.

**Consul**

A person appointed by the government to reside in a particular city of another country and represent the government’s commercial interests and to provide assistance to other citizens who are living or traveling in that country. A consulate, the consul’s office, may be located in several large cities of the country. The first consuls were authorized by Congress in 1792.

**Department of State**

The United States Government department responsible for advising the President on formulating military defense policy and implementing those policies, and for directing and coordinating operations of three branches of the military.
Diplomacy
The term is used to describe the practice of conducting relations with other nations, such as negotiating treaties, alliances, or agreements.

Diplomat
An individual who is appointed by the government to represent its interests and to conduct its relations with another government. An Ambassador is the highest ranking U.S. Department of State diplomatic representative to another nation.

Dispatches
Official messages sent with speed between a government and its overseas diplomats or between nations. It can also refer to news that is sent to a newspaper or news organization by a correspondent.

Dixie Mission
The United States Army Observation Group, commonly known as the Dixie Mission, was sent during World War II to Yan’an, China, to establish the first official relations between the Communist Party of China and the United States of America. It lasted from July 22, 1944 to March 11, 1947.

Embassy
The official headquarters of a government’s Ambassador and other representatives to another country. It is usually located in the capital of the other country.

Enlightenment Period or The Enlightenment
A term used to describe a phase in Western philosophy and cultural life centered upon the eighteenth century, in which Reason was advocated as the primary source and basis of authority.

Envoy
A diplomatic representative who ranks between an ambassador and a minister.

Exile
Forced removal or voluntary absence from one’s native country or home.

Foreign Policy
The official views and policies of the government regarding its relations with other nations. In the United States, foreign policy is developed by the President, with the advice of the Secretary of State and others and is implemented by the Department of State and any other officials designated by the President.

Indemnity
Freedom from penalty for past offenses.

Legation
A diplomatic mission usually headed by a minister.
**Nationalist**
A member of a political party or group advocating national independence or strong national government.

**Negotiation**
The term refers to discussions between individuals, groups, or nations that are conducted for the purpose of arriving at an agreement on a particular set of terms or actions.

**Open Door**
A policy giving opportunity for commercial relations with a country to all nations on equal terms.

**President**
As the highest ranking elected official of the United States, the President is the leader of the nation and the chief of the executive branch of the United States Government.

**The West**
A Term used during the Cold War to refer to the United States and its allies, especially those in western Europe.

**Treaty**
A formal agreement between two or more nations. A treaty may have a variety of purposes, such as to specify the terms of peace at the end of a war, to establish trade or the economic relations between nations, or to establish controls and limits on certain types of weapons or activities.

**White Paper**
A term used for a government report outlining policy. It addresses problems and how to solve them. White papers are used to educate readers and help leaders make decisions in politics.

### Glossary Activities

Teachers are encouraged to develop pre-video activities, history, and biography lessons or assessments that incorporate the people, locations, events, and terms in the following lists. A suggested lesson and extension activities are described in the Guided Listening Activity included in this instructional package.

### Historical Figures
The following world leaders, diplomats and other historical figures are included in this video. These website resources can be useful for lessons about historical figures:
Archives Library Information Center
http://www.archives.gov/research/alic/reference/biography-resources.html

Department of State Timeline of U.S. Diplomatic History
http://www.state.gov/r/pa/ho/time

Library of Congress Virtual Reference Shelf
http://www.loc.gov/rr/askalib/virtualref.html

National Archives and Records Administration Research
http://www.archives.gov/research

U.S. Presidents, Diplomats, and Public Figures
Dean Acheson
Evans Carlson
Jimmy Carter
O. Edmund Clubb
Edwin Conger
Caleb Cushing
John Davies
Benjamin Franklin
Ulysses S. Grant
John Hay
Patrick Hurley
Henry Kissinger
Joseph McCarthy
Richard M. Nixon
Franklin D. Roosevelt
John Steward Service
Adlai Stevenson
Harry S Truman
Angus Ward
Theodore White

Foreign Leaders and Diplomats
Chiang Kai-shek
Deng Xiaoping
Dowager Empress Cixi
Mikhail Gorbachev
Li Hung-chang
Joseph Stalin
Mao Zedong
Sun Yat-sen
Zhou Enlai

Locations
The following geographic locations are included in this video. These websites can be useful resources for activities about cities, countries, and regions of the world:
World Regions and Areas
- Pacific Ocean
- Taiwan Straits

Modern Cities and Countries
- Canton (Guangzhou)
- Guam
- Hawaiian Islands
- Japan
- Korea
- Manchuria
- Mukden
- Nanjing (Nanking)
- Peking (Beijing)
- People’s Republic of China
- Philippines
- Russia
- Shanghai
- Taiwan
- Yanan
- Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR)
- United Kingdom (Great Britain)
- United States

Historical Terms and Events
The following historical events, policies, and organizations are included in this video. These websites can be useful resources for activities about historical documents, terms, and events.

Department of State—Timeline of U.S. Diplomatic History
http://www.state.gov/r/pa/ho/time

Library of Congress Virtual Reference Shelf
http://www.loc.gov/rr/askalib/virtualref.html

National Archives and Records Administration Research
http://www.archives.gov/research
Historical Documents, Terms, and Events

Boxer Uprising
China Hands
China Lobby
Cold War
Chinese Civil War
Chinese Communist Party (CCP)
Chinese Nationalist Party (Kuomintang)
Empress of China
Long March
Open Door Policy
Qing Dynasty
Republic of China
Shanghai Communiqué
Society of Right and Harmonious Fists (Boxers)
Spanish-American War
Tiananmen Square
Treaty of Wang-xia
Vietnam War
White Paper
World War II

Traditional and Modern Chinese Spelling
Throughout history, Chinese proper names and place names have appeared in Western publications spelled in several different ways. Below is a list of names with pinyin (today’s official system), the Wade-Giles system it replaced, as well as the common English name. This can be confusing for students since we commonly use a mixture of all three spelling and pronunciation systems.

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Note: A more comprehensive list is available from the Library of Congress
http://www.loc.gov/catdir/cpso/china.html
A Journey Shared: The United States & China

Introduction

The Documentary Series

This instructional package is the fifth in a continuing series produced by the United States Department of State, in collaboration with a special committee of social studies educators. The purpose of the series is to help students understand the connection between world events and their own lives and those of others in their communities.

The series builds upon the resources of the U.S. Department of State. The DVD, CD-ROM, and other resources in this series are intended for use with middle school and high school courses. In producing instructional materials of this nature, the developers recognize that the audiences represent a vast range of interests and backgrounds, as well as local and state curriculum standards and requirements.

We hope that teachers find this package useful and will look forward to future programs. Your comments and suggestions will be helpful in the development of future instructional packages. Please contact us at: pateacherfeedback@state.gov

A Journey Shared: The United States and China

A Journey Shared is an instructional package that explores the diplomatic interaction between the United States and China since the first American ship entered Chinese waters in 1784, examines the difficulties each country has experienced in understanding the domestic politics and international behavior of the other, and looks at issues of relevance in that diplomatic relationship for the 21st century.

Documentary segments on the DVD include: “Introduction,” “Origins to the End of the 19th Century,” “From the Open Door to the Chinese Civil War,” the “Cold War in Asia”, and “20th Century Relations, 1949-2000.”

This package also includes the documentary script and script outline, a chronology, glossary, lessons, and extension activities, website links, and other support materials. Also included in the package is the text of an overview of U.S.-Chinese relations prepared specifically for the August 2008 opening of the new United States Embassy in Beijing. It was presented to President George W. Bush and Chinese leaders, as well as to dignitaries attending the opening ceremony. While it is not available to the general public, it has been included here and reformatted as short readings for students with accompanying study questions.

Lessons focus on history, civics, geography, economics, and culture, and support the thematic curriculum standards of Expectations of Excellence: Curriculum Standards for Social Studies of the National Council for Social Studies. Lessons and support materials were also designed to promote the literary emphasis of No Child Left Behind by including oral, written, and visual communications activities.

These instructional materials were designed to provide a high degree of flexibility for teachers. The DVD can be viewed in its entirety or in segments. It can be used to stimulate classroom discussion, to introduce a series of lessons on the topic, or to supplement existing classroom lessons. The documentary program and lessons may constitute a complete instructional unit, or individual elements may be incorporated into existing units. These instructional materials support U.S. history, civics and government, economics, international relations, and modern world history courses.
Teachers are encouraged to enhance the content of this package with other instructional materials and information sources, such as textbooks, newspapers, television, and the internet. Suggestions for using additional resources are included with a number of the lessons. Teachers are encouraged to modify suggested lessons and other materials in ways that are appropriate for their students, courses, and other local circumstances.

Print materials are provided in pdf format on the CD-ROM and are Mac and PC compatible. They can be reproduced easily to enable teachers to customize materials for their own classrooms. Website references within the lessons are not hot links and should be copied and pasted in your browser for access. Teachers are always advised to review and abide by copyright restrictions at all listed websites. All lessons in this package produced by the Department of State may be reproduced and disseminated without specific permission.

U.S. Department of State
Bureau of Public Affairs
Office of the Historian
November 2008

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## NCSS Standards

The lessons in this Instruction Package are geared to the curriculum standards of the National Council for the Social Studies. Those standards are:

|------------|---------------------------------|--------------------------------------|----------------------------------------|------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|----------------------------------------|----------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|

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*Standard supported depends on the material selected
The lessons in this Instruction Package are geared to the curriculum standards of the National Council for the Social Studies. Those standards are:

I. Culture
II. Time, Continuity, and Change
III. People, Places, and Environment
IV. Individual Development and Identity
V. Individuals, Groups, and Institutions
VI. Power, Authority, and Governance
VII. Production, Distribution, and Consumption
VIII. Science, Technology, and Society
IX. Global Connections
X. Civic Ideals and Practices

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The United States was founded on Enlightenment principles, emphasizing individual freedom and personal choice. Chinese society has its basis in Confucianism with its emphasis on duty, obedience, and conformity.

The first overseas contact initiated by the newly independent United States was with China in 1784.

The United States traded with China for 60 years before establishing diplomatic relations with the Qing Dynasty.

The absence of U.S. diplomatic representation in China meant that virtually all of American public opinion about China was formed by missionaries and traders. Their personal experiences in China had a huge effect on the diplomatic posture of the United States and attitudes of Americans about China.

During the 20th century, Chinese reaction to international events was motivated, to a great extent by its desire to reunify China and avenge the injustices inflicted on it by other states during the 19th century.

The sophisticated lobbying efforts of Chiang Kai-shek’s Republic of China led influential Washington policymakers to reject the reports of American diplomats in China. While Chiang had influence within both American political parties, many prominent conservative Republicans were among his strongest supporters.

After Mao Zedong took control of the Chinese mainland in 1949, Chiang’s Washington supporters blamed President Truman for “losing” China to communism. Senator Joseph McCarthy directly accused Department of State employees of supporting the communists and of being traitors. No one was ever convicted.

As a direct result of McCarthyism, the Department of State lost those who knew the most about communism in Asia with devastating consequences for U.S. policymaking in Southeast Asia.

Americans saw the events at Tiananmen Square as a move toward greater Western-style freedom, mirroring events in Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union. The Chinese believed that the United States was trying to encourage domestic instability in an attempt to the overthrow of the communist government.

The events at Tiananmen Square in 1989 still play an important part in the U.S.-China relationship.

To understand China’s actions on the international stage, Americans must always be aware of the intense domestic pressure on China’s leaders.

To build a successful international partnership, both the United States and China constantly must work to understand the actions of the other.
A Journey Shared: The United States & China

Script Outline

Introduction
a. The United States and China are two of the most powerful nations in the world
b. Their relationship affects the entire world
c. Both countries need to know more about each other and about their relationship

Beginnings
a. In 1784, Americans knew very little about China
b. Americans did want to trade with China
c. The Empress of China was the first ship to travel from the U.S. to China
d. The Chinese Emperor did not want contact with the “ocean barbarians”
e. The Treaty of Wang-xia established diplomatic relations in 1844
f. Americans did not use force to win concessions from China
g. Li Hung-chang traveled to the U.S. to ask for help against the Europeans
h. Most American knowledge about China came from missionaries
i. U.S. founded on Enlightenment principles; China founded on Confucian principles
j. Many Americans did not understand how different the two societies were

Open Door to the End of a Dynasty
a. By the late 1890s, the United States had become a major world power
b. Secretary of State John Hay feared the Europeans were about to divide China
c. Hay proposed an Open Door policy
d. China exploded during Boxer uprising
e. Li Hung-chang asked for U.S. help to end the crisis
f. Qing Dynasty overthrown in 1911
g. Republic of China through World War II
h. New Chinese Government led by Dr. Sun Yat-sen
i. Sun controlled the south, but warlords controlled northern China
j. General Chiang Kai-shek gains control after Sun’s death
k. Chiang tries to destroy Chinese communist party in 1927; Chinese civil war began
l. Japan invaded Manchuria in 1931
m. “Long March” under leadership of Mao Zedong saved Communist movement
n. Most Americans unaware of poverty level in China
o. U.S. diplomat Edmund Clubb reported that poverty might lead to revolution
p. President Roosevelt sends a personal envoy to China
q. During World War II, FDR received conflicting advice about Mao and Chiang
r. Diplomats urge the President to learn more about Mao’s movement
s. U.S. observers undertake the “Dixie Mission” to visit Mao’s headquarters
t. Ambassador Hurley banishes all U.S. diplomats who seem favorable to Mao
The Cold War in Asia

- Postwar tension grew between the U.S. and the Soviet Union
- Americans believed that the USSR controlled Mao’s movement and supported Chiang
- Secretary of State Dean Acheson released a “White Paper” on U.S. policy in China
- Chiang lost the mainland and moved his government to Taiwan
- Mao’s communist party took over mainland China in 1949
- Chiang’s U.S. supporters blamed President Truman for “losing” China to communism
- Senator Joseph McCarthy accused 205 State Department employees of being communists
- Diplomats who had reported favorably on Mao’s movement were fired
- In 1950, diplomatic relations between the U.S. and China ended

The Opening to China Through Tiananmen Square

- U.S. and China were in conflict over Korea, Taiwan Straits, and Vietnam
- President Richard Nixon renewed contact with China to balance power of the USSR
- Full diplomatic relations were restored in 1979; Taiwan issue unresolved
- When the USSR began to decline in 1989, Americans were pleased but Chinese were worried
- Rapid economic change disrupted Chinese society
- During Mikhail Gorbachev’s 1989 visit to China, 1 million Chinese converged on Tiananmen Square
- Americans believed the protest was a move toward democracy
- Chinese leaders believed the western powers were trying to incite unrest
- The violence of Tiananmen still affects the US-China relationship today
- China faces many internal problems
- U.S. must understand both Chinas—rich/poor, powerful/insecure
Table of Contents

The following are brief descriptions of the lessons included in this curriculum package. To access these activities, return to the main menu and click on “Lessons.”

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Lessons

General Knowledge Assessment

Fill-in-the-blank, short answer, and essay questions that can be used either as a pre-test or as an active listening worksheet.

What Do You Really Know?

Designed to be used as a pre-unit activity. Use prior knowledge to answer questions and relate key names and terms to each other.
- Includes the China Knowledge Assessment worksheet; and
- An Answer Key.

Guided Listening Activity

Develop listening and recognition skills; build vocabulary with key names and terms; identify key locations, people, events, and policies; and relate key names and terms to each other and to a larger context.
- Use DVD script and Glossary

Political Cartoons

Analyze 19th century political cartoons for theme, link them to specific historical events, and indentify their tone.
- Includes a graphic organizer, The Gallery of Cartoons; and
- Five 19th century political cartoons.
Confucius and the Analects
Increase and strengthen literacy skills while investigating Confucius and the "Five Relationships," and learning how these concepts have influenced Chinese society.
- Includes an essay on Confucius: A Chinese Thinker and Social Philosopher;
- Selections from the Analects;
- Black-line image of Confucius;
- Jigsaw puzzle template; and
- An Answer Key.

Sailing: Change is in the Wind
Map the location of oceans and ports.
- Includes a black-line world map; and
- A black-line map of Asia

Treaty after Treaty, a Small Comparison of Treaties
Analyze two major treaties affecting the China Trade of the 19th century, create a chart exploring treaty content, and draw conclusions on the implications of the treaties for the United States and China.
- Includes excerpts from the Treaty of Nanking; and
- Text of the Treaty of Wang-xia.

Chinese Reaction to Treaties
Use prior knowledge of early foreign trade with China, read and analyze two primary documents, use a graphic organizer to synthesize information, and give an oral presentation to the class.
- Includes Placards Posted in Guangzhou, Documents #1 and #2; and
- Primary Document Readings graphic organizer.

A Chinese Diplomat in the United States
Assess U.S. Government legislation through the eyes of a Chinese diplomat, examine diplomatic interaction between the United States and China, and determine the pros and cons of U.S. diplomatic actions.

Exclusion by Law
Examine the historical background of the Chinese Exclusion Act, explore the dynamics of cultural discrimination, and assess the role of the U.S. Government in immigration actions and legislation.
- Includes a copy of the cartoon, The Magic Washer; and
- Chinese Exclusion Act (1882)
The Siege of the Legations

Analyze primary documents—both written and visual—critique the tone of a letter and compose a response, research global connections, and the research weaponry of the time period.

- Includes a Siege of the Legations graphic organizer;
- Letter from future First Lady Lou Henry Hoover on the Boxer Rebellion;

Nixon and China: A Document-based Question

Determine the policies that marked a turning point in relations between the United States and the People’s Republic of China, assess historical events in both countries, and explain primary documents.

- Includes a cartoon from the 1970s;
- A message from President Nixon to Zhou Enlai (May 1971);
- A UN Resolution dated October 25, 1971;
- A Department of State intelligence report of June 1969;
- Excerpts of a joint statement after discussions (the Shanghai Communiqué);
- President Nixon’s toast in Peking (February 21, 1972);
- Reports of a study on NSSM 124;
- Letter from Premier Zhou Enlai to President Nixon (January 3, 1973); and
- Excerpts from the Taiwan Relations Act of 1979.

Be the Historian: Working with Primary Documents

Apply reading and critical thinking skills, analyze primary documents, research the “Red Scare,” compare and contrast similar events in history, and analyze the role of technology during this time period.

- Includes the Primary Document Analysis Sheet;
- The first report of diplomat John Service from Yenan, China (August 26, 1944),
- A telegram from Senator Joseph McCarthy to President Harry S. Truman, February 11, 1950; and
- President Truman’s reply to Senator McCarthy (not sent).

Open Doors to China

Compare and contrast different eras of Chinese global interaction, analyze the political, economic, and social effects of “open doors”; and trace the path of U.S.-Chinese diplomacy.
Revolutions in China, 1911 and 1949
Examine the historical background of China’s 1911 and 1949 revolutions, determine the impact on history of key Chinese leaders; and compare and contrast the response of past leaders to more recent events.
- Includes the Chinese Leaders worksheet.

Mapping Revolutionary China, 1900-1949
Evaluate the changing occupation of China’s physical terrain, chronicle the eventual success of the communist party in the civil war, and determine the major geographic regions and cities affected by both the Japanese occupation and the Chinese civil war.

“Made in China”
Compare and contrast trade patterns between the United States and China, determine the relevance of historic events to changes in trade, and assess the current economic relationship between the United States and China.
- Includes Imports from China chart;
- U.S. Trade in Goods chart;

Hutongs and Modernization: The Cultural Landscapes of China
Recognize the relevance of hutongs to the traditional Chinese landscape, determine the impact of modernization on China’s traditional way of life, and assess the extent of a clash between traditional and modern landscapes.

Population and China’s Future
Compare and contrast China’s present and future populations and determine the political, social, and economic effects of population growth.
- Includes a chart, Chinese Population Pyramids for 2000 and 2050.

China and the Olympics: A Metamorphosis
Compare and contrast Chinese participation in the Olympics of 1935 and 2008, determine the relevance of diplomatic events to the Olympics, and analyze periods of Chinese historical events, current and past.

A Journey Shared: The United States and China, 200 Years of History
- Includes an overview lesson, Under the Surface: Critical Thinking and Analysis,” and chapter readings with study questions. Use print and electronic resources to conduct research; create questionnaires, charts, and graphs; develop and apply research skills; analyze information; prepare data for presentation; and develop written skills.
Origins to the End of the 19th Century
  ● U.S. Merchants Look to China
  ● American Missionaries in the 19th century
  ● Early Diplomatic Contact
  ● Chinese Subjects in the United States
From the Open Door to the Chinese Civil War
  ● Political Change in China
  ● Religious and Educational Contacts
  ● Learning About China
  ● The Chinese in America
  ● Diplomacy and Trade
  ● Military and Wartime Relations
20th Century Relations, 1949-2000
  ● From World War to Cold War
  ● After the Opening: Trade and Technology
  ● After the Opening: Educational and Cultural Relations
  ● Chinese Americans after the End of Exclusion
  ● Modern Diplomacy
Timeline: Beginnings

1776
North American colonies declare independence

1784
Empress of China sails from New York to Canton

1793
British send a delegation to China

1796
Li Hung-chang travels to the United States

1816
East India Co. begins to ship opium to China

1844
Treaty of Wang-xia signed

1850
Taiping Rebellion begins

1858
Chinese Government extends special trade privileges to Britain, France, Russia, and U.S.

1872
First Chinese students go abroad

1879
Li Hung-chang meets Ulysses S. Grant

1879
Mao Zedong born; China's first newspaper founded

1882
Mao Zedong becomes a student in Shanghai

1893
Mao Zedong becomes leader of the Chinese Communist Party

1896
Mao Zedong visits the United States

Key:
- Event included in script
- Other important events

“A Journey Shared: The United States and China”
Timeline: Open Door to the End of a Dynasty

1899
- John Hay proposes an Open Door policy

1899
- Boxer Uprising begins

1900
- U.S. wins Spanish-American War/Boxers besiege Legation Quarter in Peking

1901
- Boxer indemnity imposed on China/Li Hung-chang dies

1911
- Qing Dynasty overthrown

Key:
- Event included in script
- Other important events

“A Journey Shared: The United States and China”
Timeline: The Republic of China to World War II

1912
Chinese Republic founded by Sun Yat-sen in Nanking

1925
Death of Sun Yat-sen/ Chiang Kai-shek wins power

1927
Chiang attacks communists in Shanghai

1931
Japanese invade Manchuria

1932
Chiang attacks communists in Shanghai

1934
Communists begin 6,000-mile long march

1937
Sino-Japanese War begins

1938
Japanese destroy Nanking

1941
U.S. enters Pacific War after bombing of Pearl Harbor

1943
U.S. observers sent to Yenan on “Dixie Mission”

1944
Diplomats warn of danger in only aiding Chiang’s government

1945
World War II ends

Key:
Event included in script
Other important events

“A Journey Shared: The United States and China”
1947
- General George Marshall fails to make peace in Chinese Civil War
- McCarthy accuses 205 Department of State employees of treason
- Last U.S. diplomat leaves Peking in April
- Korean War begins in June
- U.S. begins a trade embargo on the PRC that will last 21 years

1949
- Department of State issues a “White Paper” on China
- Chiang flees to Taiwan/PRC founded
- 21 Senators urge President Truman not to recognize the PRC

1950
- Sino-Soviet split
- Communists bomb Taiwan Straits/U.S. threatens to intervene
- Korean War begins in June

1955
- Great Leap Forward
- Second Taiwan Straits Crisis

1958
- Mao launches Cultural Revolution

1960
- Third crisis over the Taiwan Straits

1962
- First Chinese atomic bomb detonated

1964

Key:
- Event included in script
- Other important events

“A Journey Shared: The United States and China”
1971
Henry Kissinger secretly visited Peking

1972
President Nixon visits Peking
U.S. and China issue the Shanghai Communiqué
Republic of China loses U.N. seat

1976
Death of Mao Zedong

1979
Full diplomatic relations established between the U.S. and the PRC

1989
Berlin Wall falls
Mikhail Gorbachev visits China
Tiananmen Square protests

1991
Soviet Union dissolves

2001
China joins the WTO

2007
Unmanned Chinese space craft orbits the moon

2008
China hosts Summer Olympics in Beijing
China and Russia end 40-year-old border dispute

Key:
Event included in script
Other important events

“A Journey Shared: The United States and China”
Sailing: Change is in the Wind Asia Map

“A Journey Shared: The United States and China”
A Journey Shared:  
The United States & China

Be the Historian:  
Working with Primary Documents

Historians are always looking at documents to put together an accurate picture of who, what, where, when and the how that has shaped our U.S. history and our relationship with other countries. In this CD, working with primary documents is not only an exciting way to learn but allows a closer look at the events that have shaped relations with China. You now have the tools to be the historian.

Standard:  
I. Culture  
II. Time, Continuity, and Change  
V. Individuals, Groups, and Institutions  
VI. Power, Authority, and Governance  
VIII. Science, Technology, and Society  
IX. Global Connections

Grade Level:  
9-12

Objectives:  
The student will:  
✓ Apply reading and critical thinking skills  
✓ Analyze primary documents  
✓ Research events of the RED SCARE  
✓ Compare and Contrast similar events in history  
✓ Analyze the role of technology (telegram/broadcasting)

Time:  
1-2 class periods per set of documents

Materials:  
A Journey Shared CD  
Analysis sheet  
Copies of the primary documents  
Access to the internet  
Newsprint and markers

Procedures:  
1. Pass out one set of documents along with analysis sheet.  
2. Divide the class into groups, teams, pairs or give as an individual assignment  
3. Have student read the documents and work with analysis sheet.  
4. Have students report out on their findings as a group, team, or individual.  
5. In the section of Analysis Sheet, have students take newsprint, write the questions, and post in the appropriate place in the classroom for discussion.

Note:  The McCarthy telegram lends itself to the Jigsaw strategy of students working with only one section of the document. Students may then report out and students would be able to share findings until the entire document is completed.
Be the Historian: Working with Primary Documents

Extension Activities:

1. Research and prepare for an analysis of the role broadcasting played during the McCarthy Hearings.

2. The term “Witch Hunt” has been used for several incidences in U.S history. Analyze the Salem Witch Trials, the trial of Sacco and Venzetti, or that of Ethel and Julius Rosenberg. Assume the persona of their defense lawyers. Prepare timelines and use testimony to prepare arguments that are useful for the defense of the individuals involved. Present to your class.

3. Investigate and analyze the relationships and interactions of the following individuals: John Stewart Service, John Paton Davies, Patrick Hurley, and John Carter Vincent.

4. Taking on the persona of President Truman, create a response to Senator McCarthy that would be sent. Present your response before the “Committee.”

5. Research the Amerasia Incident. Could John Stewart Service have been tried for treason? Check out how the Constitution defines treason. (Art. III, Sect. 3 Paragraph 1)

6. Broadcast journalism was coming into its own right at the time of the McCarthy Hearings. How did television and broadcast journalists sway societies’ opinion with regard to communism?
The Siege of the Legations:
A Chinese Boxer, 1900

Photo: National Archives, ARC Identifier 530870
China and the Olympics: A Metamorphosis

Standard:

II. Time, Continuity, and Change  
IV. Individuals, Groups, and Institutions  
VI. Power, Authority, and Governance  
IX. Global Connections

Grade Level: 9-12

Objectives: The student will:
✓ Compare and contrast Chinese participation in the Olympics of 1935 and 2008  
✓ Determine relevance of diplomatic events to Olympics
✓ Analyze periods of Chinese historical events, current and past

Time: 1-2 class periods

Materials: Access to web sites  
Copies of questions or visual display of questions

Procedures:

1. Provide students with copies of article, “Historical Background,” or access the article online to gain a brief look at China’s earliest participation in the Olympic games.

2. Using the article, “Historical Background,” focus on these questions with students:
   a. When was China first invited to the Olympics?
   b. When did China first participate in the Olympics?
   c. How were Liu Changchun and General Zhang Xueliang instrumental to China’s participation in the 1932 Olympics?
   d. Liu Changchu’s participation in the 1932 Olympics was controversial for the Chinese Government and an inspiration for many Chinese. Why? What was happening in China at this time?
   e. What role did diplomacy play during the evolution of China’s involvement with the Olympics?

3. A significant story in China’s Olympic history revolves around Liu Changchun as the sole Chinese participant in 1932 and the success of Liu Xiang in 2004—with Liu Xiang seen as one of several potential gold medal winners for China in 2008. (Update: One of the most shocking
moments of the Olympics for China was when Liu Xiang did not complete his race—articles abound about this incident.) China predicted it would surpass all countries in the total medal count in 2008. China did not win the most overall medals, second to the United States, but did have the most gold medals.

Have students read the two articles about Liu Changchun and Liu Xiang:


4. As students read these articles, have them list similarities and differences between the lives of these athletes. Discuss their findings.

a. Have students describe China of 1932 and China today.
b. What are apparent differences in Olympic participation?
c. How does China of today compare historically with China of 1932?
d. How do both exemplify Chinese patriotism?
e. Why do some Chinese feel that Liu Xiang is a reincarnation of Liu Changchun?

5. Read the article, China Ties Olympic Gold to Quest for Worldwide Esteem:


a. Have students describe what China did to prepare for the attention of the world in 2008.
b. Focus on the training of athletes. How does training in China differ from training in the United States?
c. Have students discuss China’s overall success in the 2008 Olympics.
d. Assess the impact that the Olympics had on world opinion and knowledge of China.
e. Place students in groups. Have each group list key facts that come to mind about the China of today. Each group should display their lists (either on chart paper or on board). Compare lists. Have students determine if items are factual, stereotypical, or incorrect.
f. Compile a final list of statements that are deemed correct. What influenced the facts presented? (Possible answers: media coverage of the Olympics, information from World or U.S. History courses, general knowledge, or personal knowledge.)
Extension Activities:

1. Use the U.S. Department of State’s Background Notes about China; focus on the history section:
   
   http://www.state.gov/r/pa/ei/bgn/18902.htm

   a. Have students identify the key events affecting China around 1932 to present day.

   b. Determine which of these events/actions has had the most impact on the creation of China as it presented itself to the world via the 2008 Olympics. Justify this selection.

2. Within groups, create a situation where Liu Changchun and Liu Xiang meet to discuss their Olympic experiences and life in China. Prepare dialog as it would occur in a conversation between two people with common interests. Share these “conversations” with entire class.
# China Knowledge Assessment Worksheet

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How many countries border China?</th>
<th>For which export was China known?</th>
<th>What U.S. president opened the door to China during the 1970s?</th>
<th>What sports team got caught up in U.S.-China diplomacy?</th>
<th>What was the name of the Forbidden City?</th>
<th>This is the name of a great Chinese philosopher.</th>
<th>The first U.S. president to confer with a Chinese diplomat.</th>
<th>This was the name of the first trading headquarters in China.</th>
<th>The author of <em>The Good Earth</em></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14 Countries</td>
<td>Tea or Porcelain</td>
<td>President Nixon</td>
<td>Table Tennis Team</td>
<td>The Palace of the Emperor of China</td>
<td>Confucius</td>
<td>Ulysses S. Grant</td>
<td>Canton</td>
<td>Pearl Buck</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peking (Beijing)</td>
<td>When Americans first reached China, what type of government did we have?</td>
<td>During the 19th century, what type of ship was the mainstay of the China trade?</td>
<td>What was the name of the first U.S. ship to enter Canton in August 1784?</td>
<td>The British smuggled this drug into China.</td>
<td>During the second half of the 19th century, this city became the center of trade activity between the U.S. and China.</td>
<td>This is the name of a Chinese Viceroy who first traveled to the U.S.</td>
<td>The policy that would allow the U.S. to have equal trade access in China.</td>
<td>This famous Chinese-American designs bridal gowns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Articles of Confederation</td>
<td>Clipper Ship</td>
<td>Empress of China</td>
<td>Opium</td>
<td>Boston</td>
<td>Li Hung-chang</td>
<td>Open Door Policy</td>
<td>Vera Wang</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“A Journey Shared: The United States and China”
# China Knowledge Assessment Worksheet

**Directions:** Fill in the answers to the questions in the boxes.

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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>This is the capital of China.</td>
<td>When Americans first reached China, what type of government did we have?</td>
<td>During the 19th century, what type of ship was the mainstay of the China trade?</td>
<td>What was the name of the first U.S. ship to enter Canton in August 1784?</td>
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<td>The policy that would allow the U.S. to have equal trade access in China.</td>
<td>“A Journey Shared: The United States and China”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chinese Americans
After the End of Exclusion

During the second half of the 20th century, the number of Chinese immigrants to the United States grew rapidly, especially after the Immigration and Nationality Act amendments of 1965, which abolished national origin quotas. New immigrants and citizens congregated in about half a dozen metropolitan areas, with the largest settlements in the San Francisco Bay area, around New York City, and in Honolulu. Rural Chinese-American communities all but vanished, as the urban Chinatowns became larger and more vibrant, and generally better integrated into society. Simultaneously, increasing numbers of Chinese moved out of specific Chinatowns and into wider urban and suburban communities. As a group, they began to attain higher levels of education and greater access to professional career fields. The historic Chinese emphasis on learning, combined with the benefits of education in the American system, moved the Chinese-American community towards greater integration with the wider community. Chinese-Americans made important contributions to academics and research after World War II. Many of the scholars who became prominent in the field of China studies were themselves from China, and advances in Chinese language study were to a large degree dependent upon native speakers who became teachers. In the sciences, the effect was quite dramatic. Six Chinese who worked in the United States received Nobel Prizes in either physics or chemistry, from T.D. Lee and C.N. Yang in 1957 to Daniel C. Tsui in 1998. These award winners, and many others, also contributed to the development of scientific studies in China, both through developing ties to scientists in China and, in some cases, through taking positions at educational institutions in China, Hong Kong, and Taiwan.

Chinese-American Politicians
Several Chinese-Americans entered into U.S. national politics at the highest levels. In 1959, Hiram Leong Fong became the first Chinese-American—in fact, the first Asian-American—to serve in the U.S. Congress, when he was elected as a Senator from Hawaii. In 1964, Fong also sought the Republican nomination for President. David Wu became the first Chinese-American to serve in the House of Representatives, when he won the seat for the First Congressional District of Oregon. In 2001, Elaine Chao became the first Chinese-American to hold a cabinet level post in the U.S. Government,
when President George W. Bush appointed her as Secretary of Labor.

Gary Locke became the first Chinese-American Governor in U.S. history in 1997, when he was inaugurated in the State of Washington. Locke’s story was a typical immigrant story. His grandfather had arrived during the 19th century and worked as a servant. His father, a World War II veteran, owned a small grocery store. Governor Locke said of his family’s experience: “My grandfather came to this country from China nearly a century ago and worked as a servant. Now, I serve as governor just one mile from where my grandfather worked. It took our family a hundred years to travel that mile—it was a voyage we could only make in America.”

**Economic Contributions**

Chinese immigrants have also made significant contributions to the U.S. economy and to technological advances. For example, An Wang, a young electrical engineer, came from Shanghai in 1945 to work on a doctoral degree at Harvard University, where he became involved in research on some of the first electronic computers and developed one of the earliest types of core memory. In June 1951, Dr. Wang founded Wang Laboratories, where he continued research on computer technologies. By the mid-1970s, the company he formed with a classmate from China had become a pioneer in designing and selling personal computers. Building upon Wang’s efforts in developing computer hardware, in the 1990s a Taiwan-born engineering graduate student at Stanford University named Jerry Yang joined with a classmate to develop an online directory to the growing World Wide Web. When their service proved to be incredibly popular, the two redesigned their guide into one of the first Internet search engines, called it Yahoo!, and founded their company of the same name in April 1995. This company led the dot-com boom of the late 1990s, and the massive expansion of the Internet as a primary medium for global communication. Jerry Yang then used Yahoo! to help spread Internet usage in China, making him part of a growing group of Chinese Americans who have promoted trans-Pacific commercial ties.

**Chinese-American Cultural Icons**

Today, Chinese-Americans are familiar faces in all aspects of American culture and society, whether they were born in China or the United States. Authors such as Iris Chang and Maxine Hong Kingston are well-known for both fiction and non-fiction works. Amy Tan’s book, *The Joy Luck Club*, spent eight months on the *New York Times* best-seller list and became a successful motion picture. Tan also wrote *Sagwa: The Chinese Siamese Cat*, which became a highly successful children’s cartoon.

Television anchorwomen Julie Chen and Connie Chung are known to millions of viewers, while television chef Martin Yan also has written more than two dozen cookbooks. Noted architect I.M. Pei designed the East Wing of the National Gallery of Art in Washington, D.C., as well as the Rock and Roll Hall of Fame in Cleveland, Ohio. Chinese-Americans are well represented in the fashion industry by Vivienne Tam and Vera Wang. But it is in the field of sports that Chinese-Americans have emerged in force, with world champion tennis player Michael Chang, gold medal Olympic gymnast (1996) Amy Chow, world champion figure skater Michelle Kwan, and the National Basketball Association’s first international number one draft pick, Yao Ming.

After a long and difficult history of exclusion, Chinese Americans have made remarkable progress within U.S. society. The sheer number of success stories is huge, a testament to both the strength of Chinese American communities and the general improvement in knowledge and opinions of China and the Chinese. Chinese immigrants are, to a considerable extent, responsible for bringing about this transformation.
1. Famous Chinese Americans in the past 25 years have made significant contributions. Investigate the lives of famous Chinese Americans in the areas of forensics, fashion, music, law, technology, broadcasting, literature and sports. What have they contributed? Why has it been significant? Is there any area where the Chinese-American influence is absent?

2. Michelle Kwan is the most decorated figure skater in U.S. history. In 2006, Secretary of State Condoleezza Rice named her as a public diplomacy ambassador. She will represent American values to young people and sports enthusiasts. What American values are among those Michelle is representing?

3. Take a poll within your school as to the definition of an American value. Can students taking your poll identify five American values? What American values are in the top three? Report your results to your school newspaper.
An Act to execute certain treaty stipulations relating to Chinese.

Whereas in the opinion of the Government of the United States the coming of Chinese laborers to this country endangers the good order of certain localities within the territory thereof: Therefore,

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That from and after the expiration of ninety days next after the passage of this act, and until the expiration of ten years next after the passage of this act, the coming of Chinese laborers to the United States be, and the same is hereby, suspended; and during such suspension it shall not be lawful for any Chinese laborer to come, or having so come after the expiration of said ninety days to remain within the United States.

SEC. 2. That the master of any vessel who shall knowingly bring within the United States on such vessel, and land or permit to be landed, any Chinese laborer, from any foreign port or place, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction thereof shall be punished by a fine of not more than five hundred dollars for each and every such Chinese laborer so brought, and maybe also imprisoned for a term not exceeding one year.

SEC. 3. That the two foregoing sections shall not apply to Chinese laborers who were in the United States on the seventeenth day of November, eighteen hundred and eighty, or who shall have come into the same before the expiration of ninety days next after the passage of this act, and who shall produce to such master before going on board such vessel, and shall produce to the collector of the port in the United States at which such vessel shall arrive, the evidence hereinafter in this act required of his being one of the laborers in this section mentioned; nor shall the two foregoing sections apply to the case of any master whose vessel, being bound to a port not within the United States, shall come within the jurisdiction of the United States by reason of being in distress or in stress of weather, or touching at any port of the United States on its voyage to any foreign port or place: Provided, That all Chinese laborers brought on such vessel shall depart with the vessel on leaving port.

SEC. 4. That for the purpose of properly identifying Chinese laborers who were in the United States on the seventeenth day of November, eighteen hundred and eighty, or who shall have come into the same before the expiration of ninety days next after the passage of this act, and in order to furnish them with the proper evidence of their right to go from and come to the United States of their free will and accord, as provided by the treaty between the United States and China dated November seventeenth, eighteen hundred and eighty, the collector of customs of the district from which any such Chinese laborer shall depart from the United States shall, in person or by deputy, go on board each vessel having on board any such Chinese laborers and cleared or about to sail from his district for a foreign port, and on such vessel make a list of all such Chinese laborers, which shall be entered in registry-books to be kept for that purpose, in which shall be stated the name, age, occupation, last place of residence, physical marks of peculiarities, and all facts necessary for the identification of each of such Chinese laborers, which books shall be safely kept in the custom-house.; and every such Chinese laborer so departing from the United States shall be entitled to, and shall receive, free of any charge or cost upon application therefor, from the collector or his deputy, at the time such list is taken, a certificate, signed by the collector or his deputy and attested by his seal of office, in such form as the Secretary of the Treasury shall prescribe, which certificate shall contain a statement of the name, age, occupation, last place of residence, persona description, and facts of identification of the Chinese laborer to whom the certificate is issued, corresponding with the said list and registry in all particulars. In case any Chinese laborer after having received such certificate shall leave such vessel before her departure he shall deliver his certificate to the master of the vessel, and if such Chinese laborer shall fail to return to such vessel before her departure from port the certificate shall be delivered by the master to the collector of customs for cancellation. The certificate herein provided for shall entitle the Chinese laborer to whom the same is issued to return to and re-enter the United States upon producing and delivering the same to the collector of customs of the district at which such Chinese laborer shall seek to re-enter; and upon delivery of such certificate by such Chinese laborer to the collector of customs at the time of re-entry in the United States said collector shall cause the same to be filed in the custom-house anti duly canceled.

SEC. 5. That any Chinese laborer mentioned in section four of this act being in the United States, and desiring to depart from the United States by land, shall have the right to demand and receive, free of
charge or cost, a certificate of identification similar to that provided for in section four of this act to be issued to such Chinese laborers as may desire to leave the United States by water; and it is hereby made the duty of the collector of customs of the district next adjoining the foreign country to which said Chinese laborer desires to go to issue such certificate, free of charge or cost, upon application by such Chinese laborer, and to enter the same upon registry-books to be kept by him for the purpose, as provided for in section four of this act.

SEC. 6. That in order to the faithful execution of articles one and two of the treaty in this act before mentioned, every Chinese person other than a laborer who may be entitled by said treaty and this act to come within the United States, and who shall be about to come to the United States, shall be identified as so entitled by the Chinese Government in each case, such identity to be evidenced by a certificate issued under the authority of said government, which certificate shall be in the English language or (if not in the English language) accompanied by a translation into English, stating such right to come, and which certificate shall state the name, title or official rank, if any, the age, height, and all physical peculiarities, former and present occupation or profession, and place of residence in China of the person to whom the certificate is issued and that such person is entitled, conformably to the treaty in this act mentioned, to come within the United States. Such certificate shall be prima facie evidence of the fact set forth therein, and shall be produced to the collector of customs, or his deputy, of the port in the district in which the person named therein shall arrive.

SEC. 7. That any person who shall knowingly and falsely alter or substitute any name for the name written in such certificate or forge any such certificate, or knowingly utter any forged or fraudulent certificate, or falsely personate any person named in any such certificate, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor; and upon conviction thereof shall be fined in a sum not exceeding one thousand dollars, and imprisoned in a penitentiary for a term of not more than five years.

SEC. 8. That the master of any vessel arriving in the United States from any foreign port or place shall, at the same time he delivers a manifest of the cargo, and if there be no cargo, then at the time of making a report of the entry of the vessel pursuant to law, in addition to the other matter required to be reported, and before landing, or permitting to land, any Chinese passengers, deliver and report to the collector of customs of the district in which such vessels shall have arrived a separate list of all Chinese passengers taken on board his vessel at any foreign port or place, and all such passengers on board the vessel at that time. Such list shall show the names of such passengers (and if accredited officers of the Chinese Government traveling on the business of that government, or their servants, with a note of such facts), and the names and other particulars, as shown by their respective certificates; and such list shall be sworn to by the master in the manner required by law in relation to the manifest of the cargo. Any willful refusal or neglect of any such master to comply with the provisions of this section shall incur the same penalties and forfeiture as are provided for a refusal or neglect to report and deliver a manifest of the cargo.

SEC. 9. That before any Chinese passengers are landed from any such line vessel, the collector, or his deputy, shall proceed to examine such passenger, comparing the certificate with the list and with the passengers; and no passenger shall be allowed to land in the United States from such vessel in violation of law.

SEC. 10. That every vessel whose master shall knowingly violate any of the provisions of this act shall be deemed forfeited to the United States, and shall be liable to seizure and condemnation in any district of the United States into which such vessel may enter or in which she may be found.

SEC. 11. That any person who shall knowingly bring into or cause to be brought into the United States by land, or who shall knowingly aid or abet the landing in the United States from any vessel of any Chinese person not lawfully entitled to enter the United States, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall, on conviction thereof, be fined in a sum not exceeding one thousand dollars, and imprisoned for a term not exceeding one year.

SEC. 12. That no Chinese person shall be permitted to enter the United States by land without producing to the proper officer of customs the certificate in this act required of Chinese persons seeking to land from a vessel. And any Chinese person found unlawfully within the United States shall be caused to be removed therefrom to the country from whence he came, by direction of the President of the United States, and at the cost of the United States, after being brought before some justice, judge, or commissioner of a court of the United States and found to be one not lawfully entitled to be or remain in the United States.

SEC. 13. That this act shall not apply to diplomatic and other officers of the Chinese Government traveling upon the business of that government, whose credentials shall be taken as equivalent to the certificate in this act mentioned, and shall exempt them and their body and household servants from the provisions of this act as to other Chinese persons.

SEC. 14. That hereafter no State court or court of the United States shall admit Chinese to citizenship; and all laws in conflict with this act are hereby repealed.

SEC. 15. That the words "Chinese laborers", wherever used in this act shall be construed to mean both skilled and unskilled laborers and Chinese employed in mining.

Approved, May 6, 1882.
Identify which former Chinese leader matches each fact and quote. Place the proper letter next to each item.

A. Sun Yat-sen
B. Chiang Kai-shek
C. Mao Zedong

1. “The Father of the Chinese Revolution” or “The Father of the Republic” _____
2. “Politics is war without bloodshed while war is politics with bloodshed.” _____
3. Instituted Great Leap Forward and the Cultural Revolution ______
4. Three Principles of the People: nationalism, democracy, and equalization ______
5. Led the Long March ______
6. “Prayer is more than meditation. In meditation the source of strength is one's self. When one prays he goes to a source of strength greater than his own.” ______
7. Leader of the Chinese Republic in 1912 ______
8. Used guerrilla tactics against the KMT ______
9. “The Japanese are a disease of the skin. The Communists are a disease of the heart.” ______
10. “To save our country is also to save the world.” ______
11. Led Nationalists against Communists in Chinese Civil War ______
12. Established the Whampoa Military Academy headed by Chiang Kai-shek ______
13. “The whole world is one family.” ______
14. “Future historians will, I believe, regard our war of resistance as the most significant event in this period of world history, since by our enormous sacrifices we are contributing not only to the good of the Chinese nation but also to the welfare of all mankind. . . If we succeed, we shall not only be able to build a new China but we shall also contribute immeasurably to the peace of the world.” ______
15. Spent several years in exile ______
16. Communists pushed the Nationalist government under his leadership to island of Taiwan (Formosa). ______
17. Adopted Christianity ______
18. “All the reputedly powerful reactionaries are merely paper tigers. The reason is that they are divorced from the people. Look! Was not Hitler a paper tiger? Was Hitler not overthrown? U.S. imperialism has not yet been overthrown and it has the atomic bomb. I believe it also will be overthrown. It, too, is a paper tiger.”

19. Educated in Hawaii and Hong Kong

20. A medical doctor

21. Had military training in Japan

22. Co-founded the Chinese Communist Party

23. Led Nationalists against Communists in Chinese Civil War

24. Author of the *Little Red Book*

25. Formed the Nationalist Party (or *Kuomintang*)

26. “The best course for Britain is to cease negotiating with Japan.”

27. Married to influential and western-educated Soong Ching-ling

28. Allied the Kuomintang with the Communist Party to break control of warlords in other sections of China

29. Revered today in China and Taiwan

30. Appealed to the peasants of China

31. “Let a hundred flowers bloom.”

32. “The Revolution has not yet succeeded. Comrades, you must carry on!”

33. Became leader of Nationalist Party in 1926

34. Married sister-in-law (Soong Mei-ling) of Sun Yat-sen

35. Kicked Chinese Communists out of Kuomintang

36. Ruled China from 1949-1976

37. “An individual should not have too much freedom. A nation should have absolute freedom.”

38. “I have witnessed the tremendous energy of the masses. On this foundation it is possible to accomplish any task whatsoever.”
Chinese Reaction to Treaties: 
Placards Posted in Guangzhou

Standard: 
II. Time, Continuity, and Change 
III. People, Places, and Environments 
V. Individuals, Groups, and Institutions 
VI. Power, Authority, and Governance 
IX. Global Connections 

Grade Level: 9–12 

Objectives: The student will: 
✓ Use prior knowledge of early foreign trade events dealing with China 
✓ Read and analyze two primary documents 
✓ Use a graphic organizer to assist with understanding 
✓ Synthesize information 
✓ Give oral presentation 

Time: A minimum of 1 class period (Dependent on the level of the class) 

Materials: Copies of primary documents 
Copies of Graphic Organizers 
Newsprint paper: at least two (2) sheets 

Procedures: 

Part I 
1. Decide before the class if the readings will be done on an individual, team, or group basis. 
2. Distribute copies of the primary documents and graphic organizers. 
4. Fill in the graphic organizer. 
5. Choose students to report findings. 
6. (Clarify any points identified by students at this time.)

Part II 
1. Divide the class into teams. 
2. Teams should develop logical arguments as to why or why not some concessions were needed. 
3. Teams should report their findings on newsprint to the class. 

Extension Activities: 
Research: What concessions does the United States make to foreign diplomats while on U.S. soil?
Chinese Subjects in the United States

The activities of U.S. traders, missionaries, and diplomats in China constituted only one part of the story of U.S.-China relations. Several hundred thousand Chinese subjects came to the United States, where their experiences both promoted and hindered the development of positive ties between the two countries.

Chinese migration to the United States began as a trickle, but quickly turned into a flood in the middle of the 19th century. The earliest recorded instance of Chinese travel to the United States was in 1785, when an American ship stranded Chinese sailors in Baltimore. The first five Chinese to study in the United States came in 1818; they were followed by a group of three in 1847 and another group of five a few years later. But the real influx began with the discovery of gold in California in 1849, marking the beginning of the California Gold Rush, which created an economic boom that provided unprecedented opportunity for tens of thousands of people from all over the world. News of the Gold Rush filtered back to southeast China in the form of tales of Gold Mountain, where anyone could find wealth and prosperity. In fact, since most of the early arrivals came to San Francisco, they named the city Gold Mountain (jinshan, or Kan San in their local dialect); to this day, the city is still called “Old Gold Mountain” (jiujinshan).

By 1869, more than 100,000 Chinese had settled in the United States, and perhaps twice as many more had come but later returned to China. All came as sojourners, intending only to stay for a short period, while they saved money to send back home to their families. In order to protect the interests of these growing numbers of laborers and merchants, the Qing Government established its first legation in Washington in the late 1870s.

Travel across the Pacific, however, was arduous. The “coolie trade” in laborers was perhaps the most common means for assuring passage, but it was far from an ideal method. Chinese farmers were brought to holding pens in Chinese ports, sent across the Pacific Ocean in often appalling conditions, and then forced to work for paltry wages, with little or no legal protection. As early as 1847, the U.S. Government objected to these abuses and attempted to prevent ships carrying unwilling Chinese laborers from entering U.S. ports. Unfortunately, U.S. citizens took advantage of loopholes in the law and dominated the coolie trade for 15 years. In 1862, the U.S. Congress adopted the Prohibition of Coolie Trade Act, banning U.S. citizens from any involvement in the trade. While these measures improved some conditions, they came too late to slow the early flow of Chinese or greatly ease their difficulties. Most Chinese arrived deeply in debt.
to the brokers who arranged their passage and usually found employment for them upon arrival.

Once they arrived in the United States, Chinese sojourners congregated in highly insular communities. A lack of cross-cultural knowledge and linguistic comprehension led the migrants to cluster together; in this they were no different than any of the other immigrant groups that came to America. By the 1860s, the migrants had formed an organization, the Chinese Consolidated Benevolence Association, or Six Companies (in Chinese, the Zhonghua huiguan), to represent their collective interests, mediate internal disputes, arrange public events, and control illegal activities such as prostitution, gambling, and opium use. This organization helped to facilitate the growth of enclaves known as Chinatowns, which became some of the most recognizable and historically significant districts of many U.S. cities.

Companies that sought to develop the western United States relied heavily on Chinese laborers to fill out their work force. U.S. businessmen such as Leland Stanford, president of the Central Pacific Railroad, saw definite advantages in using Chinese workers:

“As a class they are quiet, peaceable, patient, industrious and economical. Ready and apt to learn all the different kinds of work required in railroad building, they soon become as efficient as white laborers. More prudent and economical, they are contented with less wages.”

While Stanford found many characteristics worthy of respect in his Chinese employees, and his company used over 10,000 Chinese laborers to help build the first transcontinental railroad, but he did little to improve their working conditions or their wages. Chinese railway workers averaged $30 a month and had to provide for their own room and board, whereas white workers made $35 a month, plus food and housing. Over time, segments of white society turned against the Chinese, in part because the wages paid to Chinese workers depressed the labor market.

Chinese migrants faced rising opposition in California and elsewhere after the United States hit an economic downturn in the early 1870s. In order to increase their own job prospects, groups of white laborers formed the Workingman's Party in 1877, and called for the exclusion of Chinese from the United States. These nativist workers' groups soon joined with more influential leaders, ultimately including Leland Stanford, and forced a Chinese exclusion act through Congress.

President Rutherford B. Hayes, mindful of American commitments under the Burlingame Treaty, vetoed the bill, but this did not stifle American workers' frustrations. In 1880, the two countries signed a new agreement that allowed the United States to regulate, but not exclude, Chinese immigration. Two years later, under the pretense of regulation—and in contravention of existing treaties—the U.S. Congress passed the Chinese Exclusion Act, which suspended Chinese immigration for 10 years, marking the beginning of 60 years of exclusion. Chinese diplomats objected strenuously to this legislation, but were unable to prevent its passage.

After the 1882 Exclusion Act, the tensions between Chinese immigrants and Americans (and some European immigrants) intensified, as exclusionist groups in the United States fanned racist fears of the “yellow peril.” In 1885, a mob of white workers brutally killed 28 Chinese miners in Rock Springs, Wyoming, sparking a wave of attacks throughout the northwest. In 1892, the Geary Act extended the prohibition on new immigration, stripped Chinese immigrants in the United States of some of their legal rights, and required that they carry registration cards. The Exclusion Laws threatened the survival of the communities of Chinese who were already in the United States. The Chinatowns became more isolated and inward-looking, and in some cases their populations declined in the absence of a fresh influx of migrants, particularly significant numbers of Chinese women.

Chinese migrants challenged the constitutionality of several exclusionary laws, including the Scott Act of 1888, which prohibited new immigration and denied exit and re-entry visas to Chinese, and the Geary Act of 1892. They also raised the banner of civil rights by questioning the constitutionality of the denial of U.S. citizenship for Chinese children born in the United States, and by attempting to guarantee due process for Chinese who were barred upon returning to the United States from a visit home. Despite the hardships and second-class legal status, Chinese immigrants continued to arrive in the United States.
A Journey Shared:
The United States & China
200 Years of History

Origins to the End of the 19th Century

Chinese Subjects in the United States

1. Investigate the immigrant Chinese during the Gold Rush in such towns as in Deadwood and Tombstone. Analyze the efforts of the Chinese to make a new life for themselves in the U.S.

2. Investigate the “Tongs.” Who or what were they? What was their purpose?

3. In 1892, the Geary Act extended the prohibition on new immigration. What rights did the Chinese lose? Investigate the impact on the Chinese.
Confucius was a man who lived from 551 – 479 B.C. He was born in an area of what is now considered the Shandong province of China. His Chinese name was Kung Fu Tzu, which Westerners later interpreted as Confucius. This came to be the common spelling and pronunciation.

There is very little historical evidence of much of Confucius’s life, yet it is Chinese legend that he came from a good, but rather poor family, and that he was well-educated. Confucius aspired to political life and did obtain a post as a minister for a short time. Confucius then decided to become a teacher and a living example of his philosophy. He began traveling around from state to state promoting his philosophy to different ruling leaders. In this he found little success. During his travels, he continued teaching and gained about 3000 disciples, although this number is in dispute.

War was an ordinary occurrence during the lifetime of Confucius. Because different states were fighting constantly to increase their spheres of influence, order and harmony were important to Confucius. Although other philosophies and schools of thought—like Taoism—emerged, Confucian philosophy had a deep and lasting impact on China and other Southeast Asian civilizations.

After the death of Confucius, one disciple known as Mencius documented some of the conversations and teachings of Confucius. These discussions were written down and put in books. These books are called the analects. The definition of “analect” is a selection from or parts of a literary work or groups of works. Mencius and others are credited with the continued spread of the Confucian philosophy using the analects.

Today, Confucianism is undergoing a renaissance. Confucian Institutes, funded by the Chinese government, have been opened on college campuses around the world. These institutes will insure that Confucius’ teaching will continue to be studied, debated, and re-interpreted to retain relevance to modern thought.

**Belief System**

Confucius himself was not very interested in a supreme god or an after-life, and paid little attention to such matters as sin or the salvation of the soul. Confucianism developed as an ethical and philosophical system, not a religion. (Ethics deals with human behavior and conduct.) Confucius was concerned with how human beings interacted with and towards each other. He developed a sort of complex system of moral, social, political, and philosophical thought that included a system of government, society, and justice based on the five relationships. This is known as Confucianism.

Confucius believed that people were naturally good and needed to live in the company of others in society because of their natures. He felt that people could only develop to their fullest in society. Therefore, he believed that it was important for people to know how to conduct themselves in society and in their relationships with other people. Confucius never allowed four behaviors that he believed were destructive of society: speculation, inflexibility, stubbornness, and egotism.

**The Five Basic Relationships**

Confucius felt each person had a specific place in society and certain duties to fulfill. He hoped that if people knew what was expected of them, they would behave correctly. Therefore, he defined five principal relationships in which most people are involved. These relationships were:

1. Ruler and Subject
2. Father and Son
3. Elder brother and Younger brother
4. Husband and Wife
5. Friend and Friend

With the exception of the last relationship, the other four relationships involve the authority of one person over another.

Power and the right to rule belong to superiors over subordinates in the following way:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Superiors</th>
<th>Subordinates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ruler</td>
<td>The subject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Old people</td>
<td>Younger people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>Son/children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>Women</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each subordinate must give obedience and respect to superiors. The superior owes loving responsibility to the subordinate.

**The Family and the State**

Confucius placed the first great importance on the family. Family life was seen as a training ground for life in society. It is at home the child learned to cope with problems that he or she may face later in life. The family is responsible for educating the child to be a good member of the family, society and subjects of the emperor. Confucius emphasized the importance of education. He stressed individual aptitude, education, and a
combination of learning, thinking and proposing. He said, “Learning without thinking leads to bewilderment; thinking without learning results in idleness.” Confucius also encouraged ancestor worship because it strengthened family loyalties.

The state (government) was regarded as an extension of the family in many ways. The emperor and his officials were referred to as the “parents” of the people. Subjects owed the same loyalty to their rulers that they owed to the senior members of their family.

However, the emperor had duties to fulfill as well. Confucius believed that for society to be well ordered and for people to live in peace and prosper, it was necessary to have a good government and a virtuous ruler. It was the duty of the emperor and his officials to set a good example for the people. The good example of the ruler would transform the people, and make them better. Confucius believed that only the wisest and most humane men should rule. He further believed that if the emperor was not morally perfect, heaven would cause the world to suffer.

**WHY CONFUCIANISM IS IMPORTANT IN UNDERSTANDING RELATIONS WITH THE WEST?**

China used the teachings of Confucius for more than 2,000 years. It served China well to have a highly literate society, and one that was completely subservient to the emperor and his leaders. Confucianism was the official philosophy of the government and if a person wished to aspire to an official government position, a difficult exam was taken on the first four books of Confucius. This was one way that leaders were kept in power so no one was anxious for any changes.

For 2,000 years Confucianism was the official philosophy of China and provided the basis for both government and the wider society. Confucianists believed that they were the only civilized community in the world and they looked down on the beliefs and cultures of other people. This attitude made the Chinese unwilling to change their way of life when they were first exposed to Western culture. This unwillingness to adopt Western ideas and techniques in the late 19th and early 20th centuries proved to be disastrous for the Chinese.

The Chinese began to distance themselves from Confucianism after the fall of the Qing Dynasty in 1911. The new president of the provisional government, Dr. Sun Yat-sen was a Christian and a medical doctor trained in the West. His goal was to modernize China and establish peace, freedom, and equality.

But it was Mao Zedong’s communist revolution that officially repudiated Confucianism. During the Cultural Revolution of the 1960s, zealous followers of Mao physically destroyed Confucius’ birthplace, and his philosophy was replaced by Mao’s philosophy in the “Little Red Book.”

During the early years of the 21st century, Confucianism seems to be returning as a force ordering Chinese society. The ruling Chinese Communist Party has even funded Confucian Institutes around the world to spread Chinese language and culture. ■
Confucius and the Analects

Standard:

I. Culture
II. Time, Continuity, and Change
IV. Individual Development and Identity
VI. Power, Authority, and Governance
IX. Global Connections

Grade Level: 9–12

Objectives: The student will:

✓ Increase and strengthen literacy skills
✓ Investigate Confucius, the man
✓ Examine and critique the Five Relationships using analects
✓ Explain Confucianism
✓ Analyze how Confucianism controlled subjects
✓ Apply the concepts of the Five Relationships to themselves, their families, their state, the economy, and government

Time: Dependent upon levels

Materials:
Jigsaw puzzle sheet
Outline of Confucius sheet
Envelopes
Reading--Enough for students, teams, or groups
Newsprint
Markers

Preparation:

1. Take the jigsaw puzzle sheet and the outline of Confucius sheet and copy both to make a double-sided copy.
2. Cut out the puzzle pieces.
3. Put individual puzzle pieces into separate envelopes.
4. Make copies of the reading on Confucius.
5. Cut out the analects and fold in half.

Procedures:

1. Decide on the configuration of the class: working independently, teams of two, or small groupings.
2. Hand out the reading on Confucius.
3. Hold a discussion on what has been read—checking for understanding. Some examples of questions might be: What is a philosopher? What role does a philosopher have in society? Other great philosophers through the ages? Philosophers for the 21st century?
4. Pass out the analects.
5. Have students read and discuss what relationship the analect belongs to.
6. Give students opportunity to read and report to the entire class.
7. Discuss the analects as being applied to themselves and their family and friends. Record analects/relationships.
8. Pass out envelopes containing puzzle pieces.
9. Using internet access, individuals, groups or teams research their puzzle questions.
10. Research highlights are then put on newsprint.
11. Have students hang all newsprint on the walls.
12. Teams should then report on their research.
13. A representative from the teams or group take puzzle pieces and put the puzzle pieces with research side down.
14. Piece the puzzle pieces together.
15. Puzzle will then come together to reveal “Confucius”.

Extension Activities:

1. Analyze your school’s mission statement. What would Confucius say about it?
2. Compare and contrast Confucius’s Five relationships with Christian principals. Would a Confucianist be happy as a Christian?
3. Apply Confucianism to the state of the U.S. economy today. What is right, wrong? Are we on the right track to recovery? If not, what needs to be done? Who/What needs to stay? Who/What needs to go.
On a map of China, locate the birthplace of Confucius

The concept of “de”

The six arts

Lao-Tze and Confucius

The concept of “li”

The Golden Rule of Confucius

Universal Virtues

The “son” of Heaven

The concept of “jen”

The spring and autumn period
“Learn as though you were following someone to whom you could not catch up, as though it were someone you were frightened of losing.”

“In serving one’s lord, one should approach one’s duties with reverence (respect) and consider one’s pay as of secondary importance.”

“Silence is a friend who will never betray.”

“He who from day to day is aware of what he still lacks, and from month to month never forgets what he as already learned, may indeed be called a true lover of learning.”

“It is only the very wisest or the very stupidest who cannot change.”

“When you know a thing, to recognize that you know it, and when you do not know a thing, to recognize that you do not know it. This is knowledge.”

“Let the ruler be a ruler, the subject a subject, the father a father, the son a son.” “Truly if the ruler be not a ruler, the subject not a subject, the father not a father, the son not a son, then even if there be grain, would I get to eat it?”

“A good man takes as much trouble to discover what is right as lesser men do to discover what will pay.”

“Don’t worry if people do not recognize your merits; worry that you may not recognize theirs.”

“When walking in a party of three, I always have teachers. I can select the good qualities of the one for imitation, and bad ones of the other, and correct them in myself.”

“He who learns but does not think is lost; he who thinks but does not learn is in danger.”

“To govern is to correct. If you set an example by being correct, who would dare to remain incorrect?”

“The Master said about government, “Encourage the people to work hard by setting an example yourself. Do not allow your efforts to slacken.”

“Simply by being a good son and friendly to his brothers, a man can exert an influence upon government.”

“A gentleman does not think about what is outside his official position.”

“…”Fathers cover up for their sons, and sons cover up for their fathers. Straightness is to be found in such behavior.”

“If, for three years, a man makes no changes to his father’s ways, he can be said to be a good son.”

“Everyone speaks up for his own son whether he is talented or not…”

“In serving your father and mother, you ought to dissuade them from doing wrong in the gentlest way. If you see your advice being ignored, you should not become disobedient but remain reverent. You should not complain even if in so doing you wear yourself out.”

“In one’s household, it is the women and the small men that are difficult to deal with. If you let them get too close, they become insolent (disrespectful). If you keep them at a distance, they complain.”

“Conduct guided by profit is course for much complaint.”

“In ancient times, learning was for self. Nowadays, learning is for others.”

“A good man takes as much trouble to discover what is right as lesser men do to discover what will pay.”
“When those above are devoted to the rites, the people will serve obediently.”

“The gentleman wishes to be slow to speak, but quick to act.”

“Lead the people with governmental measures and regulate them with laws and punishment, and they will avoid wrongdoing but will have no sense of honor and shame. Lead them with virtue and regulate them by the rules of propriety, and they will have a sense of shame and, moreover, set themselves right.”

“If a ruler sets himself right, he will be followed without his command. If he does not set himself right, even his commands will not be obeyed.”

“In education there are no class distinctions.”

“By nature, men are pretty much alike; it is learning and practice that set them apart.”

“Death has always been with us since the beginning of time, but if the people have no confidence in the ruler, when there is no trust, the common people will have nothing to stand on.”

“It is shameful to make salary your sole object!”
American policy toward China reached a major turning point in 1899–1900, in the aftermath of Japan’s unexpected victory in the first Sino-Japanese War. Other Western powers moved to establish their own spheres of influence and exclusive leaseholds in China. Fearing that the United States would be shut out of the potentially lucrative trade in those regions, U.S. Secretary of State John Hay decided to act.

Based on recommendations from his adviser for Far Eastern affairs, William W. Rockhill, Secretary Hay sought to maintain an “open door” in China. Hay called on the other powers to guarantee equal access to trade throughout China and to ensure China’s territorial integrity and sovereign control over customs revenues. Although these were not new principles, this was the first clear declaration of U.S. policy toward China. The Open Door policy became one of the pillars upon which the idea of a special relationship between the United States and China was based.

Commercial giants such as British American Tobacco (BAT) rushed to expand their shares of the China market. BAT, which resulted from a merger of tobacco companies in the United States and the United Kingdom, was run from 1902 until 1923 by James Duke of the North Carolina-based American Tobacco Company, and experienced particular success. Cigarette smoking in China exploded from virtually nothing in 1900 to 100 billion cigarettes a year by 1930. BAT quickly gained the dominant share of the market for all tobacco products, in part by absorbing most of its local competitors. On the strength of such success, U.S. exports to China grew in value over the first decades of the 20th century, with a dramatic expansion in the years following World War I, when they almost tripled from $53 million in 1918 to $146 million in 1920.

U.S. investors also paid greater attention to opportunities in China after the turn of the century. Inspired by the Open Door philosophy, and seeking not to be blocked out of other nations’ spheres of influence, bankers from the United States, Britain, France, and other countries formed a Consortium that would oversee all railway loans to China, with each nation getting a share of each loan. This effort was indicative of the growing presence of American capital in China, as investors began to put their money into a range of projects, including factories and the introduction of modern technologies. The growth in overall U.S. investment in China outstripped the rise in exports, leaping from $20 million in 1902 to $200 million in 1931. This marked a major shift from the 19th century, when U.S. investments in China were almost nonexistent.

For the first time, China and the Far East received serious attention from the highest levels of the U.S. Government. President Theodore Roosevelt understood both the importance of the region and the cultural differences that divided East and West:

“Now is the time for the West to implant its ideals in the Orient, in such fashion as to minimize the chance of a dreadful future clash between two radically different and hostile civilizations; if we wait until tomorrow, we may find that we have waited too long.”
Roosevelt's mediation of the Russo-Japanese war and the death of Secretary of State John Hay brought him into direct involvement in the region and its problems. In 1905, he sent a high-level delegation, including future president William Howard Taft, railroad magnate E.H. Harriman, Red Cross chief Mabel Boardman, and his daughter Alice Roosevelt on a tour of the Far East, including China. During a stop in Beijing, Alice met the Dowager Empress, who gave her a Pekinese dog, which she named Manchu. Taft again returned to the Far East on a follow-up mission in 1907.

Roosevelt tacitly allowed Japanese expansion into Manchuria as a way to buttress America’s new stake in the Philippines, but he continued to be interested in China and, in 1907, proposed revisions to the 1901 indemnity agreement. After China had paid $6 million, the actual dollar amount due to American citizens, Roosevelt called for a release from the remaining $14 million still owed as “proof of a sincere friendship for China.”

However, the United States and China had only limited success in maintaining the Open Door. Efforts by Willard Straight, the U.S. Consul in Mukden, Manchuria, and his superiors, to expand the U.S. presence in the northeastern province of Manchuria, and to work with China to limit Russian and Japanese influence after 1910, brought few results.

**World War I and the 1920s**

During the years of the First World War, American diplomacy was at times effective in limiting Japanese expansionism. Although President Woodrow Wilson objected to Japan’s takeover of German concessions in Shandong Province early in the war, the United States was unable to prevent it. America’s Minister to China, Paul Reinsch, encouraged the Chinese Government to resist the more extreme of Japan’s Twenty One Demands of 1915. Partly at the insistence of the United States, Japan dropped its demand to control Chinese policy, but China lost control over its valuable natural resources. When Wilson failed to obtain the return of Japanese-held territories to China under the Treaty of Versailles, some Chinese felt betrayed.

During the 1920s, the United States showed a greater willingness to work with China to protect its interests. At the Washington Naval Conference (1921–22), Chinese negotiators helped draft multinational treaties to limit naval size and to prevent the establishment of new concession zones. Most importantly, the United States supported China in its successful bid to reclaim the Japanese-held territories in Shandong, finally redressing a long-standing injustice.

**Recognition of the Nationalist Government**

Later in the decade, after the forces of Generalissimo Jiang Jieshi’s (Chiang Kai-shek) Nationalist Party (Guomindang/Kuomintang) completed the Northern Expedition to establish unified rule over China from their capital of Nanjing, the new regime moved to renegotiate all of its international treaties. “In my opinion,” U.S. Minister John Van A. MacMurray wrote from Beijing, “there was more hope today for a unified and stable government than there had been for many years.” He added that it seemed wise for the Western powers to “render any assistance and encouragement possible in the hope of working out a stable government in China.”

Secretary of State Frank B. Kellogg, acting with bipartisan congressional support, made the United States the first nation to recognize the new Nationalist Government when he signed a treaty with the Nanjing authorities in 1928, restoring China’s tariff autonomy. While the United States fell short of totally abandoning extraterritoriality, it did lead the way in supporting China’s position in the world.
A Journey Shared:  
The United States & China  
200 Years of History

From the Open Door to the Chinese Civil War

Diplomacy and Trade From the Open Door to 1937

1. Investigate Japan’s 21 Demands of 1915.
2. Research the Soviet Union’s diplomatic relations with China.
3. Investigate the Rape of Nanjing (Nanking).
Cartoon: Portrait of United States President Richard Nixon with Soviet leader Leonid Brezhnev and Chinese leader Mao Tse-Tung forming his ears, a commentary on Nixon’s developing relations with communist leaders during the Cold War. (Jim Ivey, 1972)
A Journey Shared:  
The United States & China  

Nixon and China: Document B

125. Message From the Government of the United States to the Government of the People's Republic of China


President Nixon has carefully studied the message of April 21, 1971, from Premier Chou En-lai conveyed through the courtesy of President Yahya Khan. President Nixon agrees that direct high-level negotiations are necessary to resolve the issues dividing the United States of America and the People's Republic of China. Because of the importance he attaches to normalizing relations between our two countries, President Nixon is prepared to accept the suggestion of Premier Chou En-lai that he visit Peking for direct conversations with the leaders of the People's Republic of China. At such a meeting each side would be free to raise the issue of principal concern to it.

In order to prepare the visit by President Nixon and to establish reliable contact with the leaders of the Chinese People's Republic, President Nixon proposes a preliminary secret meeting between his Assistant for National Security Affairs, Dr. Kissinger, and Premier Chou En-lai or another appropriate high-level Chinese official. Dr. Kissinger would be prepared to attend such a meeting on Chinese soil preferably at some location within convenient flying distance from Pakistan to be suggested by the People's Republic of China. Dr. Kissinger would be authorized to discuss the circumstances which would make a visit by President Nixon most useful, the agenda of such a meeting, the time of such a visit and to begin a preliminary exchange of views on all subjects of mutual interest. If it should be thought desirable that a special emissary come to Peking publicly between the secret visit to the People's Republic of China of Dr. Kissinger and the arrival of President Nixon, Dr. Kissinger will be authorized to arrange it. It is anticipated that the visit of President Nixon to Peking could be announced within a short time of the secret meeting between Dr. Kissinger and Premier Chou En-lai. Dr. Kissinger will be prepared to come from June 15 onward. It is proposed that the precise details of Dr. Kissinger's trip including location, duration of stay, communication and similar matters be discussed through the good offices of President Yahya Khan. For secrecy, it is essential that no other channel be used. It is also understood that this first meeting between Dr. Kissinger and high officials of the People's Republic of China be strictly secret.  

1 Source: National Archives, Nixon Presidential Materials, NSC Files, Box 1031, Files for the President—China Material, Exchanges Leading up to HAK's Trip to China, December 1969–July 1971. No classification marking. A handwritten note at the top of the first page reads: “Handed by Mr. Kissinger to Amb. Hilaly, 12:00, 5/10/71.” Kissinger met with Hilaly on May 10 from 12:10 to 12:55 p.m. and from 3:05 to 3:29 p.m. (Library of Congress, Manuscript Division, Kissinger Papers, Box 438, Miscellany, 1968–1976, Record of Schedule) Kissinger informed Farland via a May 14 backchannel message that “Message passed to Yahya through Hilaly along lines of our conversation. You were designated as point of contact for travel arrangements.” (National Archives, Nixon Presidential Materials, NSC Files, Box 426, Backchannel Files, Backchannel Messages—1971—Amb Farland—Pakistan) Farland informed Kissinger on May 22 that this message was received by Yahya in Lahore on May 17 and was given to the PRC Ambassador on May 19. (Ibid.)

2 Nixon did, however, hint to Rogers that a meeting was possible. At a May 21 meeting with Rogers, Nixon remarked: “Now, it’s something that we should keep very much, now one thing I’ve done that you should know, Maurice Stans wants to take a commercial mission, Ted Kennedy suggested he could drop over from there [the PRC] on his trips and so forth. And I said none of you even approach it, don’t even suggest it, we’re not going to get into [unintelliglible]. Any visits must be at the highest level. It would have to be you or me or both. And it might come, it might come. I just have a hunch here, a feeling that there’s something going on there. I think that this Russian thing has a helluva lot more to do with China than anything else. They’re scared of them.” Rogers replied: “Yeah, no doubt about it. I think we want to be careful, that’s why I want to mention today in my speech, on not appearing that we’ve turned them off. I think we’ve got to soften, to downplay a little bit so we don’t get too eager.” (Ibid., White House Tapes, Recording of conversation between Nixon and Rogers, May 21, 1971, 11:29–11:41 a.m., Oval Office, Conversation No. 503–9) Rogers’ May 21 speech before the 1970 Medal of Honor recipients is in the Department of State Bulletin, June 14, 1971, pp. 766–768.
Resolution 2758 (XXVI)

THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY,

Recalling the principles of the Charter of the United Nations,

Considering the restoration of the lawful rights of the People’s Republic of China is essential both for the protection of the Charter of the United Nations and for the cause that the United Nations must serve under the Charter.

Recognizing that the representatives of the Government of the People’s Republic of China are the only lawful representatives of China to the United Nations and that the People’s Republic of China is one of the five permanent members of the Security Council,

Decides to restore all its rights to the People’s Republic of China and to recognize the representatives of its Government as the only legitimate representatives of China to the United Nations, and to expel forthwith the representatives of Chiang Kai-shek from the place which they unlawfully occupy at the United Nations and in all the organizations related to it.

1967th plenary meeting
25 October 1971

Source: Resolutions and Decisions of the United Nations General Assembly 26th Session.
A Journey Shared:  
The United States & China  

Nixon and China: Document D

[Text content removed for brevity]
Doctrine the necessity of relying on nuclear missiles and asserted that the USSR has "continually clamored" about missiles with nuclear warheads near Lake Baikal and in Mongolian territory aimed at China.

We are unaware of any Soviet missile claims with respect to the border areas, though Peking may have discovered the remarks of a local official or provisional commander susceptible to this interpretation. However, the Soviets did, shortly after the fighting on the USSR, threaten indirectly the use of nuclear weapons in a putatively "unofficial" Radio Peace and Progress broadcast. The USSR subsequently denied that this represented a nuclear threat to China.

**Chinese Populace Told to Make War Preparations.** Several anti-Soviet meetings in communes and provincial cities in the past ten days have incorporated the theme of war preparations, according to travelers returning to Hong Kong. The series of meetings evidently began soon after the publication of Peking's statement of May 24 which affirmed Chinese interest in settling the border dispute through negotiations. In addition to the public meetings, one informant reports that adult members of his commune will receive militia training two days a week as part of the war preparations, and another quotes a local cadre as predicting that the Third World War will break out in August or September. A third informant mentions required attendance of "secret" (i.e., closed) meetings sponsored by the local PHA and revolutionary committee to discuss preparations for the "forthcoming war against Soviet revisionism."

In a different vein, a foreign businessman reports a conversation in Peking in mid-May with an official of the Chinese foodstuffs foreign trade organi-
zation who claimed that China was stockpiling various goods because of the prospects for armed conflict with the USSR.
203. Excerpts of a Joint Statement Following Discussions With Leaders of the People’s Republic of China

Shanghai, February 27, 1972.

President Richard Nixon of the United States of America visited the People’s Republic of China at the invitation of Premier Chou En-lai of the People’s Republic of China from February 21 to February 28, 1972. Accompanying the President were Mrs. Nixon, U.S. Secretary of State William Rogers, Assistant to the President Dr. Henry Kissinger, and other American officials.

President Nixon met with Chairman Mao Tse-tung of the Communist Party of China on February 21. The two leaders had a serious and frank exchange of views on Sino-U.S. relations and world affairs.

During the visit, extensive, earnest, and frank discussions were held between President Nixon and Premier Chou En-lai on the normalization of relations between the United States of America and the People’s Republic of China, as well as on other matters of interest to both sides. In addition, Secretary of State William Rogers and Foreign Minister Chi P’eng-fei held talks in the same spirit.

There are essential differences between China and the United States in their social systems and foreign policies. However, the two sides agreed that countries, regardless of their social systems, should conduct their relations on the principles of respect for the sovereignty and territorial integrity of all states, nonaggression against other states, noninterference in the internal affairs of other states, equality and mutual benefit, and peaceful coexistence. International disputes should be settled on this basis, without re-sorting to the use or threat of force. The United States and the People’s Republic of China are prepared to apply these principles to their mutual relations.

With these principles of international relations in mind the two sides stated that:

- progress toward the normalization of relations between China and the United States is in the interests of all countries;
- both wish to reduce the danger of international military conflict;
- neither should seek hegemony in the Asia-Pacific region and each is opposed to efforts by any other country or group of countries to establish such hegemony; and
- neither is prepared to negotiate on behalf of any third party or to enter into agreements or understandings with the other directed at other states.

Both sides are of the view that it would be against the interests of the peoples of the world for any major country to collude with another against other countries, or for major countries to divide up the world into spheres of interest.

The two sides reviewed the long-standing serious disputes between China and the United States. The Chinese side reaffirmed its position: The Taiwan question is the crucial question obstructing the normalization of relations between China and the United States; the Government of the People’s Republic of China is the sole legal government of China; Taiwan is a province of China which has long been returned to the motherland; the liberation of Taiwan is China’s internal affair in which no other country has the right to interfere; and all U.S. forces and military installations must be withdrawn from Taiwan. The Chinese Government firmly opposes any activities which aim at the creation of “one China, one Taiwan,” “one China, two governments,” “two Chinas,” and “independent Taiwan” or advocate that “the status of Taiwan remains to be determined.”

The U.S. side declared: The United States acknowledges that all Chinese on either side of the Taiwan Strait maintain there is but one China and that Taiwan is a part of China. The United States Government does not challenge that position. It reaffirms its interest in a peaceful settlement of the Taiwan question by the Chinese themselves. With this prospect in mind, it affirms the ultimate objective of the withdrawal of all U.S. forces and military installations from Taiwan. In the meantime, it will progressively reduce its forces and military installations on Taiwan as the tension in the area diminishes. The two sides agreed that it is desirable to broaden the understanding between the two peoples. To this end, they discussed specific areas in such fields as science, technology, culture, sports and journalism, in which people-to-people contacts and exchanges would be mutually beneficial. Each side undertakes to facilitate the further development of such contacts and exchanges.

President Nixon, Mrs. Nixon and the American party expressed their appreciation for the gracious hospitality shown them by the Government and people of the People’s Republic of China.

Toast of President Nixon at a Banquet Honoring the President in Peking

February 21, 1972

Mr. Prime Minister [Zhou Enlai] and all of your distinguished guests this evening:

On behalf of all of your American guests, I wish to thank you for the incomparable hospitality for which the Chinese people are justly famous throughout the world. I particularly want to pay tribute, not only to those who prepared the magnificent dinner, but also to those who have provided the splendid music. Never have I heard American music played better in a foreign land.

Mr. Prime Minister, I wish to thank you for your very gracious and eloquent remarks. At this very moment, through the wonder of telecommunications, more people are seeing and hearing what we say than on any other such occasion in the whole history of the world. Yet, what we say here will not be long remembered. What we do here can change the world.

As you said in your toast, the Chinese people are a great people, the American people are a great people. If our two peoples are enemies the future of this world we share together is dark indeed. But if we can find common ground to work together, the chance for world peace is immeasurably increased.

In the spirit of frankness which I hope will characterize our talks this week, let us recognize at the outset these points: We have at times in the past been enemies. We have great differences today. What brings us together is that we have common interests which transcend those differences. As we discuss our differences, neither of us will compromise our principles. But while we cannot close the gulf between us, we can try to bridge it so that we may be able to talk across it.

So, let us, in these next 5 days, start a long march together, not in lockstep, but on different roads leading to the same goal, the goal of building a world structure of peace and justice in which all may stand together with equal dignity and in which each nation, large or small, has a right to determine its own form of government, free of outside interference or domination. The world watches. The world listens. The world waits to see what we will do. What is the world? In a personal sense, I think of my eldest daughter whose birthday is today. As I think of her, I think of all the children in the world, in Asia, in Africa, in Europe, in the Americas, most of whom were born since the date of the foundation of the People’s Republic of China.

What legacy shall we leave our children? Are they destined to die for the hatreds which have plagued the old world, or are they destined to live because we had the vision to build a new world?

There is no reason for us to be enemies. Neither of us seeks the territory of the other; neither of us seeks domination over the other; neither of us seeks to stretch out our hands and rule the world.

Chairman Mao has written, “So many deeds cry out to be done, and always urgently. The world rolls on. Time passes. Ten thousand years are too long. Seize the day, seize the hour.”

This is the hour, this is the day for our two peoples to rise to the heights of greatness which can build a new and a better world.

In that spirit, I ask all of you present to join me in raising your glasses to Chairman Mao, to Prime Minister Chou, and to the friendship of the Chinese and American people which can lead to friendship and peace for all people in the world.

MEMORANDUM FOR THE CHAIRMAN, NSC SENIOR REVIEW GROUP

SUBJECT: NSSM 124: Next Steps Toward the People's Republic of China (PRC)

I herewith transmit a study in response to NSSM 124 and a proposed issues paper for possible use by the Senior Review Group in its consideration of the study.

The study has been approved by the NSC Interdepartmental Group for East Asia and the Pacific.

Winthrop G. Brown
Acting Chairman
NSC Interdepartmental Group for East Asia and the Pacific

Enclosure:
As stated.
Nixon and China: Document G  p. 2

NSSM 124

Next Steps Toward the People's Republic of China (PRC)

Issues Paper

As part of the Administration's evolving policy toward China and in light of recent developments in US-PRC relations, the President has asked for recommendations on possible new initiatives.

Following is a summary of the options we have identified in NSSM 124 and the choices and issues which they present.

The Range of Alternatives

We have arranged the possible next steps into three groups (Tab A).

Group I includes a collection of relatively modest steps which could be implemented without great difficulty at any time and which would not require negotiations or official contact with the PRC. Examples are permission for U.S. flag ships to call at Chinese ports and the reduction of close-in intelligence and reconnaissance flights.

Group II would involve governmental contacts and would contain greater inducements for the PRC to respond to our overtures. Examples are an offer to establish a Washington-Peking hotline and the reduction of U.S. forces on Taiwan consonant with the withdrawal of U.S. forces from Viet-Nam.

Group III would involve significant changes in the U.S. policy on the Taiwan issue and would deal with matters which are basic obstacles to an improvement...
in US-PRC relations. Possible initiatives include:
(a) some form of official U.S. presence in Peking;
(b) an indication of U.S. willingness to regard
Taiwan as part of China; (c) removal of U.S. forces
from the Taiwan area, contingent for example upon
an assurance that Peking would not provoke a crisis
in the Taiwan Straits area.

The options in the three groups involve
progressively greater problems in our relations
with the GRC and the Soviet Union. Thus, an
important consideration is the effect on our interests
in relation to the GRC and, possibly, the Soviet
Union.

Issues

The first issue to decide is whether and how
soon we should proceed with additional steps after
the trade lists are announced.

If the decision is to move ahead, the basic
issue is whether we should at this time limit ourselves
to rather modest steps (Group I), to test the PRC's
willingness to move toward better relations in the
absence of significant change in the U.S. policy on
the Taiwan issue; or whether we should directly proceed
to more important initiatives (drawn from Group II and,
perhaps, Group III) in order to persuade Peking to
commence dealing with the major problems which must be
solved before there can be any basic and lasting accord
between us.

Other issues are the mix of public offers and
private initiatives to be selected, the choice between
possible initiatives on the Taiwan issue, and the
timing of our moves, particularly in relation to Chirep.
U.S. Objectives and Tactics

Our longer-term objective should be to draw the PRC into a serious discussion of the problems involved not only in our bilateral relationship but also in a more general relaxation of tensions in East Asia. Early results would not be anticipated, but over time the PRC might well feel that such a dialogue would be in its own interest, given its continuing difficulties with the Soviet Union and its fears of Japan's expanding strength and influence.

To deal with the fundamental questions requires relationships at an official level. Thus, while we welcome an expansion of unofficial contacts, our objective should be to move US-PRC contacts onto a governmental plane as rapidly as possible. Early contacts at a governmental level, if attainable without crucial concessions on the Taiwan issue, would strengthen the Administration's position domestically and internationally, and provide the opportunity to commence a dialogue on the fundamental problems. Official contacts would also undercut expected PRC efforts to put pressure on the Administration through "people's diplomacy", including invitations to prominent Americans of its own choice.

On our side, we must pursue our objectives with full regard to (a) our alliance with Japan which remains our foremost national interest in Asia; and (b) the fact that Japan's role will be critical in any long-term process leading to a relaxation of tensions in the region. We should concert our moves with Japan through close and frequent consultations.

PRC Objectives and Tactics

Peking's recent moves are strongly influenced by a short-term tactical consideration -- to secure
the GRC's expulsion from the UN -- but its leaders must also be mindful of the changing strategic relations in Asia. While Peking may continue gradually to broaden contacts with the U.S. public (and, possibly, the Congress) we doubt whether it will move very far toward governmental contacts unless given some signal of U.S. flexibility on the Taiwan issue. Peking's spokesmen recently have re-emphasized that Taiwan remains the fundamental issue -- which, in its eyes, encompasses not only Taiwan's international legal status but also the U.S. political involvement with the GRC, the U.S. military presence on and use of the island, and even the willingness of the United States to discuss this issue bilaterally.

Despite the professed willingness of Peking's leaders to "wait twenty years for Taiwan", time is not necessarily in Peking's favor on the issue of Taiwan's eventual status. The drift of events, notably Taiwan's progressively greater viability, increases the possibility of a one China/one Taiwan solution. These considerations must be evident to the PRC also, and Peking may fear that unless it succeeds in obtaining a change of U.S. policy Japan and the United States will ultimately join in ratifying (and defending) this solution.

At this point, therefore, Peking's choices vis-a-vis the United States are:

-- To limit PRC contacts to the U.S. public and the Congress, in an attempt to pressure the Administration through "people's diplomacy" to modify U.S. policy toward the GRC and Taiwan; or

-- In addition to renew and progressively broaden contacts at the governmental level, begin a dialogue with us, gain leverage against the Soviets and, by fueling Japan's China policy debate, put pressure on Sato.

TOP SECRET
U.S. Policy and the GRC

The options presented in this paper would not, we believe, jeopardize our basic objectives with regard to the Republic of China on Taiwan—ensuring its security from external attack, preserving necessary military access, and maintaining our general policy of recognition and diplomatic support. Those in Groups II and III would place progressively greater strain on working relations with the GRC but we cannot conceive that Taipei would break relations with us. Some of those in Group III might weaken our ability to retain support domestically and internationally for our continued security commitment to, and close relations with, the GRC.

The IG/EA's study in response to NSM 124 is attached (Tab B).

Attachments:

Tab A: Summary of New Steps
Tab B: NSM 124 Study

Mr. President,

I have received your letter of January 3, 1973.

Chairman Mao has read the letter and also takes satisfaction in bilateral developments since last February.

We appreciate Mr. President’s wish for continued improvement in Sino-U.S. relations as was expressed in the letter. The Chinese side believes that the normalization of relations between China and the United States step by step in accordance with the principles of the Shanghai Communiqué is not only in the interest of the Chinese and American peoples, but will also contribute to the easing of tension in Asia and the world. However, Mr. President, we would not be frank if we did not point out at the same time that the continuation of the Viet Nam war, particularly such bombings as recently carried out by the United States against the Democratic Republic of Viet Nam, are bound to affect the progress of Sino-U.S. relations. We believe, as Mr. President correctly mentioned in the letter, it is in the interest of us all to bring the Viet Nam war to a rapid conclusion and thus remove the major obstacle to many constructive developments in international relations. As the Chinese saying goes, one should not lose the major for the sake of the minor, and I think it would be of significance to reflect upon these words again at this important juncture. We hope in this round of private meetings between Viet Nam and the United States, interferences can be overcome and an agreement to end the Viet Nam war finally concluded through serious reciprocal negotiations and joint efforts.

It is understandable that Dr. Kissinger’s planned visit to Peking cannot materialize as originally envisaged. You are welcome to send Dr. Kissinger to Peking for a meeting at an appropriate time after the negotiated settlement of the Viet Nam war.

With regard to the series of international issues and questions concerning the development of Sino-U.S. bilateral relations as referred to in the letter, we prepare to have a direct and thorough exchange of views with Dr. Kissinger during his visit to Peking. My wife and I thank you and Mrs. Nixon for your good wishes and extend our regards to you.

Chou En-Lai

1Source: National Archives, Nixon Presidential Materials, NSC Files, Kissinger Office Files, Box 94, Country Files, Far East, China Exchanges, January 1–April 14, 1973. Top Secret; Exclusively Eyes Only. This letter was sent to Nixon under a covering letter, January 8, from Richard T. Kennedy. (Ibid.) A handwritten note on Kennedy’s cover letter states, “The President has seen per RTK 1/8/73.”
Excerpts of the Taiwan Relations Act of 1979

(Note: The President spoke at 8:55 p.m. in the Great Hall of the People. He spoke from a prepared text in response to a toast proposed by Premier Chou. The exchange of toasts was broadcast live on television via satellite.)

SECTION 1.
This Act may be cited as the “Taiwan Relations Act”.

Findings and Declaration of Policy

SEC. 2. (a) The President having terminated governmental relations between the United States and the governing authorities on Taiwan recognized by the United States as the Republic of China prior to January 1, 1979, the Congress finds that the enactment of this Act is necessary -

(1) to help maintain peace, security, and stability in the Western Pacific, and

(2) to promote the foreign policy of the United States by authorizing the continuation of commercial, cultural, and other relations between the people of the United States and the people on Taiwan.

(b) It is the policy of the United States -

(1) to preserve and promote extensive, close, and friendly commercial, cultural, and other relations between the people of the United States and the people on Taiwan, as well as the people on the China mainland and all other peoples of the Western Pacific area;

(2) to declare that peace and stability in the area are in the political, security, and economic interests of the United States, and are matters of international concern;

(3) to make clear that the United States decision to establish diplomatic relations with the People’s Republic of China rests upon the expectation that the future of Taiwan will be determined by peaceful means;

(4) to consider any effort to determine the future of Taiwan by other than peaceful means, including by boycotts or embargoes, a threat to the peace and security of the Western Pacific area and of grave concern to the United States;

(5) to provide Taiwan with arms of a defensive character; and

(6) to maintain the capacity of the United States to resist any resort to force or other forms of coercion that would jeopardize the security, or the social or economic system, of the people on Taiwan.

(c) Nothing contained in this Act shall contravene the interest of the United States in human rights, especially with respect to the human rights of all the approximately eighteen million inhabitants of Taiwan. The preservation and enhancement of the human rights of all the people on Taiwan are hereby reaffirmed as objectives of the United States.

We the literati and righteous people of Guangzhou, including those who live on the land and on the water, those who live inside and outside the city, publish these instructions to let the barbarian merchants of all nations understand our intentions.

The injuries, deceits, cruel deeds, and civil acts of the English resident barbarians are as innumerable as the hairs of the hear. Now they plot to coerce our high authorities. They have long wished to enter the city; and our superiors, from the depths of their virtue and greatness of their benevolence, have given in and issued a proclamation granting permission to enter the city. They have not considered that the English barbarians, born and raised in noxious regions beyond the bounds of civilization, having the hearts of wolves, the visage of tigers, and the cunning of foxes, plan to take possession of our province and only desire to enter the walls so that they may spy out the land. Now having received a proclamation allowing their entrance, they will not only exercise violence and usurpation, but will insult and injure the people to an unspeakable degree.

Therefore, we the literati and the people of Guangzhou, however small our strength, have prepared ourselves for the contest. We declare that sooner than obey the proclamation and suffer these wild barbarians, we will act in opposition and adhere to the old regulations of our government. In public assembly, we decided to await the day they enter the city, then exterminate their odious race and burn their houses. With united hearts, we will destroy them in order to display celestial vengence and manifest public indignation.

But we are aware that at the thirteen factories barbarian merchants of all nations are assembled together for commerce, the good and the bad mixed together. When the standard of righteousness is raised the precious and the vile might be consumed together if they were not warned in advance. Therefore we give this special early announcement.

All the good barbarians who intend to remain in their places quietly and do not contemplate entering the city come to no harm if they promptly leave. As regards all the people who live in the vicinity of the factories, if they wish to guard themselves and their establishments, they should not go out of doors to protect or save the barbarians. Otherwise calamity will overtake them, and they will have not time for regrets. Be warned. Tremble. Be on your guard. These are special commands.

Posted in front of the thirteen factories on the 18th day of the twelfth month of 1845.

Chinese Reaction to Treaties
Placards Posted in Guangzhou (Document Two)

When the English barbarians started the quarrel about opium, our august sovereign, out of consideration for the people of the seas, and unwilling to make them suffer the horrors of war, consented to free trade [at the five ports]. He thereby manifested the highest degree of tender regard. All of our high provincial authorities have also in every way possible, manifested their generosity. But the desires of the barbarians cannot be fathomed, and their repeated wanton deeds are already sufficient to make men’s hair stand on end. Often of late they have, under the pretext of entering the city to take exercise and relaxation, hoped to get secret opportunities for spying out and usurping the land. Nothing can exceed their violent insults.

Consider how different our case is from the others. In our metropolis, Guangzhou, commercial transactions are all conducted outside the walls of the city, while the opposite is the case at Fuzhou and Ningbo. Therefore they have no real reason to enter the city. In asking to enter the city to take exercise and relaxation, they reveal their opposition to the old regulations. Moreover the city is an important site. Here are not only the offices of government, the granaries and prisons, but also the family residences of all the people. If a perverse line of action is allowed to begin, violent opposition to authority will shortly follow, which will lead on to shameless usurpation and eventually to mutual slaughter. War will recommence.

For the protection of our families and the preservation of their lives, we will firmly maintain the oaths we have taken and never swerve from our determination. If they truly keep to their intention to enter the city, every house and every family will prepare heaps of stones and bricks at their doors, and when the gong is sounded, every street and lane shall be closed to prevent their escape. If the barbarians use force and attack the gates, the people of every street will shower down their bricks and stones, and shouting to each other from every quarter, will advance, slaughter the whole multitude, and then demolish their factories and burn up their ships, not allowing one to escape.

Notice has already been given to the people and scholars in every direction to assembly and train the righteous and valiant among them and to place guards at the important and dangerous passes, ready for all emergencies.

We, the inhabitants of the whole city, ought to and must, with one heart and united strength, defend our ancestral city. Anyone who dares to oppose us, may both the gods and men dash to pieces.

This manifesto is issued by the united gentry of Guangzhou.

Early Diplomatic Contact

Westerners were accustomed to formal diplomatic relations between governments, but the Qing Dynasty insisted that state-to-state interactions be brief and largely ceremonial. The Qing had not yet established permanent and reciprocal diplomatic missions with its trade partners, and disputes also arose over the manner and practice of diplomatic relations. The British won full diplomatic representation after the first Opium War in 1842 in the Treaty of Nanjing (Nanking).

The United States followed Britain's lead and opened diplomatic relations with the Qing, a move strongly endorsed by the missionaries. In 1843, Secretary of State Daniel Webster dispatched Caleb Cushing as Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to negotiate a treaty that would provide virtually the same trading and diplomatic rights that the British had obtained. Cushing immediately hired Dr. Peter Parker to serve as his primary translator.

Cushing held his first meeting with the Qing official Qiying late that year and expressed his hope to negotiate directly with the Emperor in Beijing. His counterpart was unwilling to allow this and delayed negotiations. Cushing spent months in Macao waiting for a response and developed negative opinions about China and its people. When he finally dropped his request to meet with the Emperor and opened negotiations with lower-level officials, Cushing demanded that Americans be granted extraterritoriality and not be subject to Chinese laws. Qiying agreed to Cushing's demands. On July 3, 1844, Cushing and Qiying signed the Treaty of Wangxia (Wang-hsia/Wang-hiya), which marked the beginning of official relations between the United States and China.

Dr. Peter Parker continued to advise successive American ministers in China. He even served as the U.S. Chargé d’Affaires from 1850–53, and Commissioner from 1855–57. In addition to working for U.S. officials, Parker also provided assistance to Chinese officials, such as Lin Zexu, who requested translations of passages from texts on Western international law during his disputes with the British. Parker's diplomatic and medical experiences set a precedent for future missionaries to perform non-evangelical activities.

Later 19th Century Diplomacy

For the first 60 years after the 1784 voyage of the Empress of China, U.S. diplomatic representation was confined to the consular level. In 1843, Edward Everett was appointed as the first American Commissioner to China, but he declined the appointment. Caleb Cushing became the first Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary when he established official contact in June 1844. He left Macao just two months later. Cushing's successor, Alexander
Everett, was appointed Commissioner in 1845, but the Senate failed to confirm him as Envoy and Minister. He died at post less than one year after his arrival.

American diplomacy's low profile was in part the result of the short careers and limited scope of action of the U.S. officials who served in China. Of the 17 ministers posted there between 1844 and 1900, most had a tenure of less than two years, and two—Everett and Benjamin Avery—died of disease while at post. All of them acted on an ad hoc basis, since the U.S. Government had no formal policy towards China throughout the 19th century. Although American ministers occasionally interceded on China's behalf in its disputes with other powers, U.S. officials were content to pick up whatever benefits other powers gained through their new treaty negotiations, since this was guaranteed by the most favored nation clause of the Treaty of Wangxia.

The first American Commissioner to visit the interior of China was Humphrey Marshall, who traveled 30 miles inland from Shanghai to Kwoonsan in 1853. Marshall believed that continued diplomatic contact between the two sides "might serve to efface prejudices … that retarded the intimate friendly intercourse which ought to exist between the United States and China."

Minister Anson Burlingame, who in 1862 became the first U.S. representative to reside in Beijing, took a more active role in China's international relations. Burlingame quickly acquainted himself with leading reformers in the Chinese Government, including the influential Prince Gong, the brother of Emperor Xianfeng, who established China's first Ministry of Foreign Affairs. In 1867, when Chinese officials decided to send a diplomatic mission overseas to renegotiate China's treaties, they lacked a high-ranking official with sufficient experience to lead the expedition. The Chinese turned to Burlingame who, with permission from Washington, resigned his ministerial post and entered the service of the Qing Empire. He then led a small group of Chinese to the capitals of the West, including Washington, D.C., an event that Burlingame billed as having epic historical significance:

"[I]t means commerce; it means peace; it means a unification of her own interests with the whole human race … The fraternal feeling of four hundred millions of people has commenced to flow through the land of Washington to the elder nations of the West, and it will flow on forever."

The resulting treaty, the Burlingame Treaty, signed by Burlingame and U.S. Secretary of State William H. Seward, expanded contact between Chinese and Americans. It ensured the reciprocal rights of travel, residence, and study; it provided Chinese consuls with full diplomatic rights in U.S. ports; it encouraged Chinese laborers to immigrate to the United States; and it offered official U.S. support for Chinese territorial sovereignty. The terms of this treaty surprised some in the Qing court, particularly those provisions promoting immigration, which went much further than they had initially authorized. Nevertheless, the two sides signed the treaty in 1868 and ratified it the following year.

Several years after ratifying the Burlingame Treaty, the Qing court established a legation in Washington, D.C. Chen Lanbin, who had already spent several years in the United States leading a group of students, was appointed to head the legation. Although he accepted the post, Chen remained in China for a time and did not proceed immediately to Washington. Until his arrival, Yung Wing, a naturalized U.S. citizen, served as temporary minister. One of Yung's first tasks was finding a home for China's diplomats. He obtained a lease on a stately Victorian mansion known as the Stewart Castle, located near other foreign legations in the Dupont Circle neighborhood. Chen's arrival in 1878 marked the beginning of full bilateral
1. President Ulysses S. Grant conferred several times with Chinese Diplomat Li Hung Chang. Investigate the basis for these meetings. What were the Chinese expectations and what were their immediate needs? Investigate the benefits America reaped by inaction.

2. Anson Burlingame was an extraordinary diplomat and negotiator. What qualities did Burlingame have that made him a perfect choice as an envoy?

3. What were the early beginnings of Anson Burlingame? What was his political stand on slavery? Research and report on the Preston S. Brooks and Senator Charles Sumner incident. Research Burlingame’s speech on the subject.
After the Opening: Educational and Cultural Relations

After President Nixon’s visit to Beijing, cultural, athletic, scientific, and educational exchanges brought the two nations closer together. These unofficial and semi-official channels showed that even after decades of separation, Americans and Chinese shared a bond, and this bond has helped the two nations deal with numerous difficulties. The Shanghai Communiqué included a short passage providing for people-to-people contacts, and almost immediately it became clear that there were large numbers of people on both sides who were interested in pursuing these sorts of relations.

Private Groups Lead the Way
In the United States, three associations took the lead in facilitating non-official relations. The National Committee on U.S.-China Relations, founded in 1966, hosted the Chinese national ping pong team on its tour of the United States in 1972, and then sponsored many other groups to travel in China or the United States. The Committee on Scholarly Communication with the PRC (CSCPRC), also founded in 1966, took charge of academic exchanges, due to its connections to the National Academy of Sciences and other leading academic associations. After an initial exchange of medical delegations, the CSCPRC concentrated on the transfer of scientific knowledge, engineering practice, and technology, and became a key component of what the Chinese side viewed as its most important exchanges. Finally, the U.S.-China People’s Friendship Association worked to improve mutual understanding through U.S. domestic educational efforts and through group trips to China. The group worked with China’s state-run counterpart, the Chinese People’s Association for Friendship with Foreign Countries (You xie).

After normalization, these three associations were joined by a burgeoning number of groups that encouraged cultural and educational exchanges to flourish. Some of these groups merely returned to mainland China after a lengthy hiatus. Yale-China, which had established a strong foothold at the Chinese University of Hong Kong during the absence of relations with the PRC, was the first association to renew its former ties. In 1979, it began a medical exchange program and, the following year, two Yale graduates went to Changsha to teach at the secondary school founded by Yale University in the early 1900s.

Another organization with longstanding ties to China, Oberlin Shansi, re-established ties with its former school in Taigu, now a part of Shanxi Agricultural University. Later in the decade, it began sending its representatives to Yunnan University in Kunming, the former base of the Flying Tigers, while maintaining relations with its original Chinese home. These and several other groups sent Americans to teach English to Chinese students and provided...
opportunities for Chinese scholars and students to come to the United States to teach and study.

**Educational Exchanges**

Language study proved to be one of the key areas of exchange between the two nations. The PRC launched a significant initiative for English language instruction, as part of its program of opening China to international business and Western technology. For that, English was essential, and the Chinese Government encouraged universities and secondary schools to bring in native English speakers from overseas. U.S. institutions of higher education improved existing Mandarin Chinese language programs or established new ones, bringing in native speakers of Mandarin whenever possible. A number of schools and other institutions set up Chinese study programs in mainland China, some of them run by local universities and some by American institutions. By the mid-1980s there were at least 16 such programs, and many more were set up later in the decade. One interesting example was the Hopkins Nanjing Center, established jointly by The Johns Hopkins University and Nanjing University in 1986, with the goal of training future leaders of both countries. As a more bipartisan version of earlier collaborative projects such as the Peking Union Medical College, it brought Chinese and American students together for the collective study of China, the United States, and international relations.

A new wave of academic ties provided a great boost to the study of China in the United States. Soon after Deng Xiaoping launched his reforms, the Number One Historical Archives in Beijing and the Number Two Historical Archives in Nanjing opened their doors to select groups of researchers, unveiling enormous quantities of primary documents on China’s history up until 1949. U.S. scholars, who had long been at the forefront of raising awareness and knowledge of China, suddenly had the opportunity to examine a wealth of Chinese historical materials. Access was tightly controlled, but even so, the materials at these and other newly opened archives and libraries around the country facilitated an unprecedented depth of inquiry into China’s past. Political scientists, anthropologists, economists, and others also obtained greater access to contemporary society and materials. This sort of opening produced a tremendous expansion of the field of Chinese studies in the United States.

U.S. studies in China also received greater attention after normalization, but the vast majority of Chinese academics who journeyed to the United States worked in the “hard” or applied sciences. During the early 1980s, well over two-thirds of Chinese students in the United States were in fields such as engineering, life sciences, health, computers, physical sciences, and math; far fewer studied in the humanities or social sciences than had been the case before 1949. Between 1979 and 1989, about 80,000 Chinese received visas to study in the United States. By 2000, Chinese students constituted the largest population of foreign students in the United States.

**U.S. Initiatives in China**

On top of these many private efforts, the U.S. Government launched its own education initiatives in China. The Fulbright Program resumed in 1983, and in the early years it emphasized teaching English and U.S. literature and history. It later expanded both the scope of its offerings and the scale of its programs for Americans in China and for Chinese in the United States. The Peace Corps was slower to establish operations in China, but opened its first program in Sichuan Province in 1993, where its volunteers taught English. The net result of all of these cultural, educational, and other endeavors has been to increase dramatically the numbers of U.S. and Chinese citizens with firsthand knowledge of the other. Moreover, as these people have produced articles for newspapers or journals—or in some cases full-length books—about their experiences, they have helped to expand and improve secondhand knowledge.

**Popular Culture Crosses Borders**

As China opened its doors to foreign trade and investment, the Chinese people began to explore U.S. popular culture, often internalizing it as their own. This was seen in changing fashions, as the quintessentially American blue jeans began to replace the gray and blue “Mao suits” throughout China. U.S. rock music scene emerged in cities like Beijing and Shanghai. Hollywood blockbusters such as *Titanic* brought huge crowds of Chinese viewers to the cinema. Similarly, U.S. audiences began to watch the films of Chinese directors such as Zhang Yimou and Chen Kaige. These cultural transfers gave U.S. and Chinese citizens a common vocabulary, which facilitated relations between the two groups.
**A Journey Shared:**
**The United States & China**
**200 Years of History**

**20th Century Relations, 1949–2000**

After the Opening: Educational and Cultural Relations

1. Students coming from China to study in the United States were a principal element in U.S.-China Relations. Research opportunities for high school students to study in China.

2. Research the availability of visiting Chinese professors at local colleges and universities. Invite them as guest speakers for your class.

3. In 2008, China hosted the Summer Olympic Games. What games are popular in China today? Research China’s four most popular sports.

4. Sports have always been part of a universal language. Research how sports and the recent Olympics in Beijing have fostered a closer relationship to China.

5. Research China’s Physical Culture Law. Develop a logical argument for or against creating such a law in the United States.
A Journey Shared: The United States & China

Exclusion by Law

Standard:
I. Culture
II. Time, Continuity, and Change
IV. Individuals, Groups, and Institutions
VI. Power, Authority, and Governance
IX. Global Connections

Grade Level: 9–12

Objectives: The student will:
✓ Examine the historical background of the Chinese Exclusion Act (1882)
✓ Explore the dynamics of cultural discrimination
✓ Assess the role of the U.S. Government in immigration actions/legislation

Time: 1–2 class periods

Materials: Access to web sites
Copies of “The Magic Washer” and Chinese Exclusion Act (1882)

Procedures:

1. Provide students with copies of The Magic Washer. (Source: Library of Congress)

Teacher Background Information
(Don’t immediately reveal this information to students.)
This is a soap advertisement from the late 1800s.

Printed text at bottom of poster:

Printed text at top of the poster:
“TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN: This is a Liquid Washing Compound and is FULLY GUARANTEED BETTER THAN ANYTHING EVER OFFERED TO THE PUBLIC: Its constant use will not injure the clothes nor turn them yellow. For sale by One Gallon, Half-gallon and Quart. TRY A SAMPLE AND BE SURPRISED.”

Handwriting at bottom:
“We have no use for them since we got this WONDERFUL WASHER: What a blessing to tired mothers. It costs so little and don’t [sic] injure the clothes.”

The Proclamation reads:
“To All whom it may concern. Hereafter no family will be without Magic Washer. Under penalty of being dirty.”
Ask the students these questions:

a. What is the purpose of this picture?
b. Who are the key people?
c. What actions are taking place?
d. Is the tone of action positive or negative?
   Identify objects in the picture. Why are they included? Are these objects symbolic?
e. What feelings regarding Chinese are displayed?
f. Why is there obvious prejudice against Chinese in the U.S.?
g. Identify stereotypes depicted in the poster.
h. Create a title that captures the meaning of this picture.
i. Write a short summary of the information presented in this poster.

2. Have students share their interpretations of this advertisement. Reveal the information from #1 to students. Discuss which aspects of the "soap ad" were identified by the students.

Extension of discussion:
What is the irony of Chinese being thrown out from this Magic Washer advertisement? (Note for students that some Chinese found ownership of laundries as a path to the "American dream.")

Consult the following source for description of Chinese laundries in San Diego:

3. Additional readings in #5 provide information about Chinese immigration and the role of Chinese in the United States. Students should not think that laundries were the only outlet for Chinese engagement.

Read this paragraph to students:

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That from and after the expiration of ninety days next after the passage of this act, and until the expiration of ten years next after the passage of this act, the coming of Chinese laborers to the United States be, and the same is hereby, suspended; and during such suspension it shall not be lawful for any Chinese laborer to come, or having so come after the expiration of said ninety days to remain within the United States.

Ask students to ascertain what the U.S. Government planned for Chinese and why this legislation was passed. If students do not identify the source of this paragraph, explain that it is part of the Chinese Exclusion Act (1882).
4. Provide students with handout, Chinese Exclusion Act (1882), and read. Have students develop a list of facts about Chinese in the U.S. as indicated by this document.

Possible answers:
a. Chinese are no longer welcome in the U.S.
b. Law will take effect in 90 days.
c. Chinese already in U.S. as of the 17th day of November, 1880, are exempt from the Exclusion Act.
d. Punishment of any master of any vessel who brings Chinese into the U.S.
e. Exceptions for those on vessels arriving under conditions of distress or in stress of weather—but Chinese on board must leave with vessel.
f. Act applies to laborers.
g. Government personnel will keep registry books with identification of Chinese in U.S. and issue certificates for individuals who leave and re-enter the United States.
h. Chinese government may identify individuals (other than laborers) who may enter the United States.
i. Fine and imprisonment for anyone who commits forgery or creates fraudulent certificates.
j. Master of any vessel must have list of all Chinese aboard if it enters U.S. port.
k. Anyone who knowingly aids or abets unlawful entry of Chinese will be fined and imprisoned.
l. Act does not apply to diplomats and other officers of the Chinese Government.
m. No citizenship for Chinese in the U.S.
n. A Chinese "laborer" refers to both skilled and unskilled laborers and Chinese miners.
o. This is a very comprehensive act directly applied to one specific ethnicity.

Discuss the facts collected by students. What general conclusions can be made about the treatment of Chinese in the U.S.?

5. Use the Chinese Exclusion Act as a jump-off to a study of immigration, history of Chinese in United States, and/or an analysis of prejudice in U.S. society.

Sources available:
a. A History of Chinese Americans in California
   http://www.nps.gov/history/history/online_books/5views3d.htm
b. Excellent collection of articles with primary documents.
   http://www.harpweek.com/
   (Click on The Chinese-American Experience: 1857-1892)
c. The Strange Case of the Chinese Laundry
   Interesting short background about case Yick Wo v. Hopkins
   http://www.pbs.org/wnet/historyofus/web08/segment6.html
Extension Activities:

1. Divide students into groups to debate the constitutionality of the Chinese Exclusion Act (1882) as a case presented before the Supreme Court.

Create the following groups:

   a. Lawyers who represent Chinese laborers challenging the constitutionality of the Chinese Exclusion Act

   b. Lawyers representing the U.S. government

   c. Members of the Supreme Court who support the constitutionality of the Act

   d. Members of the Supreme Court who oppose the Act

Have lawyers present their arguments before the justices.

Justices should present their opinions orally. Have students portraying the justices determine at some point what their final vote will be. Oral opinions will reflect this outcome.

2. Have students explore the history of immigration in the United States. Identify prejudices reflected by treatment, legislation, cultural landscapes, and interaction of groups with each wave of immigration.
The Siege of the Legations:
Lou Henry Hoover (as First Lady)
### Gallery of Entertainment: Cartoons

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Who is in the cartoon? (Name the characters)</th>
<th>“The New Diplomacy”</th>
<th>“Putting His Foot Down”</th>
<th>“Well, I hardly know which to take first”</th>
<th>“Unprepared--doesn’t have to fight”</th>
<th>“The most unkindest cut of all”</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What countries do you recognize?</td>
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<tr>
<td>What is happening in the cartoon?</td>
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<td>When was the cartoon drawn?</td>
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<tr>
<td>What historical incident is portrayed?</td>
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<td>What is the tone of the cartoon?</td>
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<td>Theme or message of the cartoon</td>
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"A Journey Shared: The United States and China"
Fill in the Blanks

1. Two of the largest and most powerful nations in the world today are ____________and _________________.

2. Americans wanted _______________, ________, and _________________.

3. The first ship to travel from the new United States to China was “________________________.”

4. American traders were confined to tiny trading islands outside the city of _________________.

5. In 1844, Caleb Cushing negotiated the Treaty of _________________.

6. In 1879, ______________________ was China’s leading diplomat.

7. Chinese society was based on the teachings of _________________.

8. By 1900, the United States was gaining control of the ________________, ________________, and _________________.

9. John Hay proposed an “________________________” policy to stop the partition of China and to keep her ports open to U.S. merchants.

10. The Society of Right and Harmonious Fists, or “________________________,” rose against the foreign influences they saw corruption Chinese society.

11. Diplomats barricaded the legation quarter in ________________ and resisted for 55 days until foreign troops arrived.

12. The leader of the new Chinese government was _______________________.

13. After Sun’s death in 1925, _______________________ won control of the Government by joining forces with the warlords and throwing out the _______________________.

14. The ___________________ and the ___________________ kept fighting even after ________________ invaded Manchuria.
15. To escape, in 1934, the communists traveled 6,000 miles across China during the _______________. Their leader was ____________________.

16. Diplomat O. Edmund Clubb reported that ________________ not ________________ was the breeding ground of revolution in China.

17. President Franklin D. Roosevelt sent _________________ to China in 1938.

18. In 1943, diplomats _________________ and _________________ warned Washington that it was dangerous to give aid to one side in the _________________.

19. The small group of military observers sent to Mao's headquarters in Yenan called themselves the “__________________.”

20. On February 9, 1950, ____________________________ accused 205 State Department diplomats of being communist sympathizers and traitors to the United States.

**Short Answer**

1. Name at least three individuals who have served as Secretaries of State.

2. What is a WHITE PAPER?

3. What is a legation?

4. Explain the word “EXILE”

5. What is a consulate?

6. What does it mean to be “interned?”

7. What is a Nationalist?

8. What did Benjamin Franklin believe about China?

9. What were the Enlightenment principles?

10. Who was the leader of the Chinese Communist Party during the “Long March?”
Li Hung-chang met with American officials, including former President Ulysses S. Grant, to ask for help against Japan and Russia and the Europeans. Discuss the reasons why Grant and others refused to help.

“McCarthyism” was a term referring to Senator Joseph McCarthy and his role in routing out Communists. How did this movement affect the United States and the general public?

Presidential candidate Adlai Stevenson said “The United States must never be in a position—now or in the future—when another country can make its foreign policy. The great mistake we have made in the Far East in respect to Chiang Kai-shek, is that we have permitted him to involve us in matters which were not, in my judgment, proper for us to be involved in: the Chinese civil war.” Since this event, has the United States been involved in another country’s civil war?
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<tr>
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<th>Document #1</th>
<th>Document #2</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Writers of the Document</strong></td>
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<td><strong>To Whom is the Document Addressed?</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Stated Grievances</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Tone of Reading</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Remedy (if any)</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Any portion of the document of particular interest or needing clarification</strong></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

“A Journey Shared: The United States and China”
The Siege of the Legations

Graphic Organizer for Letter of Lou Henry Hoover, August 8, 1900

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>My Knowledge About the Time Period</th>
<th>Vocabulary to Review</th>
<th>Names and Places to Research</th>
<th>Facts About the Writer</th>
<th>Tone of Letter (Cite specific lines)</th>
<th>Quotes for Discussion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

“A Journey Shared: The United States and China”
Guided Listening Activity

Note: Active listening or reading, coupled with oral and written instructional strategies, can have a positive impact on learning. The process of active listening or reading must be practiced, in order to develop skill in retaining information and ideas that are heard or read. This can be enhanced through guided activities.

A teacher can guide listening and reading by selecting specific names, terms, events, or concepts that appear in source materials. Students can use these to focus on information and ideas that the teacher identifies as important for them to know and understand. The content selected can be a springboard for subsequent instructional and assessment activities.

Two resources included in the instructional packet can support guided listening and reading. They are the DVD Script, which is a complete record of the DVD narration, and the Glossary of names and terms used in the DVD. One section of the Glossary includes definitions of terms related to government, foreign affairs, and diplomacy. The other section lists locations, historical and contemporary figures, historical terms and events, and other terms related to the topic of the DVD.

By using the DVD Script and the Glossary, a teacher can develop pre-video activities, pre- or post-video assessments, or active listening or reading assignments for the students to use while viewing the video or reading the DVD Script.

Standard: The Standard supported will depend on the content selected for the activity

Grade Level: 7–12

Objectives: The student will:

-  Develop listening and recognition skills
-  Build vocabulary with names and terms related to the video content
-  Identify key locations, people, events, and policies
-  Relate key names and terms to each other and to a larger context

Time: Variable

Materials: DVD script
          Glossary
          DVD

Procedures:

1. Review the Glossary to select locations, people, events, groups, policies, or advances in technology for a particular guided activity.

   Optional: Review the DVD Script to select other vocabulary to include in a particular guided activity.

2. Using the DVD Script and Glossary, prepare a response sheet that lists the names or terms for a particular guided activity.

   a. Place the names or terms in the same order as they appear in the video.

   b. Leave sufficient space for students to write a definition or description, or to make notes about each name or term.

3. Convey to the students the purpose of the guided activity and provide them with the directions they are to follow.
4. Show the video or have the students read the DVD Script and direct them to complete the guided activity response sheet.

Note: More than one guided activity can be prepared, with each one having a different focus.

Extension Activities:

1. Implement the basic lesson procedures, but supplement with these modifications.
   a. Before watching the DVD or reading the DVD Script, have students identify, either orally or in writing, what they know about each of the glossary names or terms that have been selected for the activity. Make notes about what they report.
   b. After viewing the video or reading the DVD Script, have students respond again, and compare the two responses.
   c. Ask students to describe, either orally or in writing, how their knowledge or understanding of a particular glossary name or term changed after viewing the DVD or reading the DVD Script. Have them offer reasons for the change.

2. Implement the basic lesson procedures, but supplement with these modifications.
   a. Prepare more than one list, using different glossary names or terms to establish a distinct focus for each list. Distribute the lists to students in a way that will allow for groups to be formed.
   b. After viewing the video or reading the DVD Script, form groups that include either students with the same glossary list or students with a number of different lists.
   c. Have students in each group present and discuss their responses to all of the names or terms on their lists. Ask the groups to arrive at a common response for each one.
   d. Have each group present their responses to the class. Through class discussion, arrive at a common description or definition for each name or term.
   e. Write down the common descriptions or definitions and make them available to the students. Use them with future instructional and assessment activities.

3. Implement the basic lesson procedures, but supplement with these modifications.
   a. Select a number of Glossary names or terms, and write one or more open-ended questions for each one.
   b. Prepare a response sheet listing the names or terms and questions in the same order as they appear in the DVD Script. Leave sufficient space for students to respond to each question, or have them record responses in a notebook.
   c. Distribute the response sheets to all students, or assign each student specific names or terms and questions.
d. After viewing the video or reading the DVD Script, have students present their responses either in small groups, class discussion, or in written reports.

4. Implement the basic lesson procedures, but supplement with these modifications.

a. Select a number of Glossary names or terms. For each set of two or more, write a compare/contrast or cause/effect question.

b. Distribute the names or terms and the questions to students in a way that will allow for groups to be formed.

c. After viewing the video or reading the DVD Script, form groups that include either students with the same names or terms and questions, or students with different names or terms and questions.

d. Have students in each group present, compare, and discuss their individual responses. Ask the groups to arrive at a common response for each question.

e. Have each group present to the class its response for each question. Through class discussion, arrive at a common response for each question.

f. Write down the common responses and make them available to the students. Use them with future instructional and assessment activities.
Hutongs and Modernization:
The Cultural Landscapes of China

Standard:
II. Time, Continuity, and Change
III. People, Places, and Environments
VI. Power, Authority, and Governance

Grade Level: 9–12

Objectives: The student will:
✓ Recognize the relevance of hutongs to the traditional Chinese landscape
✓ Determine the impact of modernization on China’s traditional way of life
✓ Assess the extent of a clash between traditional and modern landscapes

Time: 1–2 class periods

Materials: Access to web sites and/or
Copies of the articles and pictures

Procedures:

1. Read or display this quote from *Behind the Wall* by Colin Thubron:

“I abandoned the avenues and slipped down side-streets into a maze-world of alleys and courtyards. These hutongs are still the living flesh of Beijing, and once you are inside them it shrinks to a sprawling hamlet. The lanes are a motley of blank walls and doorways, interspersed by miniature factories and restaurants. Each street is a decrepit improvisation on the last. Tiled roofs curve under rotting eaves. The centuries shore each other up. Modern brick walls, already crumbling, enclose ancient porches whose doors of beaten tin or lacerated pinewood swing in carved stone frames. Underfoot the tarmac peals away from the huge, worn paving-slabs of another age, and the traffic thins to a tinkling slipstream of pedicabs and bicycles.”


2. Have students react by describing the mental image the quote creates. Possible questions if mental images do not emerge:
   a. What is it like to live in a hutong?
   b. Describe the types of buildings—homes and businesses.
   c. Justify the impressions of antiquity or modernization.
   d. Does the author have a negative or positive image of this hutong? Cite evidence from the quote.

3. Show photos of hutongs from these sites:
This site has many photos. Be sure to intersperse photos of traditional hutongs with those replaced by more modern buildings and neighborhoods.

   This site is one of many presented by Beijing travel agencies. If this link does not work, a multitude of sites are available. The purpose of showing photos from one of these links is to illustrate that tourism has become a significant part of remaining hutong life. Reporters at the 2008 Olympics televised their hutong tours.

c. YouTube has several “tours” of hutongs from different viewpoints, mostly opposed to their destruction.

Have students record their impressions of hutong life while viewing the photos. How do these impressions compare/contrast with previous discussions.

4. Provide historical background about Beijing’s hutongs.
   Many articles are available online.

5. Provide information about Beijing’s changing landscape.
   Many articles are available online.

6. Divide class into three groups and provide each a specific role (or create additional groups with the assigned roles going to more than one group). Have each group portray their involvement with hutongs.
   a. Resident of hutong for 50 years. Own and operate a barber shop.
   b. Travel agent who sends tours to hutongs.
   c. Entrepreneur with visions of apartments, shops, and hotels on land cleared of hutongs.

   Share verbal or written reactions.

7. Discussion Topics:
   a. What is the value of maintaining traditional landscapes vs. the modernization of landscapes?
      
      *Note: Obviously this is not an issue found only in China, but a dilemma facing many countries.*

   b. Have students discuss this issue in relation to their own communities. Is it possible to maintain a balance of traditional and modern landscapes?

   c. Each society has a cultural identity. Does change in the actual landscape diminish the identity of people?
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Names of Stores Visited</th>
<th>Specific Products</th>
<th>Names of Other Countries Encountered</th>
<th>U.S.-made Products (Identify product)</th>
<th>Difficulty From 1-5 (1=Easy)</th>
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</thead>
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<td>Apparel</td>
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A Journey Shared: The United States and China
Learning About China

**Americans Raised in China** The children of missionaries often used their unique experiences to foster improved U.S.-China relations. Some harnessed their talents as writers and educators to bring a more vibrant image of China to a wide audience of American citizens. Authors, including Nobel Prize winner Pearl S. Buck, wrote novels that served as a window into Chinese life and culture. Journalist Henry Luce launched high profile magazines, such as *Time* and *Life*, which helped to rally support in the United States for China's fight against Japan.

Other missionary children used their background in China to help shape the broader U.S.-China relationship by joining the diplomatic service. John Leighton Stuart served as the last U.S. Ambassador to Beijing prior to 1949, and career diplomat John S. Service argued in favor of U.S. neutrality in China's civil war and recognition of the People's Republic of China (PRC) when it was established. Arthur Hummel, Jr. and James Lilley both became Ambassadors to China after normalization. The legacy of the missionaries far outlived the heyday of their activity.

By the 1920s, some Americans traveling to China used their first-hand knowledge to advocate on China's behalf. Edgar Snow, for example, came to China in 1928 while on a journey around the world. After landing a position as a journalist in Shanghai, he remained in the country for the next 13 years, developing a reputation as one of the best reporters on events in China. In 1936, he became the first American to meet with Communist leaders Mao Zedong and Zhou Enlai at their remote mountain camp of Yan'an. In search of adventure, Helen Foster (later Helen Foster Snow) traveled to Shanghai in 1931 to work at the U.S. consulate and file reports for U.S. newspapers. Over the next decade, she took full advantage of her extraterritorial privileges as a foreigner to study and write about China, promote nationalistic causes that could lead to the restoration of Chinese sovereignty, and make her own journey to visit the Communists in 1937. Together with a number of other journalists and scholars, the Snows formed the core of a group that exerted a tremendous influence on U.S. perceptions of China.

**Chinese Studies** The study of China in the United States also took off during the 1930s. In the early 1930s, a young historian named John King Fairbank arrived in China, and spent five years studying Chinese, gathering materials, and learning from Chinese academics steeped in their own history, archaeology, and literature, many of whom had studied in the United States. After returning to teach at Harvard University in 1936, Fairbank spent most of his career creating and developing the field of Chinese history and working to improve relations between the two nations. At roughly the same time, a scholar named Laurence Sickman traveled to China to acquire art for the Nelson-Atkins Museum of Art in Kansas City. The knowledge he developed in China would serve as the basis for the study of Chinese art history in the United States.

War and upheaval in China during the 1920s and 1930s led American collectors to build their collections through sometimes unscrupulous means. If there was a positive outcome, it was that the hundreds of thousands of Americans who visited museums across the country gained a greater awareness of China's rich history and cultural refinement. The more favorable opinions towards the Chinese inspired by the museum exhibitions were crucial to improving U.S.-China relations in the late 1930s and beyond.
1. Unofficial diplomats such as Pearl S. Buck enhanced Americans’ knowledge about China and the Chinese people. She wrote many books but is particularly recognized for her book, *The Good Earth*. Read the book *Imperial Woman* by Pearl Buck. Research the life of the Dowager Empress.

2. Research the reasons why the Forbidden City was “forbidden.” Construct an argument for or against foreigners entering the Forbidden City.

3. Create a persuasive essay for the analysis of Mark Twain and Pearl Buck as “educational” writers of their time.


5. Create a bibliography of books on Chinese art. Check this against your school’s library and art faculty. Share the bibliography with your school’s library and art faculty.

FROM THE OPEN DOOR TO THE CHINESE CIVIL WAR

200 Years of History

A JOURNEY SHARED: THE UNITED STATES & CHINA

Learning About China
A Journey Shared:
The United States & China

The Siege of the Legations:
Marines in relief party, Peiping, China, 1900

Photo: National Archives, RG 127: Records of the U.S. Marine Corps, 1775-9999, ARC Identifier 532580
A Journey Shared:
The United States & China

“Made in China:”
Trade between the United States and China

Standard:
II. Time, Continuity, and Change
VI. Power, Authority, and Governance
VII. Production, Distribution, and Consumption
IX. Global Connections

Grade Level: 9–12

Objectives: The student will:
✓ Compare and contrast trade patterns between the U.S. and China
✓ Determine the relevance of historic events to changes in trade
✓ Assess the current economic relationship between the U.S. and China

Time: 1–4 class periods

Materials: Access to web sites
Handouts

Procedures:

1. Provide students with handout, U.S. Trade in Goods (Imports, Exports and Trade Balance) with China. Prior to discussion, have students record their impressions of the trade relationship between the United States and China.

   Possible answers: United States has trade deficit, imports have increased dramatically, rapid industrial growth of China, steady increase of Chinese imports—no interruption of growth, problems exist with United States (whether a trade deficit is good or bad could be potential part of future discussions), Communist government’s management of Chinese economy.

   Discuss the impressions the students have of U.S. trade with China.

2. Introduce and/or clarify the following terms: trade deficit, import, export, protectionism, free trade, subsidies, capitalism, communism, and socialism.

3. Introduce/review significant events, people, and decisions that have had an impact on China’s economy. Assign topics among students—individually or in groups.

   Note: Websites are assigned for convenience; many sites are available.

   a. Purposes of Five-Year Plans during 1950s and 1960s
   http://www.china.org.cn/features/guideline/node_1156529.htm
b. Great Leap Forward (part of 2nd Five-Year Plan) and formation of communes
   http://www.historylearningsite.co.uk/great_leap_forward.htm

c. Sino-Soviet split
   http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sino–Soviet_split (adequate source for this topic)

d. Impact of Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution
   http://encarta.msn.com/encyclopedia_761580637/cultural_revolution.html

e. Role of Deng Xiaoping—reforms after 1979

f. China’s recent reforms
   http://www.sfgate.com/cgi-bin/article.cgi?f=/c/a/2006/12/17/BUGQOMV4PE1.DTL

Have students/groups list the significant points of each topic on newsprint or on the board. Determine the positive and/or negative effects of each on the economic development of China.

4. Revisit the handout, *U.S. Trade in Goods (Imports, Exports and Trade Balance)* with China. What evidence do students have to validate the significant growth of China’s economy?

5. Discuss the issue of trade with China from the perspective of the U.S. Should there be concern about increased dependence on products from China? What effects does China’s economic growth have worldwide?

**Potential sources of information:**

   Raises the issues surrounding food imported from China to the United States.

   Article is brief, but introduces China’s dramatic increase in oil imports.

   Other issues are identified.

6. Provide students with handout, *Imports From China* (chart).

   *Note: Teachers often use the strategies of (a) students identifying countries on labels of clothing and/or (b) students finding items at home or in stores with names of producing countries. Generally this is done to emphasize the impact of globalization.*

This chart is based specifically on items that are in the top ten U.S. imports from China. Exactly what the top ten product categories are varies from source to source and the arrangement from 1-10 varies as well. However, the eight categories on this chart appear in all sources. The purpose of this activity is for students to realize the vast array of products exported from China to the U.S.

Have students work individually or in groups. Allow several days for collection of chart information.
7. Discuss findings from chart, *Imports From China*.
   a. How easy/difficult was it to find Chinese imports?
   b. Which items were found quickly? Which items were most difficult to locate?
   c. Are there more Chinese imports than from any other country?
   d. How many countries identified are in Asia?
   e. What other regions of the world were found as origins of imports?
   f. What percentage of items are U.S. made?
   g. Which categories have the most items found?
   h. What conclusions can be drawn from these findings?
# Mapping Revolutionary China, 1900-1949

**Standard:**  
II. Time, Continuity, and Change  
III. People, Places, and Environment  
V. Individuals, Groups, and Institutions  
VI. Power, Authority, and Governance

**Grade Level:** 9–12

**Objectives:** The student will:  
- Evaluate the changing occupation of the physical terrain of China  
- Chronicle the eventual success of the communist party in the civil war  
- Determine the major geographic regions and cities affected by Japanese occupation and civil war

**Time:** 1–2 class periods

**Materials:** Access to web site:  
http://www.dean.usma.edu/history/web03/atlas/chinese%20civil%20war/chinese%20civil%20war%20index.htm  
Copies or visual display of maps from the site

**Procedures:**

1. Divide students into groups and assign each group a map or have all groups deal with the complete set of maps.  
   - **Map 1:** China, 1900-1949, Warlords, 1925  
   - **Map 2:** China, 1900-1949, Nationalist China, 1928-1937  
   - **Map 3:** China, 1900-1949, The Long March, 1934-1935  
   - **Map 4:** China, 1900-1949, Japanese Occupation, 1940  
   - **Map 5:** China, 1900-1949, The Situation at the End of World War II  
   - **Map 6:** China, 1900-1949, Chiang Kai-shek’s Strategy, 1947  
   - **Map 7:** China, 1900-1949, Communist Offensives, September 1948-November 1948  
   - **Map:** China, 1900-1949, Communist Offensives, November 1948-January 1949  
   - **Map 9:** China, 1900-1949, Communist Offensives, April 1949-October 1949  

2. Have all students identify these locations on maps.  
   Kunming, Canton (now Guangzhou), Shanghai, Nanjing, Beijing (was Peking), Yan’an, Chengdu, Yangtze River, Yellow River.
3. Provide students with access to online sources. Have them answer questions about assigned maps.

a. **Map 1**
   What was a warlord? Determine the influence of warlords during this era. How difficult was it to unify these warlords? Why has the **Kuomintang** (Nationalist Party) allied itself with warlords in the south? What might be the strategic reason for such an action?

b. **Map 2**
   Why did the Nationalist Party set its sights on this location? Note that the prior map indicated Nationalists’ control of small southern sections. What is significant geographically about this location of the newly proclaimed Nationalist China?

c. **Map 3**
   What was the Long March? What was the situation between the Communists and Nationalists? Why did the Communists choose Yanan for their destination? Determine the type of physical terrain traversed by the Communists during this march. What was the status of the Communists at this point in the Civil War?

d. **Maps 4 and 5**
   Determine when and why the Japanese occupied China. Why were these particular sections of China targeted? Relate the story of the “Rape of Nanking.” How much of China was occupied by the end of World War II? What evidence exists that the Chinese Civil War continued during the war? What is the status of the Nationalists at the end of World War II? Which areas appear to be strongholds of the Communists?

e. **Map 6**
   What is the strategy of the KMT (**Kuomintang**)? What are the strategic manifestations of this phase of the Civil War? What key cities were held by the Nationalists? What is the role of the United States at this point?

f. **Maps 7,8, and 9**
   What has enabled the Communists to take the offensive in the Civil War? What strategies were used? Ultimately, what happens to the Nationalists? What is the response of the United States?

4. Prepare a power point presentation or transparencies to portray the maps while students share and discuss their findings.

Extension Activity

Determine status today of Taiwan and China. What is the relationship between the two? How has the role of the U.S. changed since 1949?
Sources for information:

- Congressional Research Service Report for Congress: Taiwan: Recent Developments And U.S. Policy Choices, Updated August 5, 2008

- Articles about current president of Taiwan, Ma Ying-jeou, to assess most recent diplomatic efforts.
Reno NV FEB 11 1139A

THE PRESIDENT

THE WHITE HOUSE

IN A LINCOLN DAY SPEECH AT WHEELING THURSDAY NIGHT

I STATED THAT THE STATE DEPARTMENT HARBORS A NEST OF COMMUNISTS AND COMMUNIST SYMPATHIZERS WHO ARE HELPING TO SHAPE OUR FOREIGN POLICY. I FURTHER STATED THAT I HAVE IN MY POSSESSION THE NAMES OF 57 COMMUNISTS WHO ARE IN THE STATE DEPARTMENT AT PRESENT. A STATE DEPARTMENT SPOKESMAN

FURTHER DENIED THIS AND CLAIMED THAT THERE IS NOT A SINGLE COMMUNIST IN THE DEPARTMENT. YOU CAN CONVINCING YOURSELF OF THE FALSITY OF THE STATE DEPARTMENT CLAIM VERY EASILY.

YOU WILL RECALL THAT YOU PERSONALLY APPOINTED A BOARD TO SCREEN STATE DEPARTMENT EMPLOYEES FOR THE PURPOSE OF WEEDING OUT FELLOW TRAVELERS. YOUR BOARD DID A PAINS-TAKING JOB, AND NAMED HUNDREDS WHICH IT LISTED AS "DANGEROUS TO THE SECURITY OF THE NATION", BECAUSE OF COMMUNISTIC CONNECTIONS.

WHILE THE RECORDS ARE NOT AVAILABLE TO ME, I KNOW
Appendix A: Telegram from Senator Joseph McCarthy to President Harry S. Truman

TO THE SECRETARY FOR DISCHARGE, HE ACTUALLY DISCHARGED ONLY APPROXIMATELY 50. I UNDERSTAND THAT THIS WAS DONE AFTER LENGTHY CONSULTATION WITH ALGER HISS. I WOULD SUGGEST THEREFORE, MR. PRESIDENT, THAT YOU SIMPLY PICK UP YOUR PHONE AND ASK MR. ACHESON HOW MANY OF THOSE WHOM YOUR BOARD HAD LABELED AS DANGEROUS, HE FAILED TO DISCHARGE.

THE DAY THE HOUSE UN-AMERICAN ACTIVITIES COMMITTEE EXPOSED ALGER HISS AS AN IMPORTANT LINK IN AN INTERNATIONAL COMMUNIST SPY RING, YOU SIGNED AN ORDER FORBIDDING THE

STATE DEPARTMENTS GIVING TO THE CONGRESS ANY INFORMATION IN REGARD TO THE DISLOYALTY OR THE COMMUNISTIC CONNECTIONS OF ANYONE IN THAT DEPARTMENT, DESPITE THIS STATE DEPARTMENT BLACKOUT, WE HAVE BEEN ABLE TO COMPILE A LIST OF 57 COMMUNISTS IN THE STATE DEPARTMENT. THIS LIST IS AVAILABLE TO YOU, BUT YOU CAN GET A MUCH LONGER LIST BY ORDERING THE SECRETARY ACHESON TO GIVE YOU A LIST OF THOSE WHOM YOUR OWN BOARD LISTED AS BEING DISLOYAL, AND WHO ARE STILL WORKING IN THE STATE DEPARTMENT. I BELIEVE THE FOLLOWING IS THE MINIMUM WHICH CAN BE EXPECTED OF YOU IN THIS CASE.
(1) That you demand that Acheson give you and the proper congressional committee the names and a complete report on all of those who were placed in the Department by Alger Hiss, and all of those still working in the State Department who were listed by your Board as bad security risks because of the Communist connections.

(2) That under no circumstances could a congressional committee obtain any information or help from the executive department in exposing Communists.

Failure on your part will label the Democratic Party of being the bed-fellow of international Communism. Certainly this label is not deserved by the hundreds of thousands of loyal American Democrats throughout the nation, and by the sizable number of able loyal Democrats in both the Senate and the House.

Joe McCarthy U.S.S. WIS.


Origins to the End of the 19th Century

U.S. Merchants Look to China

Porcelain, Tea, and Silk
For most of the 17th and 18th centuries, Chinese trade goods symbolized luxury for wealthy Europeans and their American counterparts. However, the arduous Pacific crossing was filled with danger, and trading in China seemed almost impossibly difficult because the Qing Empire had no desire to open its doors to foreigners. As one Emperor proclaimed, China “needed nothing from the outside world.”

By the latter half of the 18th century, the “China trade” was well-established and was an integral part of the British mercantile system. American colonists could only obtain Chinese goods carried by the ships of the British East India Company and, in one notable incident, expressed their displeasure with British political control by dumping Chinese tea into Boston Harbor. After prevailing in their revolutionary struggle, these newly independent Americans found themselves cut off from British trade and Chinese trade goods. The preliminary peace treaty with England was signed in November 1782, and by March 1783, American merchants were already beginning to plan a U.S. trade mission to China.

The Empress of China
A new ship was built in 1783 in Boston, the Empress of China, and the mission was financed by several wealthy American merchants, including Robert Morris, who was known as the “Financier of the Revolution.” The investors filled the ship with the one thing that the Chinese wanted—ginseng. In all, about 30 tons of ginseng from western Pennsylvania and Virginia made up the bulk of the trading cargo, along with $18,000 in silver coin.

Major Samuel Shaw, former aide-de-camp to General Henry Knox, was chosen to take chief responsibility for the trading mission as the “supercargo” or business manager, and John Green was chosen as captain. The owners were aware of the importance of the mission and wrote formal instructions to Captain Green:

“It is earnestly recommended to you as well on board as on shore to cultivate the good will & friendship of all those with whom you may have dealing or connections. You will probably be the first who shall display the American Flag in those distant regions, and a regard to your own personal honor will induce you to render it respectable by integrity and benevolence in all your conduct and dealings; taking the proper precautions at the same time not to be yourself imposed on.”

Shaw and Green also carried a copy of the Declaration of Independence and copies of “several treaties made with different European powers,” presumably to prove that the United States really did exist. “You will show these things as occasion may require and avoiding all insult to others you will consult your own honor and that of the country whose commission you bear; if any are offered to you.” The owners also provided a “sea letter” from the U.S. Congress—just in case the Chinese required such formality.
After a journey of 18,000 miles, the Empress of China sailed up the Pearl River and into Guangzhou (Canton) on August 28, 1784, and the United States formally entered the China trade.

Upon their arrival, Shaw and Green found that foreigners were confined to a tiny, claustrophobic district within Guangzhou, where they were allowed to reside for only short times during the year. Most of the time, they lived in the Portuguese colony of Macao. As Samuel Shaw wrote in his diary, “Europeans, after a dozen years’ residence, have not seen more than what the first month presented to view.” Contact was restricted to a small group of Chinese firms, or hong, which were responsible for the housing and behavior of the foreigners with whom they traded. Each hong merchant received a special, temporary imperial license to interact with foreigners and reported to the Chief of Customs. The Americans became the clients of Puankehequa, one of the ablest of the hong merchants.

Samuel Shaw was impressed with the little he was able to see of China and wrote: “All we know with certainty respecting the empire of China is, that it has long existed—a striking evidence of the wisdom of its government, and still continues the admiration of the world.” Shaw also admired his hong partners, describing them as “intelligent, exact accountants, punctual to their engagements.”

The trading mission was a success, and on December 28, 1784, the Empress of China set sail for Hwa-Ke (“Flowery Flag”), the name the Chinese had given to the United States. The Chinese lit firecrackers to “awaken the gods to the vessel’s departure” and give them good sailing. The ship arrived back in New York on May 11, 1785, filled with tea, silks, “fine tea table china in sets,” and gunpowder.

The Government of the United States was pleased by the success of the voyage. Secretary of Foreign Affairs John Jay wrote of the “peculiar satisfaction” of the Congress upon the establishment of direct trade. Samuel Shaw was “honored by Congress with their commission of Consul at Canton,” and became the first American diplomatic representative to China, returning to China in 1786.

While the first voyage of the Empress of China returned a 25 percent profit, later merchants always wrestled with the difficulty of trade goods for China. The Chinese wanted silver, which was the basis of their monetary system, but U.S. merchants had only limited supplies of the precious metal. They found a market for the animal skins and ginseng root from the Northwest Territories and Appalachia, but the value of these did not equal that of the demand for tea and other Chinese goods in the United States.

Although U.S. merchants played only a small role in China’s foreign trade, some American traders did acquire substantial wealth. After only 5 or 10 years in the Far East, they generally returned with well over $100,000, more than enough to retire in comfort. U.S. companies were generally family-run affairs, led by men such as John Cushing, brothers John Murray and Robert Bennet Forbes, and Warren Delano, Jr., the grandfather of future President Franklin Delano Roosevelt.

China traders played a key role in expanding American awareness of China through their collections of art and artifacts. For example, during his 12 years in China—and with the help of his Chinese counterparts—Philadelphia merchant Nathan Dunn assembled a collection of 1,200 items, ranging from paintings, ceramics, and bronzes, to furniture, botanical specimens, and items for daily use. After he returned to his native city, in 1839 he displayed the collection in a “Chinese Museum.” Dunn intended to give visitors a window on Chinese life by dividing the exhibit hall into rooms and cases that displayed objects in replicas of their original settings, complete with statues of Chinese people. More than 100,000 people passed through the exhibit before it closed in 1841 and was moved to London. Exhibits such as Dunn’s sparked an interest in collecting—and even studying—Chinese art, which later flourished at the turn of the century.

Some of the China traders developed close ties with the hong merchants, who themselves were tremendously wealthy. For example, when one hong merchant, Howqua, wanted to invest some of his $50 million fortune in the United States, he turned to the Forbes brothers. They managed his investments through their positions with a leading U.S. firm, Russell & Co., and paid dividends of $40,000 a year to Howqua and his descendents for decades.
ILLEGAL TRADE
The British smuggled Indian opium into China and used the silver earned from that trade for their legitimately traded goods. Most American traders joined the illicit opium trade after 1810, with the notable exception of Olyphant & Co., which abstained, due to the strict moral code of its partners, David W.C. Olyphant and Charles W. King.

While illegal activities greatly increased profits, opium smuggling provoked the first major conflict between China and Great Britain. In 1839, the Qing court objected to the impact of opium on Chinese society and sent Commissioner Lin Zexu to Guangzhou to eradicate the trade. Lin ordered the British merchants to surrender their opium stocks and then destroyed the seized drugs, sparking fighting between the two sides. American merchants avoided the conflict and were able to profit during the early stages, by serving as go-betweens for British firms forced to leave Guangzhou for Macao.

LATER TRADE RELATIONS
It was not until the 1840s that the Treaties of Nanjing and Wangxia replaced the Canton system with the treaty port system, dramatically expanding trading relations. The agreements authorized the opening of four new treaty ports—Fuzhou, Xiamen (Amoy), Ningbo, and Shanghai—and provided for equal access to trade for all nations. Foreigners were now subject only to the laws that their own consular officials would enforce. Subsequent agreements added more cities to the list of open ports, some of them on China's inland rivers.

During the second half of the 19th century, Shanghai became the center of trade activity. Foreigners held rights of ownership and jurisdiction in Shanghai's large concessions, which the Qing Government initially supported on the grounds that they would keep the foreigners contained. More importantly, Chinese subjects constituted the vast majority of the population in the foreign concessions, and provided all of the labor and at least some of the capital. As a result, Shanghai reflected a fluid mixture of Western and Chinese influences and emerged as the most cosmopolitan city in China.

The Chinese developed complex opinions of the American citizens in their midst. On one hand, the low profile of American merchants, coupled with some cooperative business ventures with Chinese middlemen, contributed to a positive view of Americans. In one case during the 1860s, the American firm, Russell & Co., joined with several Chinese investors to purchase steamships for inland trade on the Yangtze River and along the coast. For a time, this venture dominated the internal China trade. On the other hand, however, many Chinese developed a sense of resentment and humiliation at the poor treatment they received from some U.S. merchants who, to them, seemed barely civilized. Dismissive attitudes on both sides prevented negotiations that might have promoted better, more
1. At the turn of the 18th century, one Qing Emperor proclaimed, China “needed nothing from the outside world.” Today, in the twenty-first century, how true would you say that this statement is? Defend or argue your position.

2. The British East India Company was a great asset to the British Empire. Investigate its origins and its trading routes. Analyze the impact it had for the colonies before the Revolutionary War.

3. A “sea letter” was provided from the U.S. Congress to Major Samuel Shaw on the first trading mission. Research the elements contained in a “sea letter.”

4. Investigate other nations trading with China at the time of 1784.

5. Read the accounts of Major Samuel Shaw’s journal. Explain why the Chinese had difficulty in distinguishing the English from the Americans.

6. The technology associated with shipbuilding at this time was on the rise. Research the changing shipbuilding technology with regard to the Clipper ship.

7. Tea was the drink of the Americans and the British at this time. How much tea was exported by ships trading in Canton at this time? Where in China is it grown?

8. Tea has its own science. Research the different kinds of tea brought back to the United States. Compare the kinds of tea brought back to the United States. Have a tea tasting within your class. Have several kinds for others to sample. Is there a favorite amongst the selections served?

9. Research the Lipton Tea Company and the Twinings Tea Company. Compare and contrast beginnings, tea costs, and customers. Take a poll of your class to see how many students are tea drinkers. Take a poll of the teachers in your school. Post results in the school newspaper.
Military and Wartime Relations

Military developments drew Americans and Chinese closer together. United States support for China increased dramatically soon after the outbreak of the second Sino-Japanese War (1937–45). After Japan launched an all-out offensive in China in the summer of 1937, American popular opinion shifted overwhelmingly in China’s favor. Over the next few years, the U.S. Government extended aid to the Nationalist Government, first through credits for purchases and then through the Lend-Lease program. At the same time, it increased pressure on Japan, ultimately enacting an embargo after Japan expanded its military offensive into Southeast Asia. Individual Americans also made important contributions to the Chinese war effort. When the Japanese Army rampaged through Nanjing in late 1937, a German businessman formed the International Committee for the Nanjing Safety Zone to protect 200,000 Chinese citizens from the Japanese invaders. A group of American teachers, missionaries, and doctors—including Lewis Smythe, Miner Searle Bates, Wilhelmina “Minnie” Vautrin, Robert Wilson, and George Fitch—were crucial to this effort. In addition to providing food, medical care, and the protection afforded by their status as non-Chinese, they tried, with limited success, to raise international support for China by publicizing accounts and pictures of the Japanese assault on Nanjing.

While these Americans protected Chinese from the war, others launched a plan to help China fight it. In 1938, Helen Foster Snow, Edgar Snow, and a small group of other foreigners came up with a model for small Industrial Cooperatives (Indusco) that could be established with relative ease in remote areas, in order to produce supplies of crucial materials for the war effort. The Nationalist Government picked up on the plan immediately and provided initial funding for the project, and soon Communist leaders also adopted the idea. The organizers drew upon private donations from the United States and elsewhere to raise more funds, which were then funneled to individual cooperatives. While Chinese citizens did much of the work in establishing and spreading the cooperatives, and all of the work in running them, Indusco’s material and morale-boosting contributions proved essential to the war effort. Its spirit of cooperation and hard work even introduced a new term to the English language, “gung ho,” which was the Chinese name for the project.

American Combat Support

American aid also appeared in the form of direct combat involvement. Claire Lee Chennault, a retired Army Air Corps pilot, went to China in 1937 and became one of Jiang Jieshi’s military advisers. Together with Chinese officials, he soon began lobbying the U.S. Government for military supplies and support for the Nationalists’ resistance. In 1940, he finally achieved his goal when President Franklin D. Roosevelt gave 100 fighter planes to China and allowed Chennault to recruit pilots from among the U.S. military ranks to fly the planes and train Chinese pilots.
The American Volunteer Group, more popularly known as the Flying Tigers, began operations in late 1941, and had dramatic success against the more numerous Japanese planes. Based in Yunnan Province, they helped to keep the Burma Road open until 1942, so that supplies could continue to come in overland. The Flying Tigers also served as effective ambassadors for the United States, drawing the admiration of many Chinese for their aid in the fight against Japan. For example, soon after the war ended, the village of Xiangyun, in central Yunnan, erected a memorial honoring Lieutenant Robert Mooney, a pilot, who had been fatally wounded while driving off a squadron of Japanese planes, before crash landing just outside of town. Later destroyed during China’s Cultural Revolution (1966–76), the monument was rebuilt in the early 1990s.

Collaboration between the United States and China reached its zenith after Japan’s bombing of Pearl Harbor in 1941. The United States no longer had to limit its assistance to China and immediately engaged in a formal alliance to fight the common enemy. President Roosevelt sent General Joseph Stilwell, who had completed several tours of duty in China after World War I, to the wartime capital of Chongqing (Chungking) to serve as a military adviser to the Chinese Government and as the leader of United States forces in the region. Roosevelt funneled as much aid as possible to China to support the anti-Japanese resistance. Chennault was promoted to the rank of General, and the Flying Tigers were reorganized as part of the formal U.S. forces in China. Roosevelt also took the symbolic step of making China one of the Big Four allied powers of World War II and one of the ABCD powers (American, British, Chinese, Dutch) fighting Japan in Asia. In addition, in 1943, the United States abolished its exclusionary immigration laws and joined with Britain in ending extraterritoriality, and in recognizing China’s future sovereignty over Taiwan and Manchuria once Japan was defeated. The combination of U.S. supplies and training and Chinese military forces proved effective in keeping Japan tied down in the region. In the summer of 1944, the United States sent a small group of observers, “the Dixie Mission,” under the leadership of diplomat John S. Service, to Yan’an. Over several months, this group became favorably impressed with the discipline and organization of the Communist leadership and forces, and drew up several proposals for providing direct aid to the Communists. Jiang vehemently opposed such actions. Wedemeyer and Patrick Hurley, the new U.S. Ambassador, obliged Jiang and abandoned the plans.

Relations between China and the United States improved during the waning stages of World War II. The two countries shared in the victory when Japan surrendered in August 1945. Americans and Chinese could point to numerous examples of joint action in the course of waging the war, because the United States had been China’s strongest international ally throughout the long conflict. Perhaps most important, the American and Chinese people came out of the war with better opinions of each other than they had at the start. Like the monument to a lone American pilot that still stands in rural Yunnan Province, these opinions would outlast the bitter disputes of the next few decades.

After Japan’s defeat, tensions between Nationalists and Communists that had been held mostly at bay during World War II exploded into full-scale civil war. The United States attempted to negotiate a compromise between the two sides, and special envoy General George C. Marshall twice managed to broker cease-fires and talks on a government of national unity, but those efforts failed in the end. Recognizing in part that the United States could not influence the war’s outcome, President Harry S Truman and his Secretaries of State, George C. Marshall and Dean G. Acheson, decided to limit U.S. involvement to maintaining ties with the Nationalist Government without intervening militarily on its behalf. By late 1949, the Nationalists, who had seemingly held the stronger position just a few years earlier, crumbled under the Communist onslaught, and the remnants of the regime fled to the island of Taiwan. On October 1, 1949, Mao Zedong proclaimed the establishment of the People’s Republic of China, an event that would have important ramifications for U.S.-China relations.
A Journey Shared:  
The United States & China  
200 Years of History

From the Open Door to the Chinese Civil War

Military and Wartime Relations

1. Investigate and prepare to report on the Marco Polo Bridge Incident of 1937.

2. Analyze how the Marco Polo Bridge Incident began to lay a platform for the attack on Pearl Harbor. Cite U.S. controls and support of the Chinese.

3. Research the life of Wilhelmina “Minnie” Vautrin. Prepare a report to share with your class.

4. Investigate the Industrial Cooperatives in China. What was their primary focus? Who were their supporters?

5. Read and reflect on the reports of the Dixie Mission member John Stewart Service. What were his impressions on the Chinese situation?

6. Research the new technology with regard to communication. How did new technology improve communication for diplomats?
American Missionaries in the 19th century

The early years of the China trade coincided with a major religious revival in the United States, known as the Second Great Awakening. Because of this outpouring of religious fervor, American missionaries were inspired to spread Christianity to foreign countries. China became a popular destination because of its large population and because the missionaries believed that the Chinese had never heard the Christian message and would be receptive.

What they found was something quite different. The Chinese were uninterested in their religious message. According to some reports, it took nine years for missionaries to make a single convert in one city of 600,000 people. To reach the Chinese, the missionaries turned their evangelizing missions into medical and educational ones.

Samuel Wells Williams was the first American missionary in China, arriving in Guangzhou in 1833. The most famous of the missionaries was Dr. Peter Parker, who was appointed in 1834. Parker was the fifth American missionary, but the first American medical missionary to arrive in China. Despite restrictions on foreigners providing treatment to Chinese, he established a small dispensary in Guangzhou at No. 3 Fung-tae Hong in November 1835. Parker chose to treat diseases of the eye because they were very common and were something that Chinese medicine could not treat. Within the first 17 days, Parker saw 240 patients. Although the flood of patients continued unabated, the Christian mission had no converts for 17 years. Parker’s hospital, known as the Hospital of Universal Love, grew into the Ophthalmic Hospital, which later became the core of the first municipal hospital in Guangzhou.

These medical missions met with the least opposition from the Chinese. By 1890, there were 32 hospitals and 18 dispensaries, treating hundreds of thousands of patients.

American missionaries also turned to education as another way to engage the Chinese. The missionaries had some success in introducing Western ideas, opening education to women and girls, and advocating the abolition of foot binding. Yung Wing became the first Chinese student to graduate from an American university, Yale, in 1854. During the 19th century, missionaries founded four colleges in China—Shantung Christian College, Yenching University, St. John’s University, and Canton Christian College.

While uninterested in Western religion, Chinese leaders were definitely interested in Western science and technology and were eager for students to acquire this knowledge. During the 1870s, the Qing Government sponsored an educational program for Chinese students in the United States. The idea was launched by Yung Wing. Following his studies, Yung returned to China and contacted some of the leading reformist officials, who used him as a go-between to purchase Western armaments from the United States. In 1870, Yung convinced the Qing Government to grant him permission to send a delegation of youths to study in the United States. Yung created the China Education Mission (CEM) and brought several groups of about 30 young men each, to the
United States for a comprehensive education, with an emphasis on technical and military training, and to live with American families.

Over the course of a decade, approximately 120 Chinese participated in the project, but it quickly ran into problems on both sides of the Pacific. In China, conservatives feared that the students would become too Americanized, and even reformers were frustrated when it became clear that military academies such as West Point would not admit the Chinese, despite obligations to do so under the Burlingame Treaty. In the United States, rising anti-Chinese sentiment often made life very difficult for the Chinese students. The program was disbanded after a decade, but it had a profound effect on those who took part, many of whom found diplomatic, engineering, and foreign trade positions back in China. A few Chinese students even remained in the United States.

**Negative Impact**

Despite their benefits, American missionary efforts sometimes had a negative impact on U.S.-Chinese relations. The Chinese were opposed to foreign proselytizing, which had been banned during the 18th century. As a result, early missionaries were confined to the hongs and unable to reach the general population. As China grew weaker during the 19th century, the ban on proselytizing was overturned, missionaries were given the right to build churches, and religious toleration was assured in the treaty ports.

While missionaries gained access to China's territory and its people, they did so by relying on Western political intervention. The Chinese also resented the missionaries' lifestyle, which was luxurious by Chinese standards. Although American missionaries did not suffer extreme violence, U.S. diplomats joined their foreign counterparts in forcing Qing officials to crack down on attacks against Westerners, which only led to more resentment.

Despite these tensions, China's vast population was a strong lure for missionaries. Between 1830 and 1890, the number of American missionaries in China increased from one man to more than 500 men and women. By the end of the 19th century, American missionaries were present in all of the treaty ports and their immediate hinterlands, developing an intimate knowledge of the country. And that knowledge gave them an important role in both American society and in developing American opinions about China.

The pattern was established early on. In 1841, during a visit to the United States, Dr. Peter Parker met with President Martin Van Buren, as well as with President-elect William Henry Harrison and his future Secretary of State, Daniel Webster. Parker argued forcibly that the United States needed to upgrade the American presence in China, in the wake of the first Opium War, by sending a Minister Plenipotentiary. Webster took Parker's advice and dispatched Caleb Cushing in 1843.

The missionaries became an important source of information about Chinese society and culture because, unlike most merchants, they learned Chinese. Samuel Wells Williams became fluent in both Cantonese and Japanese. He edited the *Chinese Repository*, a Western publication that kept missionaries up-to-date on Chinese matters and gave readers at home insight into life in China. Williams also published *A Syllabic Dictionary of the Chinese Language*, as well as two historical volumes of *The Middle Kingdom*. He is still considered one of the most accurate observers of 19th century Chinese life.
A Journey Shared: The United States & China
200 Years of History

Origins to the End of the 19th Century

American Missionaries in the 19th Century

1. Opening up the Chinese to Western ways was done by education. Investigate which ways had the most immediate effect on the Chinese.

2. Medical technology was on the rise during this time. Research medical advances from 1800 to 1900.

3. Why were missionaries more successful in the medical arena rather than the religious? What was the impact?

4. Investigate the elements of the Burlingame Treaty. How would this treaty become a problem to both the Americans and the Chinese? How would they be alleviated?

5. Compare American missionary efforts in China with those of the British missionary efforts in India during the same time period. Assess the impact made on both nations.

6. The missionary, Dr. Peter Parker came to be advisor to Presidents and a translator for Caleb Cushing. Investigate and analyze why Dr. Parker was such held in such high regard.
Modern Diplomacy

After the re-establishment of relations in 1972, the United States established a Liaison Office in Beijing (May 1973-March 1979). The men who served as the director of the liaison office represented a dazzling array of top tier talent—David K.E. Bruce previously had served as U.S. Ambassador to France, West Germany, and the United Kingdom; George H.W. Bush had served as a Representative from Texas, Ambassador to the United Nations, and Director of the Central Intelligence Agency. He would later serve two terms as Vice President and one term as President of the United States. Thomas S. Gates, Jr., a former U.S. Secretary of Defense, was appointed by President Gerald R. Ford, and United Autoworkers’ Union President Leonard Woodcock was appointed by President Jimmy Carter. Woodcock negotiated key aspects of the normalization package with Deng Xiaoping and became the first U.S. Ambassador to the PRC in February 1979.

That trend toward excellence continued as subsequent presidents selected Ambassadors with expertise in China—many with fluent Chinese. Arthur W. Hummel was born in China, the son of a missionary who became the head of Orientalia at the Library of Congress. Hummel was interned by the Japanese at Weixian during World War II; he escaped and joined the Nationalist forces for the last two years of the war and later served as U.S. Ambassador in Burma, Ethiopia, and Pakistan. Winston Lord was a member of President Nixon’s secret negotiation team and later became the Department of State’s top China expert. James R. Lilley was born in China and was the only American to have served as U.S. Ambassador to China and as Director of the American Institute in Taiwan. J. Stapleton Roy was also born in China to missionary parents and was fluent in Chinese. James Sasser was a former Senator and Joseph Prueher was a former Admiral and Commander-in-Chief, U.S. Pacific Command. Our current ambassador, Clark T. Randt, who was appointed by President George W. Bush, is the longest serving U.S. Ambassador to the People’s Republic of China. He is fluent in Chinese and has lived and worked in China for more than 30 years.

Today, the U.S. Embassy houses more than 20 U.S. Government agencies with more than 900 employees. As U.S.-Chinese relations grow, the role of the Embassy is constantly expanding, Embassy Beijing in one of the busiest U.S. embassies in the world, hosting more than 300 official delegations in 2007.

A New Embassy for a New Era In some ways, the history of the U.S. diplomatic mission’s residence in China has reflected the course of relations between the two countries. From its first humble home to the large complex completed in 2008, thelegation buildings have mirrored the fluctuations and expansion of U.S.-China relations.
The first headquarters of the U.S. mission in Beijing was opened in 1862. It was situated just south of the seat of government in the Forbidden City, in the district set aside for foreign legations by the Qing Government. Its small size was appropriate to the relatively minor presence of the United States in China at the time. The legation moved within the district late in the 19th century, but after the existing building was damaged during the Boxer Uprising, a more assertive United States built a larger, multi-building complex which was completed in 1905. This new residence remained its home until 1949, although the Embassy had temporary facilities in Chongqing and Nanjing from 1937 to 1949. After the founding of the PRC and the severing of diplomatic ties, the U.S. Embassy complex in Beijing was taken over by the PRC.

When it came time to establish a new U.S. Embassy in Beijing, the city's political and diplomatic landscape had undergone profound changes. Although the old buildings still stood, the Chinese Government had relocated most embassies to the Jianguomenwai area, two miles east of the old legation quarter, and the Sanlitun area, two miles north of Jianguomenwai. On March 1, 1979, the Embassy of the United States took over the location of the U.S. Liaison Office at the heart of the Jianguomenwai district, and in 1985 it added another building nearby. The U.S. mission was distinguished by a functional, fortress-like architectural style, which was in sharp contrast to the neo-classical elegance of its predecessor. As U.S.-China relations expanded, the size of the Embassy's staff and the tasks they performed increased proportionately.

By the mid-1990s, some within the Department of State realized that the U.S. presence would soon outgrow the Jianguomenwai location, and they began planning for a new home. In 2001, the Special Projects Coordination Division of the Department of State's Bureau of Overseas Building Operations (OBO) completed a full plan for replacing the Embassy, as well as the consulates in Guangzhou and Shanghai. This sparked discussions between the two governments on building new embassy facilities in both Beijing and Washington. In November 2003, the United States and China signed a reciprocal Conditions of Construction Agreement (COCA), which enabled both sides to begin construction. The Chinese Government convinced renowned architect I.M. Pei—who was born in Guangzhou and naturalized as a U.S. citizen in 1954—to come out of retirement and design the building for its new embassy in Washington.

The multi-building complex designed by OBO for a new embassy in Beijing is more practical and aesthetically pleasing than its predecessor. Located northeast of the Sanlitun embassy district, in the Liangmahe neighborhood, the complex has forward-looking glass, steel, and stone structures that make a sharp contrast to the forbidding edifices of the previous Embassy and older legation buildings. The spaces between the buildings have a mixture of ponds, walkways, courtyards and gardens, all designed to provide a more open and welcoming environment for visitors to the Embassy. This more spacious facility is intended to reflect and foster the solid relationship that has evolved through the years.

Parts of the new complex also function as an exhibition space, with examples of American and Chinese art on display, both inside and outside. The centerpiece of these displays consists of two porcelain bowls that, in their conception and creation, represent the great potential of Chinese and American joint efforts. The first bowl is one of the most famous types of export porcelain, the “hong bowl.” It was produced in the 18th century and is decorated with a highly detailed painting of the foreign factories at Guangzhou during the era of the Canton trading system. A replica of one of these hong bowls, featuring the
factory that once served as the home of the first U.S. presence in China, resides in the new embassy building in Beijing. The original bowl as well as several other valuable pieces of Chinese export porcelain are part of the Department of State’s permanent collection in its Diplomatic Reception Rooms in Washington.

The second bowl embodies a contemporary fusion of the United States and China. In 1996, West Virginia University and the Jingdezhen Ceramics Institute, located at the site of what had historically been the main Chinese imperial kilns, created a summer ceramics program in China. The two institutions recently embarked on a project to create an item emblematic of their decade-long relationship: a piece of Chinese porcelain that shows the new Embassy building and is decorated with the flowers of all fifty American states, much like the foreign-inspired export porcelain of old. This bowl also resides in the new U.S. Embassy in Beijing as a symbol of the past, present, and future collaboration in U.S.-China relations. As such, it embodies the hope that the positive aspects of the history of U.S.-China relations will overcome the inevitable tensions between the two nations and guide their interactions in the future.

The United States Government scheduled the ribbon cutting on its new home in China for August 8, 2008, to coincide with the opening of the Beijing Olympic Games. The new Beijing Embassy is one of the largest U.S. diplomatic posts in the world and symbolizes the tremendous importance of U.S.-China relations in the 21st century. Moreover, the simultaneous construction of a new Chinese embassy in Washington demonstrated that the relationship is now more balanced and reciprocal than it was at any time in the past. After a history of interaction that is as old as the United States itself, the two nations now turn to face the future together.
A Journey Shared: The United States & China
200 Years of History

20th Century Relations, 1949–2000

Modern Diplomacy

1. Secretaries of State Madeline Albright, Collin Powell, and Condoleezza Rice all made trips to China. Investigate the reasons for the visits.

2. The U. S. Embassy in China houses more than 20 agencies. Research what kinds of agencies are housed within U.S. embassies.

3. What are your feelings with regard to a new embassy in China? With your class, take a poll with regards to students’ knowledge about the new embassy in Beijing.

4. Create a study survey on China. Cover time periods from this reference work and use information gleaned from the research and probing questions at the ends of the chapter to assist you. Tabulate responses. Display your results.

5. Investigate opportunities to raise awareness about China. With help from your teacher, work in groups to sponsor a “Day of Cultural Understanding.”
Treaty After Treaty:
The Treaty of Nanking (Excerpts)

**ARTICLE I**
There shall henceforth be Peace and Friendship between ... (England and China) and between their respective Subjects, who shall enjoy full security and protection for their persons and property within the Dominions of the other.

**ARTICLE II**
His Majesty the Emperor of China agrees that British Subjects, with their families and establishments, shall be allowed to reside, for the purpose of carrying on their commercial pursuits, without molestation or restraint at the Cities and Towns of Canton, Amoy, Foochow-fu, Ningpo, and Shanghai, and Her Majesty the Queen of Great Britain, etc., will appoint Superintendents or Consular Officers, to reside at each of the above-named Cities or Towns, to be the medium of communication between the Chinese Authorities and the said Merchants, and to see that the just Duties and other Dues of the Chinese Government as hereafter provided for, are duly discharged by Her Britannic Majesty’s Subjects.

**ARTICLE III**
It being obviously necessary and desirable, that British Subjects should have some Port whereat they may careen and refit their Ships, when required, and keep Stores for that purpose, His Majesty the Emperor of China cedes to Her Majesty the Queen of Great Britain, etc., the Island of Hong-Kong, to be possessed in perpetuity by her Britannic Majesty, Her Heirs and Successors, and to be governed by such Laws and Regulations as are possessed in perpetuity by their Her Britannic Majesty’s Subjects.

**ARTICLE IV**
The Emperor of China agrees to pay the sum of Six Millions of Dollars as the value of Opium which was delivered up at Canton in the month of March 1839, as a Ransom for the lives of Her Britannic Majesty’s Superintendent and Subjects, who had been imprisoned and threatened with death by the Chinese High Officers.

**ARTICLE V**
The Government of China having compelled the British Merchants trading at Canton to deal exclusively with certain Chinese Merchants called Hong merchants (or Cohong) who had been licensed by the Chinese Government for that purpose, the Emperor of China agrees to abolish that practice in future at all Ports where British Merchants may reside, and to permit them to carry on their mercantile transactions with whatever persons they please, and His Imperial Majesty further agrees to pay to the British Government the sum of Three Millions of Dollars, on account of Debts due to British Subjects by some of the said Hong Merchants (or Cohong) who have become insolvent, and who owe very large sums of money to Subjects of Her Britannic Majesty.

**ARTICLE VII**
It is agreed that the Total amount of Twenty-one Million Dollars, described in the three preceding Articles, shall be paid as follows:
- Six Millions immediately.
- Six Millions in 1843...
- Five Millions in 1844...
- Four Millions in 1845...

**ARTICLE IX**
The Emperor of China agrees to publish and promulgate, under his Imperial Sign Manual and Seal, a full and entire amnesty and act of indemnity, to all Subjects of China on account of their having resided under, or having had dealings and intercourse with, or having entered the Service of Her Britannic Majesty, or of Her Majesty’s Officers, and His Imperial Majesty further engages to release all Chinese Subjects who may be at this moment in confinement for similar reasons.

**ARTICLE X**
His Majesty the Emperor of China agrees to establish all the Ports which are by the 2nd Article of this Treaty to be thrown open for the resort of British Merchants, a fair and regular Tariff of Export and Import Customs and other Dues, which Tariff shall be publicly notified and promulgated for general information, and the Emperor further engages, that when British Merchandise shall have once paid at any of the said Ports the regulated Customs and Dues agreeable to the Tariff, to be hereafter fixed, such Merchandise may be conveyed by Chinese Merchants, to any Province or City in the interior of the Empire of China on paying further amount as Transit Duties which shall not exceed ___ percent on the tariff value of such goods. (Note: Tariff schedules were not settled at this time. The tariff rates on various goods were fixed after further discussions; they averaged about five percent.)

Important Additional Privileges Granted To Foreigners In Subsequent Treaties Most Favored Nation Status (Article VIII of the Supplementary Treaty of the Bogue, between China and Great Britain, signed October 8, 1843)
The Emperor of China, having been graciously pleased to grant to all foreign Countries whose Subjects, or Citizens, have hitherto traded at Canton the privilege of resorting for purposes of Trade to the other four Ports of Fuchow, Amoy, Ningpo, and Shanghai, on the same terms as the English, it is further agreed, that should the Emperor hereafter, from any cause whatever, be pleased to grant additional privileges or immunities to any of the Subjects or Citizens of such Foreign Countries, the same privileges and immunities will be extended to and enjoyed by British Subjects; but it is to be understood that demands or requests are on this plea, to be unnecessarily brought forward.
The Siege of the Legations:
Near the United States Legation looking north-west from Fort Myer on the Tartar Wall, Peking, China, ca. 1900

Photo: National Archives, RG 77: Records of the Office of the Chief of Engineers, 1789-1988, ARC Identifier 519407
Political Cartoons:
“The New Diplomacy”

Cartoon: “The new diplomacy (formerly dollar, now 30 [cents])” on sign. Uncle Sam seated at table with Chinese official, possibly Yuan Shih-kai. John Bull (Great Britain) writing order on “Bill against Guatemala” while Mexico and Japan watch.
Published in: New York Herald, May 11, 1913, p. 5.
(Library of Congress: LC-USZ62-128573)
Nixon and China: A Document-Based Question

Standard:
- II. Time, Continuity, and Change
- IV. Individuals, Groups, and Institutions
- VI. Power, Authority, and Governance
- IX. Global Connections

Grade Level: 9–12

Objectives: The student will:
- ✓ Determine policies that marked a turning point in relations between the United States and the People’s Republic of China (PRC)
- ✓ Assess historical events involving the United States and the PRC
- ✓ Explain primary documents

Time: 1–2 class periods

Materials: Handouts of DBQ question and primary documents

Procedures:
1. Use materials (Documents A-I) for a document based question (DBQ) in Advanced Placement U.S. History, other U.S. History classes, or in courses pertaining to Chinese history.

2. **Document Based Question**

   Analyze the methods and motives that led to the opening of China by the Nixon Administration.

3. Teacher information about primary documents:
   a. 1972 portrait of U.S. President Richard Nixon with Soviet leader Leonid Breshnev and Chinese leader Mao Zedong forming his ears, a commentary on Nixon’s developing relations with communist leaders during the Cold War. *(Commentary from the Library of Congress website)*

   b. Communication from President Richard Nixon to Zhou Enlai (Chou En-lai), Premier of PRC, via Agha Hilary, the Pakistani ambassador in Washington, May 10, 1971. Hilary then delivered the message to Yahya Khan, President of Pakistan. In turn, Yahya passed the information to the Chinese ambassador to Pakistan who notified Zhou Enlai and Mao Zedong (Mao Tse-tung), chairman of the Communist Party in PRC. This indirect communication proved the best means of reaching the Chinese leaders, guaranteeing the secrecy that surrounded plans for Nixon’s trip.

d. Partly based on information from sources in Hong Kong as well as a NCNA (New China News Agency) article, this report analyzed the anti-Soviet campaign then mobilizing in China. INR’s China watchers suspected that Chinese authorities promoted the campaign to “coalesce internal unity” and strengthen the regime, but they also believed that it reflected a “genuine fear of [Soviet] attack.” To that extent, Beijing designed the domestic mobilization—the manifestation of “national consciousness of the Soviet danger”—to have a deterrent effect on the Kremlin’s decision-making. Significantly, the NCNA piece suggested some concern about Soviet nuclear-armed missiles on the border while INR cited a nuclear threat made during an unofficial Soviet radio broadcast during March 1969. (Commentary from the National Archives, NARA SN 67-69 Pol Chicom-USSR)

e. Excerpts from Shanghai Communiqué, a joint communiqué from the United States and PRC issued February 27, 1972 at the end of Nixon’s week-long visit to China. The communiqué was the culmination of visits between U.S. National Security Advisor, Henry Kissinger, Zhou Enlai, and Chinese Vice Foreign Minister Qiao Guanhua. Essentially, the U.S. and China agreed to pursue normalization of their relations. The communiqué reveals that the U.S. is on the path of a One-China policy, although the plans for Taiwan (and the Two-China policy of the U.S.) are incomplete.

f. Toast delivered February 21, 1972 by President Richard Nixon at final banquet with Zhou Enlai in Peking (Beijing).

g. A document that highlights the issue of the Two-Chinas Policy. A 1971 memorandum reported the results of the study initiated by NSSM 124. The study examined a variety of alternative policies that the United States might adopt ranging from relatively modest steps to those that would involve more extensive policy changes with respect to the PRC and Taiwan.

h. This letter from Chinese Premier Zhou Enlai to President Nixon is dated January 6, 1973, almost a year after the President visited China.

i. The Taiwan Relations Act was enacted during the administra-
tion of Jimmy Carter. It’s inclusion indicates that the reso-
lution of issues was not immediate. Only in 1979 was the
One-China policy of the United States more clearly defined.
Excerpts from the Taiwan Relations Act of 1979.

Extension Activities:

1. Divide the documents among students. Have each student or small
group explain how the assigned document relates to Nixon’s diplomatic
interaction with China. Have students pay close attention to the dates,
key players, and symbolism portrayed in each primary document. As a
class, combine the information and chart the path of relations between
the United States, China, and Taiwan.

2. Have students analyze the documents and determine the significance
of the U.S. following either a “Two-Chinas” Policy or a “One-China”
Policy. Students must resolve what the two Chinas are and why the
U.S. changed to the “One-China” concept.

Use the site:
http://www.nixonlibrary.gov/virtuallibrary/tapeexcerpts/chinatapes.php

3. Have students listen to Nixon discussing and planning his historic visit
to China. Identify key people, events, and places referenced in these
conversations.
The Siege of the Legations:
Boxer Rebellion observations by future First Lady Lou Henry Hoover
8 August 1900

[Image of a handwritten memorandum]
then the first relief cut their way into us—
2,000 of them, enough to get in, but not to
do anything more than we could when they
got there. And for another two weeks we
sat there while the relief came in from the
south, at the rate of a thousand a day, more or
less, while the Chinese gathered in the north
more rapidly, and we gradually got to chang-
ing shells, instead of returning them—and
finally one day came when we sent but did
not receive, and at the same time we who
can, will, and do charge—charged. And now
the only question is the relief of Peking.
For more than a month we have had but two
or three unreliable messages from there!
Do you realize it—that never have so many flags
been in action together since our history began
Russian, Japanese, French, German, Austrian,
Italian, English and American! And such a
motley array of troops—artillery, cavalry, infan-
try, marines, sailors—Cossacks, Thule,
Siamese, a couple of English Chinese regiments on
our side—a lot of our own darkies who strike terror
to the hearts of some.

But we are still living it—and just now they
say “Kai Pan” which means dinner is ready—and
the ink in too bad to come back to it again—
strange for the monse, dear one—I think I
will see you soon—But oh if you had been
here!
Well, Evelyn Wight—you missed one of the opportunities of your life by not coming to China in the summer of 1900. The very fact that the things have happened that have happened make it queer that your guardian star did not get you here in time for it.

So many, many, many times I thought of you, and that you should have been here,—at the most interesting siege and bombardment of the age. The men from Ladysmith—and we have them with us, “Terrible’s” guns and all,—say the bombardment there could not compare with ours. The loss of life was greater than either Kimberly or Mafeking. Only it was so short that we did not suffer from hunger,—but neither did we have the chance of honorable, or otherwise, surrender before us in case hunger ever should come. We simply had to stand by our guns until the end with one last bullet left back for each one of ourselves. Our only hope was that the Chinese can’t, won’t and don’t charge,—and they did not—to any alarming extent.

So a good many hundred civilians and a couple of thousand troops sat still and repelled faint hearted charges while 10,000 or 15,000 troops and 20,000 Boxers plunked shells of all sizes into us for exactly one week without a sound or word from this outside reaching us. When the first relief cut their way into us, 2,000 of them,—enough to get in, but not to do anything more than we could when they got there. And for another two weeks we sat there while the relief came in from the south, at the rate of a thousand a day, more or less, while the Chinese gathered on the north more rapidly, and we gradually got to exchanging shells, instead of receiving them,—and finally, one day came when we sent but did not receive,—and at the same time we, who can, will, and do, charge,—charged. And now the only question is the relief of Peking. For more than a month we have had but two or three unreliable messages from there!

Do you realize it,—that never had so many flags been in action together since our history began. Russian, Japanese, French, German, Austrian, Italian, English, and American! And such a motley array of troops,—artillery, cavalry, infantry, marines, sailors,—Cassocks, Shiites, Siamese, a couple of English Chinese regiments on our side,—a lot of our own darkies, who strike terror to the hearts of some.

But we are still living it—and just now they say, “Kai fan” which means tiffins is ready—and the ink is too bad to come back to it again—Goodbye—for the summer, dear one—I think I will see you soon—But oh, if you had been here!

Lou
Open Doors to China

Standard:

II. Time, Continuity, and Change
IV. Individuals, Groups, and Institutions
VI. Power, Authority, and Governance
IX. Global Connections

Grade Level: 9–12

Objectives:
The student will:
✓ Compare and contrast different eras of Chinese global interaction
✓ Analyze political, economic, and social effects of “open doors”
✓ Trace path of U.S.-Chinese diplomacy

Time: 1–3 class periods

Materials:
Access to web sites and/or copies of handouts

Procedures:

1. Explain to students that “opening” China has several meanings. This lesson refers to three interpretations.
   a. The Open Door Policy created by Secretary of State John Hay in 1899.
   b. The occasion of President Richard Nixon’s “opening of China” with his visit in 1972.
   c. China’s economic “opening” to the world in recent decades, resulting in major growth.

2. Divide class into two groups. One group will receive the Open Door Note and the other the Shanghai Communique’. Follow directions below for distribution of the documents.

   Provide half of class with a copy of the Open Door Note WITHOUT the title, date, and John Hay’s name—just the content of the document.

   Ask the students to determine the following:
   a. What countries are named in the document?
   b. Which country is submitting the document and which country is the recipient?
   c. What is a “sphere of influence?”
   d. Is the document political and/or economic in nature? Provide evidence.
   e. What is the main purpose of the document?

3. Provide the other half of the class with the Shanghai Communique’. Do not include the title, date, first three and last paragraphs. Ask students to determine the following:
   a. Identify the countries involved in this agreement.
   b. Is the document political and/or economic in nature? Provide evidence.
Have groups share information they collected.

Another option would be to exchange documents and have each group follow the same procedure with the second document. Then, the entire class can discuss their findings with both documents at the same time.

Reveal titles, dates, authors, and missing sections of documents to students.

Have students read:

- Secretary of State John Hay and the Open Door in China, 1899-1900.
  http://www.state.gov/r/pa/ho/time/ip/17457.htm
- The complete Shanghai Communique’. Scroll to Document #204 in the link below.
  http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/70143.pdf

Discuss the political and economic motives for the United States to implement these documents. What are the pros and cons for China in each agreement? Which country appears to benefit the most from each document? Are these documents still operational today? Have countries changed so much that these diplomatic maneuverings have lost their relevancy? Cite examples from documents and knowledge of history to answer these questions.

Provide students map of China that shows Special Economic Zones, 14 open coastal cities and priority economic regions.

Have students decide what a Special Economic Zone might be. (SEZs are designated areas in countries that have special economic regulations that are different from other areas in the country. These regulations generally are favorable to foreign investment. Tax incentives and lower tariffs are often included.)

Identify the areas of China that are Special Economic Zones, Special Administrative Regions (SAR) (Hong Kong and Macau). Use selected websites to determine more specific characteristics of SEZs.

Key Question: Why are SEZs and other economic development regions considered an “open door” to China? Explore the economic reforms in recent decades that have “opened” China to the world. Relate this to the tremendous industrial growth of China.
Political Cartoons

Note: Political cartoons have considerable influence on public opinion. Not only are they a source of entertainment, they provide valuable information as well. To fully understand the cartoonist’s wit, the reader must have some basic information about the situation at hand. Each political cartoon provides a unique insight into the cartoonist’s point of view. The cartoonist’s use of satire, irony, and caricature help frame the understanding of the subject.

Standard:

II. Time, Continuity, and Change
III. People, Places, and Environments
IV. Individuals, Groups, and Institutions
VI. Power, Authority, and Governance
IX. Global Connections

Grade Level: 9–12

Objectives: The student will:

✓ Analyze political cartoons for tone, purpose, and theme
✓ Link particular cartoons to specific historical events
✓ Identify exaggeration, satire, irony, and caricature in political cartoons

Time: 1–2 class periods, depending on level

Materials: Transparencies or copies of each political cartoon from the Cartoon Gallery and questions

Procedures:

1. Dependent upon level.
2. Divide students into groups or teams. Give each grouping of students a different cartoon.
3. Ask students to give their group a name.
4. Ask students to fill in the matrix portion appropriate to the cartoon title.
5. Have students discuss the cartoon so that all are in agreement. (Monitor discussion to keep on task.)
6. Distribute newsprint to student groupings.
7. Have them place and attach the cartoon to the newsprint.
8. Transfer information from the team answers from the matrix onto the newsprint.
9. Hang newsprint around the room.
10. Assign each group to begin at a particular cartoon.
11. Ask groups to visit each cartoon to view and transfer information to their matrix.

Note: Groups have the ability to challenge information on the newsprint. A team that is challenged must defend the information on the newsprint with research.
Political Change in China

Both China and the United States changed dramatically during the early years of the 20th century. The United States emerged as a world power and played a more active role in international diplomacy. The nation defended its own interests in China, but in its dealings with the European powers, it also acted on China's behalf. Chinese society experienced large-scale upheaval, beginning with the Boxer Uprising. The Qing Dynasty came to an end and was replaced first by the Nationalist Government, and finally by the People's Republic of China. As one historian described it, “At the dawn of the 20th century, the Chinese boldly toppled a monarchy that had stood intermittently for ten times as long as U.S. history.”

The Boxer Uprising

The 19th century ended with a major outbreak of anti-foreign and anti-Christian activity in northern China. Many Chinese strongly objected to Western missionaries’ proselytizing and privileges, and felt that foreign influence was to blame for China’s worsening economy. A loosely affiliated collection of cults and local militias in rural areas southeast of Beijing merged into a violent movement that spread rapidly through the northern countryside. The Boxers, with Qing Dynasty support, directed their animosity against missionaries and their Chinese Christian allies. “I do not regret having come to China,” one missionary wrote, “but I am sorry I have done so little.”

The uprising climaxed with a siege of the foreign legations in Beijing in the summer of 1900. The American Minister, Edwin Conger, reported to the Secretary of State that the Americans and Europeans had blockaded the streets surrounding the diplomatic missions with carts, furniture and “thousands upon thousands” of sandbags made from “satin portieres, silk curtains, carpets, oriental rugs, table linen, towels, bedding, embroideries, cloths, silks, etc.”

Foreign troops marched on Peking, ending the siege on August 14, 1900. The Qing Government was forced to pay a financially crippling indemnity of $333 million, plus interest—almost double the size of the Chinese economy. By the end of the uprising, according to one account, more than 200 foreigners and an estimated 30,000 Chinese Christians had been killed. Contemporary records indicate that at least 20,000 Boxers and those suspected of being their allies also were killed.

The Chinese Government feared that it would be dismembered by the stronger foreign powers, a fear that the United States shared. China’s great 19th century diplomat and Viceroy, Li Hung Chang, noted the important role played by the Americans in preserving China:

“Minister Conger, backed by the United States, was a strong friend of my country during those fearful weeks. I tremble to think of what might have been China’s fate but for the stand taken by the American Government.”
**Qing Dynasty Collapses**

The Boxer Uprising and its heavy indemnities were yet another blow to the faltering Qing Dynasty. In 1911, after a long decline, the Qing Dynasty collapsed in the face of a series of local rebellions. A key figure in hastening this demise was Dr. Sun Zhongshan (Sun Yat-sen).

Sun was raised in the Guangzhou area, where he had been exposed to American merchants, missionaries, and diplomats. Sun joined many of his compatriots from this region, including his brother, in their journeys to the New World, and he spent a total of six years in Hawaii between 1878 and 1910. Using his contacts there and with Chinese in the United States, Sun raised money for several failed attempts at toppling the Qing Government. Although he was not involved in the 1911 revolution—he heard about it while fund-raising in Denver—upon his return he was elected provisional president of the Republic of China, which was established on January 1, 1912. For his long-time effort to establish a unified national government, Sun became known as the Father of Modern China.
A Journey Shared: The United States & China
200 Years of History

From the Open Door to the Chinese Civil War

Political Change in China

1. Investigate some of the major issues occurring during the first half of the 20th Century with regard to the U.S. role in international diplomacy.

2. Research and analyze the role of the United States during the “55 Days in Peking.” Research and reflect upon the roles of other nations involved. Analyze the benefit to them for their involvement.

3. Research and analyze the role of Empress Cixi in China as regent for her son?

4. Research the background of the “Father of Modern China” and provisional president of the Republic of China, Sun Yat-sen.
A Journey Shared:
The United States & China

Population and China’s Future

Standard:
I. Culture
II. Time, Continuity, and Change
III. People, Places, and Environments
IV. Individuals, Groups, and Institutions
VI. Power, Authority, and Governance
IX. Global Connections

Grade Level: 9–12

Objectives: The student will:
✓ Compare and contrast China’s present and future populations
✓ Determine the political, social, and economic effects of population growth

Time: 1 class period

Materials: Access to China’s Concern Over Population, Aging, and Health, by Toshiko Kaneda, Population Reference Bureau:
Access to population pyramids from the Census Bureau:
http://www.census.gov/ipc/www/idb/pyramids.html

Procedures:
1. Explain that a population pyramid is a bar graph that displays a country’s population based on the characteristics of age and gender. 5-year age groups are represented by bars, with the youngest group (0-4 years) at the base of the pyramid and the oldest population at the top. Males are on the left, females on the right. The crude birth rate essentially determines the shape of the pyramid. When studying population pyramids, dependency ratio is important. Dependency ratio is the number of dependent population—either too young or too old contribute to the economy.

2. Have students study the population pyramids of China as displayed in article, China’s Concern Over Population Aging and Health.

3. Have students examine Figure 1 at the end of this lesson.

Questions for students:

a. Describe the makeup of China’s population in 2000. For example, are there more males than females in 0-4 age group? Are there more in the younger or older age cohorts (a cohort is one of the bars of growth)? Why are there so few people in the oldest age cohorts? Is there a dependency ratio among the youngest or oldest populations?
b. How does the population pyramid change by 2050? Demographers estimate that there will be a significant increase in which age cohorts? Why would this occur?

c. Describe the needs generated by a large aging population.

d. What programs should a government have in place to deal with a large number of elderly?

e. Why does China have the prospect of more females than males as the population changes by 2050?

Extension Activity:

Have students explore more population pyramids at the Census Bureau site. Compare China’s pyramids with other countries. Click “Dynamic” under “Type of output” to see the projected population growth of selected countries.
Figure 1

China’s Population in 2000

China’s Population in 2050
A Journey Shared:
The United States & China

Primary Document Analysis Sheet

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List any notable markings and specific qualities of the document (typed or handwritten, parchment, seals, receipts, dates, etc.):

List any unfamiliar terms. Research them and write their definitions here:
Specific Points of Emphasis (Ideas the author was trying to convey.)

What is your understanding of the document?

List any questions that you have about the document here. Additionally, write your questions on newsprint and hang in the designated area. Discussion of all questions will take place.
Political Cartoons: “Putting His Foot Down”

Cartoon: Uncle Sam stands on map of China which is being cut up by German, Italy, England, Russia, and France (Austria is in backgr. sharpening shears); Uncle Sam clutches “Trade Treaty with China” and says: “Gentleman, you may cut up this map as much as you like, but remember, I’m here to stay, and you can’t divide Me up into spheres of influence”. Color lithograph by J.S. Pughe. Illustrated in: Puck, 1899.

(Library of Congress: LC-USZ62-52569)
Religious and Educational Contacts

American missionaries were not dissuaded by the Boxers; rather, they tripled their numbers between 1900 and 1921 to more than 3,300. Recognizing that many Chinese opposed the introduction of Christianity, the missionaries shifted their focus to education, medicine, agriculture, and improving social welfare. Many Chinese seized upon the Western educational model as a means to reform and strengthen their nation. As a result, educational endeavors became one of the most fruitful arenas for U.S.-China collaboration.

In the first decades of the 20th century, dozens of schools and more than 10 new Christian colleges were established, altogether teaching between 10 and 20 percent of China’s post-secondary students in any given year. These institutions emphasized instruction in English, philosophy, religion, and the sciences, and also stressed physical education and athletics.

In addition to established missionary organizations, new groups came into existence. The Yale-China Association originally was established in 1901 as the Yale Foreign Missionary Society, in part to honor a Yale graduate, Horace Tracy Pitkin, who had died during the Boxer Uprising. Almost immediately after its founding, the Association shifted its focus from missionary activity to education and medical enterprises. The Association founded several of the most important institutions in China, including sites in Changsha, as well as Yenching University in Beijing, which integrated three existing colleges and had a mixed faculty of Chinese and foreign professors. Graduates of these schools maintained close ties to each other throughout their lives, and, in 1952, China’s flagship institution, Beijing University, took over Yenching University’s former campus.

One of Yale-China’s other ventures, the Hsing-Ya Medical College, Nursing School, and Hospital, became renowned as a the top source for training in Western medical procedures in China.

Americans also launched a number of secular educational initiatives, many of them in conjunction with Chinese partners. These ranged from the agricultural and industrial school in rural Taigu, Shanxi Province, established by Oberlin Shansi, an association founded in 1908 in memory of Oberlin College graduates and Chinese Christians killed during the Boxer Uprising, to the much larger Peking Union Medical College (PUMC). The Rockefeller Foundation funded PUMC as a flagship medical institution, based on the model of The Johns Hopkins University—a single institution that combined teaching, research, and practice. Founded in 1915 and opened in 1921, the goal of PUMC was to train doctors and nurses as the core of China’s medical profession. The college’s Chinese-influenced architecture embodied the founders’ hope that Chinese students and teachers would make PUMC their own and not simply a foreign import. PUMC initially focused on creating an elite group of professionals, but in the long run graduates such as Yang Zhongrui and Chen Zhiquan transformed medical practice in urban and rural China by training midwives and village doctors.
1. Research the life of Horace Tracy Pitkin.

2. What impact did the Boxer uprising have on American missionaries?
Religious and Educational Contacts

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Religious and Educational Contacts

1. Research the life of Horace Tracy Pitkin.

2. What impact did the Boxer uprising have on American missionaries?
Be the Historian:
First Report of John Service from Yenan, China

Service’s report was sent to Washington with an explanation by U.S. Ambassador Gauss:

The Ambassador in China (Gauss) to the Secretary of State
No. 2906
CHUNGKING, August 26, 1944.
[Received September 7.]

Sir: I have the honor to refer to my despatch no. 2005, August 25, 1944, enclosing a copy of a report* from the U.S. Army Observer Section at Yenan, Shensi (seat of the Chinese Communist regime), describing the trip of the Section to Yenan and its reception and preliminary activities there, and to enclose a copy of a further report (No. 1) “First Informal Impressions of the North Shensi Communist Base,” dated July 28, 1944. The enclosed report was prepared by Mr. John S. Service, Second Secretary on detail at General Stilwell’s Headquarters, who is a member of the Observer Section.

The purpose of the enclosed report, as stated in the first paragraph thereof, is to record a few initial impressions of the Shensi-Kansu-Ningxia Border Area—an area on which we have had few first-hand reports in recent years. After a six-day survey of the Yenan scene, Mr. Service observes that the people, spirit and atmosphere of Yenan are different (in a superior sense) from those to be found in Kuomintang-governed China. He finds an absence of formality and ostentation in Yenan; life is simple and morale high. He finds that there are a large number of young people who are industrious and serious in their work. A spirit of industry pervades Yenan, Mr. Service finds, but a good deal of time is devoted to talk, discussion and meetings. Mr. Service asserts that there is an emphasis on democracy and intimate relations with the common people, and a surprising political consciousness. He observes that there is an air of calm confidence, no tension or feeling of restraint or suppression, and he concludes that a well-integrated movement and program are being carried out successfully under competent leaders. In short, Mr. Service’s first impressions of the Yenan scene seem to have been wholly favorable.

Respectfully yours,

[Enclosure]

C. E. GAUSS
Report by the Second Secretary of Embassy in China (Service)

No. 1

[YENAN,] July 28, 1944.

Subject: First Informal Impressions of the North Shensi Communist Base.

To: Commanding General, Fwd. Ech., USAF-CBI, APO 879.

Although I have been in Yenan only 6 days, it seems advisable, in view of the availability of mail facilities and their future uncertainty, to try to record a few general first impressions of the Communist Border Region.

In spite of the shortness of the time we have been here, I have had opportunities to meet and talk to a number of Chinese friends, to meet three foreigners who have been resident in the Communist area for some time, and to meet most of the important Communist leaders. In addition I have had the chance to draw on the experience, impressions, and notebooks of several foreign correspondents who have spent more than 6 weeks in Yenan, during which time they have been given every sort of facility to interview personages and collect information.

My own experience is that one enters an area like this, concerning which one has heard so many entirely good but second-hand reports, with a conscious determination not to be swept off one's feet. The feeling is that things cannot possibly be as good as they have been pictured, and that there must be a "catch" somewhere.

It is interesting, therefore, that my own first impressions—and those of the rest of our Observer Group—have been extremely favorable. The same is true of the foreign correspondents, at least two of whom (Votaw and Forman) could not, by any stretching of the term, have been called "pro-Communist" before their arrival. The spell of the Chinese Communists still seems to work.

All of our party have had the same feeling—that we have come into a different country and are meeting a different people. There is undeniably a change in the spirit and atmosphere. As one officer, born and brought up in China, put it: "I find myself continually trying to find out just how Chinese these people are."

This difference in atmosphere is evident in many ways.

There is an absence of show and formality, both in speech and action. Relations of the officials and people toward us, and of the Chinese among themselves, are open, direct and friendly. Mao Tse-tung and other leaders are universally spoken of with respect (amounting in the case of Mao to a sort of veneration) but these men are approachable and subservience toward them is completely lacking. They mingle freely in groups.

Bodyguards, gendarmes and the clap-trap of Chungking officialdom are also completely lacking. To the casual eye there are no police in Yenan. And very few soldiers are seen.

There are also no beggars, nor signs of desperate poverty.

Clothing and living are very simple. Almost everyone except the peasants wear the same plain Chungshan type uniform of native cotton cloth. We have seen no signs of ostentation in dress, living, or entertaining.
Women not only wear practically the same clothes (trousers, sandals or cloth shoes, and often a Russian type smock), they act and are treated as friendly equals. Their openness and complete lack of self-consciousness is at first almost disconcerting. This does not mean familiarity: the spooning couples seen in parks or quiet streets in Chungking would seem as out of place as long gowns, high heels or lipstick.

There are a great number of young people, both men and women. This is natural with the universities and various Party training schools. But there is generally an air of maturity and seriousness about these students. They have little time, one learns, for loitering and they have most of them earned their higher training by hard work, generally for the Party. Those who are here are here because they want to be, and they expect work and a very simple life.

These students from all over China, many from the forward bases in the guerrilla zones, and the fact that one meets Government and military officials from all over North China, gives the feeling that this is sort of nerve center of important happenings. Students continually talk of going back to the villages or the front to carry on their work.

Morale is very high. The war seems close and real. There is no defeatism, but rather confidence. There is no war-weariness.

One gets a feeling that everyone has a job. The program to make every person a producer has a real meaning. Those who do not grow crops, work at something like spinning. Each morning we see our co-ed neighbors at the university at their spinning wheels outside their caves.

At the same time there is time for a great deal of talk and discussion. There are continual meetings.

This leisure is notable in the case of the Party leaders. One learns that they stay completely out of the Government and hold no routine tasks of this time consuming character.

People do not talk of going “back to Shanghai” as soon as the war is over. People have made themselves at home here.

Toward the rest of China, the attitude is one of interest in conditions there but a sort of detached sympathy because they know that conditions there are so much worse than here.

There is everywhere an emphasis on democracy and intimate relations with the common people. This is shown in their cultural work which is taken very seriously. Drama and music have taken over the native folk forms of the country people of this area. Social dancing includes dancing of the local folk dance.

People are serious and tend to have a sense of a mission. But recreation is encouraged. One form of this, just mentioned, is social dancing. At the dinner given for us after our arrival, all the most important leaders joined in the dancing in the most natural and democratic manner.

There is a surprising political consciousness. No matter who one questions—barber or farmer or room attendant—he can give a good description of the Communist program for carrying on the war. We notice that most of the coolies waiting on us read the newspaper.
There is no tension in the local situation—no guards when one enters the city, no garrisoned blockhouses on the hills (as were so apparent in Lanchow in 1943). One hears nothing of banditry or disturbances in the country.

We saw a group of men marching down the road with no armed escort in sight. We were told they were new recruits.

There is no criticism of Party leaders and no political talk.

At the same time there is no feeling of restraint or suppression. Foreigners notice this particularly after they have traveled in Kuomintang North China. We are not burdened with people trying to question us under the guise of making friends. Our interpreters are available when we want them. No one bothers to lock their rooms. We walk freely where we wish. The correspondents have had no censorship.

The leaders make excellent personal impressions. The military men look and act like capable military men. Mao has more warmth and magnetism than would be expected from the generally poor pictures of him.

The general feeling is of calm self-confidence—self-respect. General Yeh laughed about the weapons of the Communist armies. “But,” he said, “I won’t apologize. It was all we had, and we fought with them.” Things happen pretty well in a business-like way.

To the skeptical, the general atmosphere in Yenan can be compared to that of a rather small, sectarian college—or a religious summer conference. There is a bit of the smugness, self-righteousness, and conscious fellowship.

I had a little bit of this feeling during the first few days. Later I found myself agreeing with one of the correspondents, a man who has been long in China, when he said: “We have come to the mountains of North Shensi, to find the most modern place in China.”

I think now that further study and observation will confirm that what is seen at Yenan is a well integrated movement, with a political and economic program, which it is successfully carrying out under competent leaders.

And that while the Kuomintang has lost its early revolutionary character and with that loss disintegrated, the Communist Party, because of the struggle it has had to continue, has kept its revolutionary character, but has grown to a healthy and moderate maturity.

One cannot help coming to feel that this movement is strong and successful, and that it has such drive behind it and has tied itself so closely to the people that it will not easily be killed.

Approved for transmission:

David D. Barrett, Colonel, G.S.C.

John S. Service
Standard:

II. Time, Continuity, and Change
V. Individuals, Groups, and Institutions
VI. Power, Authority, and Governance
IX. Global Connections

Grade Level: 9–12

Objectives: The student will:
✓ Examine the historical background of China’s revolutions in 1911 and 1949
✓ Determine the impact of key leaders on Chinese history
✓ Compare and contrast the response of past leaders to more recent events

Time: 1–2 class periods

Materials: Access to web sites
Copies of U.S. Department of State timeline documents:
- The Chinese Revolution of 1911
- The Chinese Revolution of 1949
Handout: Knowing Chinese Leaders

Procedures:

1. Have students read Department of State timeline documents.
   - http://www.state.gov/r/pa/ho/time/ip/88116.htm
   - http://www.state.gov/r/pa/ho/time/cwr/88312.htm

2. Additional information is available at:
   - http://www.pbs.org/wgbh/amex/china/
   - http://www.state.gov/r/pa/ho/pubs/fs/90851.htm

3. Have students:
   a. Assess the roles of Sun Yat-sen, Chiang Kai-shek, and Mao Zedong in these eras of Chinese history.
   b. Determine the extent of U.S. involvement in China’s revolutions.

4. Provide biographies of Sun Yat-sen, Chiang Kai-shek, and Mao Zedong for students. (Many sources are available in textbooks and online.)

5. Students should complete handout, Knowing Chinese Leaders, by matching leaders, Sun Yat-sen, Chiang Kai-shek, or Mao Zedong, with the appropriate facts/quotes.
6. Correct answers to handout:


7. Discuss the differences and similarities of these leaders.
   a. Compare and contrast their early lives.
   b. How does military training figure into each of their backgrounds?
   c. What differences in basic philosophies exist?
   d. When reading the quotes, did some appear applicable to more than one leader? Which quotes and why?
   e. Which quote proves most profound in relation to what China has become?
   f. Which leader is most appealing in terms of beliefs and practices? Explain your selection.

Extension Activity:

1. Present an imaginary ROUNDTABLE DISCUSSION including Sun Yat-sen, Chiang Kai-shek, and Mao Zedong. Present questions about recent events in China and have students answer in character. Each leader should react based on his basic beliefs and what he wanted China to become. Choose three people or three groups of students to represent each leader. They should be aware of Chinese current events.

2. A moderator should identify and provide a short profile of each former leader. Allow the leaders to respond to each of the following:
   b. Taiwan lost its seat and recognition by the United Nations as THE China.
   c. The Communist Party no longer rules Russia.
   d. China has the world’s fastest growing economy.
   e. The United States imports more from China than it exports to China.
   f. Beijing hosted the 2008 Summer Olympics.
   g. Hong Kong is part of China.
   h. The Chinese government encourages private ownership of businesses, homes, etc.
   i. Tibet is part of China, but many people around the world rally to the cause of the Dalai Lama and former Tibet.
   j. With rapid economic growth, China has major pollution issues.
   k. China has nuclear weapons.

3. Allow other students to present additional questions.
Sailing: Change is in the Wind:
The geography of early foreign trade
A foundation lesson

Standard:

III. People, Places, and Environments
IX. Global Connections

Grade Level: 9–12

Objectives: The student will:
✓ Map the location of oceans and ports

Time: 1 class period

Materials: Black lined world map copy
One transparency of the world map completed
Overhead projector
Index cards
Tape
Markers
A timer or bell or any signal

Procedures:

Prior to class
Print one location on one side of each index card.
Tape the card face down to each student’s desk so that upon arrival students will not see what is written.

1. Hand out the copies of the world map.
2. Explain to students that when they hear the first signal, they are to turn over the card.
3. They will then have 20 seconds to place the location written on the card and copy it to their map. They then turn the card over again.
4. At the sound of the next signal, students must go to the seat directly behind them. (This activity can be done moving vertically or horizontally). The student in the last seat in the last row, must go to the first row, first seat.
5. The activity continues until all students have had the opportunity to see all the index cards.
6. Put the completed transparency on the overhead and let students check their maps against the corrected one.
Extension Activities:

1. Research the different kind of sailing vessels of the bark or barque, brig, schooner and clipper. Which ones were the fastest?

2. What new invention propelled ship speed during the 1800’s? What effect did this new technology have on shipping? Passenger transport? The Western world?
The Siege of the Legations:
Examining Primary Documents

Note: The Society of Right and Harmonious Fists, or “Boxers” was a Chinese organization dedicated to cleansing China of foreign influence. After the Boxers attacked and killed the German ambassador, von Kettling, Westerners huddled in the British legation, known as Gordon Hall. Below you will read a first-hand account by Lou Henry Hoover, who later became First Lady when her husband, Herbert Hoover, became President of the United States.

Standard:

I. Culture
II. Time, Continuity, and Change
III. People, Places, and Environments
IV. Individuals, Groups, and Institutions
VIII. Science, Technology, and Society
IX. Global Connections

Grade Level: 9–12

Objectives: The student will:
✓ Analyze primary documents, written and digital
✓ Critique tone of letter
✓ Research global connections
✓ Research the technology of the gun and weaponry of the time
✓ Create a response letter from Evelyn Wight to Lou Henry Hoover

Time: Dependent on the level of the class

Materials: Copies of primary documents and letter translations
Access to the internet for research
Graphic organizer; one for each student

Procedures:

1. Student organization for this activity may vary:
2. Review the all digital photographs.
3. Discuss the photographs: What is seen? What emotion might the photograph convey? Where is the photo taken? When was the photo taken?
4. Discuss the photo of Lou Henry Hoover: Dress, jewelry, etc.
5. Read the primary document of the letter. Try to discern what is written.
6. Read the transcription of the letter. Use the graphic organizer to organize your thoughts.
7. Students research their individual needs based on the notes on the graphic organizer.
8. Students may discuss findings in a roundtable discussion group.

Extension Activities:

1. Research the technology associated with the “Terrible guns.”
2. Investigate and report on the Siege of Ladysmith.
3. Read and report on Frederick Palmer. ■
A Journey Shared:
The United States & China

200 Years of History

From the Open Door to the Chinese Civil War

The Chinese in America

Since 1900, hundreds of thousands of Chinese students have traveled to the United States. The flow increased after 1908, when the United States became the first nation to remit to China the surplus portion of its share of the Boxer indemnity—that is, the portion not used to cover American losses—in the form of scholarships and developmental projects. Given the small number of Western-style universities in China, the United States became a prime destination for Chinese in search of higher education. Most sought instruction in practical, technical subjects, such as engineering, agriculture, and medicine, which could be used to develop and strengthen their homeland. Many who passed through American institutions of higher learning left with positive feelings toward the United States, and especially toward their alma maters. In 1936, for example, Chinese alumni donated a massive 18th century stone stele in celebration of the 300th anniversary of Harvard College, a monument that still stands on Harvard’s campus today.

Several prominent Nationalist Chinese leaders acquired at least one degree from an American institution, which helped to cement ties between the two nations. For example, Minister of Finance and Foreign Minister Song Ziwon graduated from Harvard University; Premier and Legislative President Sun Ke graduated from the University of California-Berkeley and Columbia University; and Minister of Finance and Central Bank President Kong Xiangxi completed studies at Oberlin College and Yale University. Song Meiling, the wife of Jiang Jieshi (Chiang Kai-shek), attended Wellesley College. It was no coincidence that Ministers to the United States such as Alfred Sze (Si Shaoji) and Hu Shi also spent time at American universities—both attended Cornell University. This pattern of overseas study both predisposed many Chinese leaders to think well of the United States and meant that they formed strong ties with influential individuals and institutions there.

James Yen (Yan Yangchu), a Christian convert educated at Yale and Princeton, drew on his experiences in the United States to bring reform to rural China. Upon returning to his homeland, he founded the Mass Education Movement (MEM) and initiated literacy programs in Dingxian County, not far southwest of Beijing. About 1930, he expanded those programs to include training in agriculture, medicine, and other disciplines, in an effort to alleviate poverty, improve health, and build a stronger sense of community. Yen used his foreign connections to gain assistance and funding from many Americans, most importantly Selskar M. Gunn, Vice President of the Rockefeller Foundation, who was searching for ways to contribute to China’s rural development. Gunn provided crucial financial support to sustain the project and enable it to have a lasting impact on the immediate area. During the 1980s, local residents turned the MEM offices in Dingxian into a museum of local history in Yen’s honor, even though he had left the country during the 1940s. This was Chinese-American cooperation at its best.

Changes to U.S. Policy

Conditions began to improve for Chinese Americans on October 11, 1943 when President Franklin D. Roosevelt called upon the U.S. Congress to repeal decades of exclusionary legislation. In his address, he observed, “We must be big enough to acknowledge our mistakes of the past and to correct them. By the repeal of the Chinese exclusion laws we can correct a historic mistake and silence the distorted Japanese propaganda.”

President Roosevelt’s statement marked an important turning point in American opinion. In 1943, the Magnuson Act, named for its sponsor Senator Warren G. Magnuson, repealed the earlier restrictions, and set a quota of 105 Chinese immigrants to the United States per year. This was a small number, but the act also allowed many more people to qualify as immigrants exempt from the quota. Perhaps most importantly, Chinese could now become naturalized citizens. Chinese immigrants gained more respect in the United States, now that their homeland was an important wartime ally.
1. Create a chart documenting all exclusionary legislation.

2. Research the occupations of the Chinese during the period of 1900 through 1942. What percentage were professional occupations?

Exclusion by Law:

“The Magic Washer”
Political Cartoons:

“The most unkindest cut of all”


(Library of Congress: LC-USZ62-103089)
The first contact between the PRC and a major American corporation took place even before President Nixon’s visit to Beijing. In January 1972, the Chinese contacted RCA to install a satellite communication earth station in preparation for the visit. Americans quickly realized the potential of U.S.-China trade, and the National Council for U.S.-China Trade was established in Washington in 1973.

Even though diplomatic contact had been restored and the potential for profit was huge, American businessmen had little idea how to actually restart trade relations, since admission to the twice yearly Canton Trade Fair was by invitation only. In the spring of 1972, 21,000 international business people—including 20 from the United States—converged on Canton. During the early years, the Americans sold more goods to China than they bought, since China produced few export products. However, that began to change in September 1975, when a delegation from one of China’s foreign trade corporations visited the United States to get a better idea of the kind of products that Americans would buy.

As trade grew from $5 million in 1972 to $142 million in 1978, individual Chinese and Americans began to come in contact with each other. During the mid-1970s, about 400 Chinese came to the United States for technical training, and some Americans also were living in China. From 1974 to 1978, for example, Pullman-Kellogg installed eight ammonia fertilizer plants in China, with 140 American workers on-site.

The process of reform and opening initiated by Deng Xiaoping, the de facto leader of China at that time, was the single most important factor in pushing trade to the forefront. In their plans, Deng and other reformers emphasized the acquisition of Western technology to modernize China’s defense and its industrial, and consumer production capabilities. As China developed exchange programs with the United States, it placed the highest priority on such activities as sending Chinese doctors and scientists to the United States for study and training and bringing U.S. engineers to China as advisers.

To promote trade and foreign investment in the PRC, the Chinese established Special Economic Zones (SEZs) and joint ventures. These SEZs, and a larger number of open coastal cities with similar rules, in some way resembled the treaty ports of the 1920s and 1930s, where foreign-owned factories employed Chinese workers.
The joint venture, with majority Chinese interest, became the standard model for any foreign company wishing to set up production in China, in the SEZs or elsewhere. The foreign side of the joint venture provided the capital, technology, and export distribution, while the Chinese side made all of the legal and logistical arrangements necessary to open and staff the factories. As in the 19th century Canton system, the new Chinese companies were often run by government officials who took responsibility for their foreign partners.

After a 40-year hiatus in commercial relations, the two sides hurried to make up for lost time. American companies rushed to create joint ventures in far greater numbers than had gone to China in the early 20th century. Giants such as Coca-Cola and General Motors, hundreds of small companies, and even individual entrepreneurs, all wanted to establish a foothold in China. By 1986, more than 300 U.S. companies had signed contracts in China, valued at more than $2.5 billion, and countless others had made the attempt.

**MFN and the WTO**

Although bilateral trade expanded dramatically during the 1980s and 1990s, commercial relations did not always run smoothly. A major irritant was Congress’s annual debate on renewal of Most Favored Nation (MFN) status for China. First extended by President Jimmy Carter in 1979, difficulties continued until President Bill Clinton embarked on a policy of engagement in the mid-1990s. For China, the most significant trade issue in the 1990s was gaining admission to the World Trade Organization (WTO). Admission held numerous economic advantages, along with the symbolic value of being included in the world’s largest trading organization. After applying for membership in 1986, China faced several hurdles that prevented immediate entrance. The PRC gradually moved to comply with certain requirements for accession. Chinese officials lowered tariffs by over half and gradually made the national currency (the yuan, or renminbi) more easily convertible with other currencies. By the end of 1999, the United States dropped its opposition to China’s membership in the WTO. China received Permanent Normal Trade Relations (PNTR—previously MFN status) from the U.S. Congress in May 2000, and entered the WTO the following year.

Despite these and other difficulties, bilateral trade continued to expand throughout the years since normalization. This trade sparked China’s development of new technologies for industry, defense, and domestic consumption. It played an important role in stimulating China’s impressive economic growth over the last 25 years. These commercial ties also helped to raise profits for countless U.S. companies that invested in China and kept prices low for U.S. consumers. Thus, bilateral trade offered major benefits for both nations.
A Journey Shared:
The United States & China
200 Years of History

20th Century Relations, 1949–2000

After the Opening: Trade and Technology

1. Research some of the large American companies such, as Coca Cola, operating in China today. Categorize them into entertainment, technology, food, fashion, or finance. What category includes the greatest number of companies? Formulate a hypothesis as to why this is so.

2. Investigate the requirement for membership in the World Trade Organization.

3. We all consume items such as razors and clothes. Research the kinds of products that China now exports to the United States. Investigate how many products you can find with “Made in China” in them. Start the search in your own home first.

4. What does China import today? What are China’s needs? Compare and contrast needs in urban and rural settings.

5. Research the Chinese economy with regard to electricity.


7. Create a chart outlining the negative effects of the Three Gorges Dam Project.

8. In creating the Three Gorges dam, the population of the area of central China was effected. Research how the population was relocated.

9. In 1958, Mao’s plan the Great Leap Forward targeted the development of industry and agriculture and that China would have an economy that “rivaled America.” Research the “leaps” China has made in the past 50 years. Develop a logical argument to agree or disagree with regard to economy. Does China’s economy rival America’s?
A Journey Shared: The United States & China

Treaty After Treaty:
A Small Comparison of Treaties

Standard:
II. Time, Continuity, and Change
III. People, Places, and Environments
IV. Individuals, Groups, and Institutions
VI. Power, Authority, and Governance
IX. Global Connections

Grade Level: 9–12

Objectives: The student will:
✓ Analyze two major treaties affecting the China Trade in the 19th century
✓ Create a chart exploring similarities and differences of each article
✓ Draw conclusions as to the advantages and disadvantages for the United States and China

Time: 1–2 class periods, depending on level

Materials: Two different colors of construction paper
Copies of the Treaty of Nanking and the Treaty of Wang-xia
Four (4) large pieces of newsprint paper (poster board may be substituted)
Titled: “Treaty Name”
Markers in assorted colors
Four (4) blank pieces of newsprint for the second class Titled: “Treaty Name”

Procedures: First Class
1. Cut up one copy of each treaty by article. Keep separate.
2. Cut up construction paper in strips (approximately 6 strips to the sheet)
3. Assign one color to each treaty.
4. Using staples, glue, or tape, affix one or two Articles from each treaty to the construction paper strips.
5. Decide about grouping—individual/teams of two/ groups of 3/ Division of class in half.
6. Put all articles from one color in one container. Likewise, with the second color and so on.
7. Have students choose one or two strips of attached Articles from one container.
8. Have students paraphrase each article. (Put in their own words.)
9. Ask students to take their paraphrase of the chosen Article and affix it to the paper or poster board. (If working in groups or teams, discuss the articles and check for clarification if needed.)
10. Continue until all Articles from both Treaties are complete.
Second Class

1. Have students create a chart showing the similarities and differences of the Articles from all three treaties. Have students report on the newsprint.

2. Divide students into groups. Have them brainstorm the advantages and disadvantages to America, Britain, and China. Is there one country that gets preferential treatment?

Extension Activities:

Essays

1. Ask students to write an essay defending the reasoning of one of the treaties. Make sure that the Articles of the chosen treaty are referenced in the essay.

2. Write a reflection paper with regard to the Treaties studied. How do you feel about the relationships that the treaties established with China?
Draft

My dear Senator:

I read your telegram of February eleventh from Reno, Nevada with a great deal of interest and this is the first time in my experience, and I was ten years in the Senate, that I ever heard of a Senator trying to discredit his own Government before the world. You know that isn’t done by honest public officials. Your telegram is not only not true and an insolent approach to a situation that should have been worked out between man and man but it shows conclusively that you are not even fit to have a hand in the operation of the Government of the United States.

I am very sure that the people of Wisconsin are extremely sorry that they are represented by a person who has as little sense of responsibility as you have.

Sincerely yours,

[HST]
A Journey Shared:
The United States & China

Under the Surface:
Critical Thinking and Analysis

This reference work is in addition to the documentary script and lessons and will prove to be an invaluable resource that will give your students scholarly opportunities to delve deeper into topics that rarely are addressed in classroom study. All questions appearing at the ends of the chapters are posed at the DOK (Depth of Knowledge) level of three or four, which address critical thinking. Furthermore, the questions are suitable for use as stand-alones for portfolio, capstone, or senior projects as required by No Child Left Behind.

Standard:

I. Culture  
II. Time, Continuity, and Change  
III. People, Places, and Environment  
IV. Individuals, Groups, and Institutions  
V. Individuals, Groups, and Institutions  
VI. Power, Authority, and Governance  
VII. Production, Distribution, and Consumption  
VIII. Science, Technology, and Society  
IX. Global Connections  
X. Civic Ideals and Practices

Grade Level: 9–12

Objectives: The student will:
✓ Use print and electronic resources to conduct research  
✓ Create questionnaires  
✓ Create charts and graphs to illustrate information and trends  
✓ Develop and apply research skills to locate, gather, and organize information  
✓ Analyze information and draw conclusions about the data gathered  
✓ Prepare data for presentations  
✓ Write with evidence of a deep awareness of purpose and intended audience  
✓ Write with a distinct voice that stimulates the reader or listener to consider new perspectives on the addressed ideas or themes

Time: Various times

Materials: Internet access  
Library access  
Questions for students  
Teacher-made rubric that sets grading expectations

Procedures: Assign questions to individual students, teams, or groups or allow students to choose questions that suit their interests.
Political Cartoons:

“Unprepared--Doesn’t Have to Fight”

Cartoon: Chinese man, “China,” wearing yoke and ball and chain with tags: “This iron yoke from Japan,” “Kind regards of England,” “In token of Russia’s regard,” “Compliments of Germany,” and “France’s gift.” “At peace with all the world, compliments of [...]” on verso. Created between 1900 and 1918 by W. A. Rogers.

(Library of Congress: LC-USZ62-105101)
# U.S. Trade in Goods with China

(Imports, Exports, and Trade Balances in $billion)

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<th>Imports</th>
<th>Balance</th>
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Totals may not add up due to rounding

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Foreign Trade Statistics

http://www.census.gov/foreign-trade/balance/c5700.html
TREATY OF PEACE, AMITY, AND COMMERCIAL
WITH TARIFF OF DUTIES,
SIGNED AT WANG HIYA,
(IN THE OUTSKIRTS OF MACAO)
JULY 3, 1844.

The United States of America, and The Ta Tsing Empire, Desiring to establish firm, lasting, and sincere friendship between the two Nations, have resolved to fix, in a manner clear and positive, by means of a treaty or general convention of peace, amity, and commerce, the rules which shall in future be mutually observed in the intercourse of their respective countries: - For which most desirable object, the President of the United States has conferred full powers on their Commissioner Caleb Cushing, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States to China; and the August Sovereign of the Ta Tsing Empire on his Minister and Commissioner Extraordinary Tsiyeng, of the Imperial House, a vice Guardian of the Heir Apparent, Governor-general of the Two Kwang, and Superintendent General of the trade and foreign intercourse of the five ports.

And the said Commissioners, after having exchanged their said full powers, and duly considered the premises, have agreed to the following articles.

ARTICLE I.
There shall be a perfect, permanent, universal peace, and a sincere and cordial amity, between the United States of America on the one part, and the Ta Tsing Empire on the other part, and between their people respectively, without exception of persons or places.

ARTICLE II.
Citizens of the United States resorting to China for the purposes of commerce will pay the duties of import and export prescribed in the Tariff, which is fixed by and made a part of this Treaty. They shall, in no case, be subject to other or higher duties than are or shall be required of the people of any other nation whatever. Fees and charges of every sort are wholly abolished, and officers of the revenue, who may be guilty of exaction, shall be punished according to the laws of China. If the Chinese Government desire to modify, in any respect, the said Tariff, such modifications shall be made only in consultation with consuls or other functionaries thereto duly authorized in behalf of the United States, and with consent thereof. And if additional advantages or privileges, of whatever description, be conceded hereafter by China to any other nation, the United States, and the citizens thereof, shall be entitled thereupon, to a complete, equal, and impartial participation in the same.

ARTICLE III.
The citizens of the United States are permitted to frequent the five ports of Kwangchow, Amoy, Fuchow, Ningpo and Shanghai, and to reside with their families and trade there, and to proceed at pleasure with their vessels and merchandize to and from any foreign port and either of the said five ports, and from either of the said five ports to any other of them. But said vessels shall not unlawfully enter the other ports of China, nor carryon a clandestine and fraudulent trade along the coasts thereof. And any vessel belonging to a citizen of the United States, which violates this provision, shall, with her cargo, be subject to confiscation to the Chinese government.

ARTICLE IV.
For the superintendence and regulation of the concerns of the citizens of the United States doing business at the said five ports, the government of the United States may appoint Consuls, or other officers, at the same, who shall be duly recognized as such by the officers of the Chinese government, and shall hold official intercourse and correspondence with the latter, either personal or in writing, as occasions may require, on terms of equality and reciprocal respect. If disrespectfully treated or aggrieved in any way by the local authorities, said officers on the one hand shall have the right to make representation of the same to the superior officers of the Chinese Government, who will see that full inquiry and strict justice be had in the premises; and on the other hand, the said Consuls will carefully avoid all acts of unnecessary offence to, or collision with, the officers and people of China.

ARTICLE V.
At each of the said five ports, citizens of the United States lawfully engaged in commerce, shall be permitted to import from their own or any other ports into China, and sell there, and purchase therein, and export to their own or any other ports, all manner of merchandise, of which the importation or exportation is not prohibited by this Treaty, paying the duties which are prescribed by the Tariff herein before established, and no other charges whatsoever.

ARTICLE VI.
Whenever any merchant-vessel belonging to the United States shall enter either of the said five ports for trade, her papers shall be lodged with the Consul, or person charged with affairs, who will report the same to the commissioner of customs; and tonnage duty shall be paid on said vessel at the rate of five mace per ton, if she be over one hundred and fifty tons burden; and one mace per ton if she be of the burden of one hundred and fifty tons or under, according to the amount of her tonnage as specified in the register; said payment to be in full of the former charges of measurement and other fees, which are wholly abolished. And if any vessel, which having anchored at one of the said ports, and there paid tonnage duty, shall have occasion to go to any others of the said ports to complete the disposal of her cargo, the Consul, or person charged with affairs, will report the same to the commissioner of customs, who, on the departure of the said vessel will note in the port-clearance that the tonnage duties have been paid, and report the same to the other custom-houses; in which case on entering another port the said vessel will only pay duty there on her cargo, but shall not be subject to the payment of tonnage duty a second time.
ARTICLE VII.
No Tonnage duty shall be required on boats belonging to citizens of the United States, employed in the conveyance of passengers, baggage, letters, and articles of provision, or others not subject to duty to or from any of the five ports. All cargo-boats, however, conveying merchandise subject to duty shall pay the regular tonnage duty of one mace per ton, provided they belong to citizens of the United States, but not if hired by them from subjects of China.

ARTICLE VIII.
Citizens of the United States for their vessels bound in shall be allowed to engage pilots, who will report said vessels at the passes and take them into port; and when the lawful duties have all been paid they may engage pilots to leave port. It shall also be lawful for them to hire at pleasure, servants, compradors, linguists, and writers, and passage or cargo boats, and to employ laborers, seamen, and persons for whatever necessary service for a reasonable compensation to be agreed on by the parties, or settled by application to the consular officer of their government, without interference on the part of the local officers of the Chinese government.

ARTICLE IX.
Whenever merchant vessels belonging to the United States shall have entered port, the Superintendent of Customs, will, if he see fit, appoint custom-house officers to guard said vessels, who may live on board the ship or their own boats, at their convenience; but provision for the subsistence of said officers shall be made by the superintendent of customs, and they shall not be entitled to any allowance from the vessel or owner thereof; and they shall be subject to suitable punishment for any evasion practiced by them in violation of this regulation.

ARTICLE X.
Whenever a merchant-vessel belonging to the United States shall cast anchor in either of said ports, the supercargo, master, or consignee, will, within forty-eight hours deposit the ship’s papers in the hands of the consul, or person charged with the affairs of the United States; who will cause to be communicated to the superintendent of customs, a true report of the name and tonnage of such vessel, the names of her men, and of the cargo on board; which being: done, the superintendent will give a permit for the discharge of her cargo.

And the master, supercargo, or consignee, if he proceed to discharge the cargo without such permit, shall incur a fine of five hundred dollars; and the goods so discharged without permit shall be subject to forfeiture to the Chinese government. But if the master of any vessel in port desire to discharge a part only of the cargo, it shall be lawful for him to do so, paying duties on such port only, and to proceed with the remainder to any other ports.

Or, if the master so desire, he may, within forty-eight hours after the arrival, of the vessel, but not later, decide to depart without breaking bulk; in which case he will not be subject to pay tonnage or other duties or charges, until on his arrival at another port he shall proceed to discharge cargo, when he will pay the duties on vessel and cargo according to law. And the tonnage-duties shall be held to be due after the expiration of said forty-eight hours.

ARTICLE XI.
The Superintendent of Customs, in order to the collection of the proper duties, will, on application made to him through the Consul, appoint suitable officers, who shall proceed, in the presence of the captain, supercargo, or consignee, to make a just and fair examination of all goods in the act of being discharged for importation, or laden for exportation, on board any merchant vessel of the United States. And if dispute occur in regard to the value of goods subject to an ad valorem duty, or in regard to the amount of tare, and the same cannot be satisfactorily arranged by the parties, the question may, within twenty-four hours, and not afterwards, be referred to the said Consul to adjust with the Superintendent of Customs.

ARTICLE XII.
Sets of standard balances, and also weights and measures, duly prepared, stamped, and sealed, according to the standard of the customhouse at Canton, shall be delivered by the Superintendents of customs to the consuls at each of the five ports, to secure uniformity, and prevent confusion in measures and weights of merchandise.

ARTICLE XIII.
The tonnage duty on vessels belonging to citizens of the United States shall be paid on their being admitted to entry. Duties of import shall be paid on the discharge of the goods, and duties of export on the lading of the same. When all such duties shall have been paid, and not before, the Superintendent of Customs shall give a port-clearance, and the Consul shall return the ship’s papers, so that she may depart on her voyage. The duties shall be paid to the shroffs authorized by the Chinese government to receive the same in its behalf. Duties payable by merchants of the United States shall be received, either in specie silver or in foreign money, at the rate of exchange as ascertained by the regulations now in force. And imported goods, on their resale or transit in any part of the empire, shall be subject to the imposition of no other duty than they are accustomed to pay at the date of this Treaty.

ARTICLE XIV.
No goods on board any merchant vessel of the United States in port are to be transferred to another vessel, unless there be particular occasion therefor; in which case the occasion shall be certified by the Consul to the Superintendent of Customs, who may appoint officers to examine into the facts, and permit the transhipment. And if any goods be transshipped without such application, inquiry find permit, they shall be subject to be forfeited to the Chinese Government.

ARTICLE XV.
The former limitation of the trade of foreign nations to certain persons appointed at Canton by the government, and commonly called hong-merchants, having been abolished, citizens of the United States engaged in the purchase or sale of goods of import or export, are admitted to trade with any and all subjects of China without distinction; they shall not be subject to any new limitations, nor impeded in their business by monopolies or other injurious restrictions.

ARTICLE XVI.
The Chinese Government will not hold itself responsible for any debts which may happen to be due from subjects of China to citizens of the United States, or for frauds committed by them: but citizens of the United States may seek redress in law; and on suitable representation being made to the Chinese local authorities through the Consul, they will cause due examination in the premises, and take all proper steps to compel satisfaction. But in case the debtor be dead, or without property, or have absconded, the creditor cannot be indemnified according to the old system of the co-hong so called. And if citizens of the United States be indebted to
subjects of China, the latter may seek redress in the same way through the Consul, but without any responsibility for the debt on the part of the United States.

ARTICLE XVII.
Citizens of the United States residing or sojourning at any of the ports open to foreign commerce, shall enjoy all proper accommodation in obtaining houses and places of business, or in hiring sites from the inhabitants on which to construct houses and places of business, and also hospitals, churches and cemeteries. The local authorities of the two Governments shall select in concert the sites for the foregoing objects, having due regard to the feelings of the people in the location thereof: and the parties interested will fix the rent by mutual agreement, the proprietors on the one hand not demanding any exorbitant price, nor the merchants on the other unreasonably insisting on particular spots, but each conducting with justice and moderation. And any desecration of said cemeteries by subjects of China shall be severely punished according to law.

At the places of anchorage of the vessels of the United States, the citizens of the United States, merchants, seamen, or others sojourning there, may pass and repass in the immediate neighborhood; but they shall not at their pleasure make excursions into the country among the villages at large, nor shall they repair to public marts for the purpose of disposing of goods unlawfully and in fraud of the revenue.

And, in order to the preservation of the public peace, the local officers of government at each of the five ports, shall, in concert with the Consuls, define the limits beyond which it shall not be lawful for citizens of the United States to go.

ARTICLE XVIII.
It shall be lawful for the officers or citizens of the United States to employ scholars and people of any part of China without distinction of persons, to teach any of the languages of the Empire, and to assist in literary labors; and the persons so employed shall not, for that cause, be subject to any injury on the part either of the government or of individuals: and it shall in like manner be lawful for citizens of the United States to purchase all manner of books in China.

ARTICLE XIX.
All citizens of the United States in China, peaceably attending to their affairs, being placed on a common footing of amity and goodwill with subjects of China, shall receive and enjoy, for themselves and everything appertaining to them, the special protection of the local authorities of Government, who shall defend them from all insult or injury of any sort on the part of the Chinese. If their dwellings or property be threatened or attacked by mobs, incendiaries, or other violent or lawless persons, the local officers, on requisition of the Consul, will immediately dispatch a military force to disperse the rioters, and will apprehend the guilty individuals, and punish them with the utmost rigor of the law.

ARTICLE XX.
Citizens of the United States who may have imported merchandise into any of the free ports of China, and paid the duty thereof, if they desire to re-export the same, in part or in whole, to any other of the said ports, shall be entitled to make application, through their Consul, to the Superintendent of Customs, who, in order to prevent frauds on the revenue, shall cause examination to be made by suitable officers to see that the duties paid on such goods, as entered on the custom-house books, correspond with the representation made, and that the goods remain with their original marks unchanged, and shall then make a memorandum in the port-clearance, of the goods, and the amount of duties paid on the same, and deliver the same to the merchant; and shall also certify the facts to the officers of customs of the other ports. All which being done, on the arrival in port of the vessel in which the goods are laden, and everything being found on examination there to correspond, she shall be permitted to break bulk and land the said goods, without being subject to the payment of any additional duty thereon. But if, on such examination, the superintendent of customs shall detect any fraud on the revenue in the case, then the goods shall be subject to forfeiture and confiscation to the Chinese Government.

ARTICLE XXI.
Subjects of China who may be guilty of any criminal act towards citizens of the United States, shall be arrested and punished by the Chinese authorities according to the laws of China: and citizens of the United States, who may commit any crime in China, shall be subject to be tried and punished only by the Consul, or other public functionary of the United States, thereto authorized according to the laws of the United States. And in order to the prevention of all controversy and disaffection, justice shall be equitably and impartially administered on both sides.

ARTICLE XXII.
Relations of peace and amity between the United States and China being established by this Treaty, and the vessels of the United States being admitted to trade freely to and from the five ports of China open to foreign commerce, it is further agreed that in case at any time hereafter, China should be at war with any foreign nation whatever, and for that cause should exclude such nation from entering her ports, still the vessels of the United States shall not the less continue to pursue their commerce in freedom and security, and to transport goods to and from the ports of the belligerent parties, full respect being paid to the neutrality of the flag of the United States: Provided that the said flag shall not protect vessels engaged in the transportation of officers or soldiers in the enemy’s service; nor shall said flag be fraudulently used to enable the enemy’s ships with their cargoes to enter the ports of China; but all such vessels so offending shall be subject to forfeiture and confiscation to the Chinese Government.

ARTICLE XXIII.
The Consuls of the United States at each of the five ports open to foreign trade, shall make annually to the respective Governors-General thereof, a detailed report of the number of vessels belonging to the United States which have entered and left said ports during the year, and of the amount and value of goods imported or exported in said vessels, for transmission to and inspection of the Board of Revenue.

ARTICLE XXIV.
If citizens of the United States have special occasion to address any communication to the Chinese local officers of government, they shall submit the same to their consuls, or other officer, to determine if the language be proper find respectful, find the matter just and right; in which event he shall transmit the same to the appropriate authorities for their consideration and action in the premises. In like manner, if subjects of China have special occasion to address the consul of the
in regard to the local authorities, but the Chinese government will not make indemnity for the goods lost.

ARTICLE XXVII.
If any vessel of the United States shall be wrecked or stranded on the coast of China, and be subjected to plunder or other damage, the proper officers of government on receiving information of the fact, will immediately adopt measures for their relief and security; and the persons on board shall receive friendly treatment, and be enabled at once to repair to the most convenient of the free ports, and shall enjoy all facilities for obtaining supplies of provisions and water. And if a vessel shall be forced in whatever way to take refuge in any port other than one of the free ports, then in like manner the persons on board shall receive friendly treatment, and the means of safety and security.

ARTICLE XXVIII.
Citizens of the United States, their vessels and property, shall not be subject to any embargo; nor shall they be seized or forcibly detained for any pretense of public service; but they shall be suffered to prosecute their commerce in quiet, and without molestation or embarrassment.

ARTICLE XXIX.
The local authorities of the Chinese Government will cause to be apprehended all mutineers or deserters from on board the vessels of the United States in China, and will deliver them up to the consuls or other officers for punishment. And if criminals, subjects of China, take refuge in the house or on board the vessels of citizens of the United States, they shall not be harbored or concealed, but shall be delivered up to justice, on due requisition by the Chinese local officers addressed to those of the United States.

The merchants, seamen, and other citizens of the United States, shall be under the superintendence of the appropriate officers of their government. If individuals of either nation commit acts of violence and disorder, use arms to the injury of others, or create disturbances endangering life, the officers of the two governments will exert themselves to enforce order, and to maintain the public peace by doing impartial justice in the premises.

ARTICLE XXX.
The superior authorities of the United States and of China, in corresponding together, shall do so in terms of equality, and in the form of mutual communication (cháu hwui). The Consuls, and the local officers civil and military, in corresponding together, shall likewise employ the style and form of mutual communication (cháu hwui). When inferior officers of the one government address superior officers of the other, they shall do so in the style and form of memorial (shin chin). Private individuals, in addressing superior officers, shall employ the style of petition (pin ching). In no case shall any terms or style be suffered which shall be offensive or disrespectful to either party. And it is agreed that no presents, under any pretext or form whatever, shall ever be demanded of the United States by China, or of China by the United States.

ARTICLE XXXI.
Communications from the government of the United States to the court of China shall be transmitted through the medium of the Imperial Commissioner charged with the superintendence of the concerns of foreign nations with China, or through the Governor-general of the Liang Kwang, that of Min and Cheh, or that of the Liang Kiang.

ARTICLE XXXII.
Whenever ships of war of the United States, in cruising for the protection of the commerce of their country, shall arrive at any of the ports of China, the commanders of said ships and the superior local authorities of Government, shall hold intercourse together in terms of equality and courtesy, in token of the friendly relations of their respective nations. And the said ships of war shall enjoy all suitable facilities on the part of the Chinese Government in the purchase of provisions, procuring water, and making repairs if occasion require.

ARTICLE XXXIII.
Citizens of the United States, who shall attempt to trade clandestinely with such of the ports of China as are not open to foreign commerce, or who shall trade in opium or any other contraband article of merchandise, shall be subject to be dealt with by the Chinese Government, without being entitled to any countenance or protection from that of the United States; and the United States will take measures to prevent their flag from being abused by the subjects of other nations, as a cover for the violation of the laws of the Empire.
ARTICLE XXXIV.
When the present convention shall have been definitively concluded, it shall be obligatory on both Powers, and its provisions shall not be altered without grave cause; but, inasmuch as the circumstances of the several ports of China open to foreign commerce are different, experience may show that inconsiderable modifications are requisite in those parts which relate to commerce and navigation: in which case, the two Governments will, at the expiration of twelve years from the date of said convention, treat amicably concerning the same, by the means of suitable persons appointed to conduct such negotiation.

And when ratified, this Treaty shall be faithfully observed in all its parts by the United States and China, and by every citizen and subject of each. And no individual State of the United States can appoint or send a minister to China to call in question the provisions of the same.

The present Treaty of peace, amity, and commerce, shall be ratified and approved by the President of the United States, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate thereof, and by the August Sovereign of the Ta Tsing Empire, and the ratifications shall be exchanged, within eighteen months from the date of the signature thereof, or sooner if possible.

In Faith Whereof, We, the respective Plenipotentiaries of the United States of America, and of the Ta Tsing Empire, as aforesaid, have signed and sealed these Presents. Done at Wang Shia, this third day of July, in the Year of our Lord Jesus Christ, one thousand eight hundred and forty-four; and of Taoukwung, the twenty-fourth year, fifth month, and eighteenth day.

C. CUSHING [Seal]
[Signature and seal of TSIYENG]
The Siege of the Legations:
Watercolor of a Boxer, 1900

Drawing: Koekkoek, Wikimedia
A Journey Shared: 
The United States & China

Political Cartoons:
“Well, I hardly know which to take first”


(Library of Congress: LC-USZ62-91465)
What Do You Really Know?

Note: Most people have some knowledge of large countries or those countries that appear to be large because of the leadership positions taken on world affairs. In this assessment, you may find a partner, form a group, or work entirely on your own to assess your knowledge about China and its shared journey with the United States BEFORE BEGINNING THIS UNIT. Do not worry if you do not have all the answers.

Standard:

I. Culture
III. People, Places, and Environments
IV. Individual Development and Identity
V. Individuals, Groups, and Institutions
VI. Power, Authority, and Governance
IX. Global Connections

Grade Level: 7–12

Objectives: The student will:
- Use prior knowledge to answer the questions in the matrix
- Relate key names and terms to each other and to a larger context
- Function as a member of a group, or as an independent learner

Time: 1–2 class periods, depending on class level

Materials: China Knowledge Assessment worksheets, newsprint, or overhead transparencies, markers

Procedures:

1. Organize students into groups, teams, or as an independent assignment.
2. Pass out China Knowledge Assessment worksheet.
3. Give students time to fill in the matrix.
4. Upon completion, students may fill in answers to questions for the class to view, or have students present their knowledge to other groups. Teacher may use a transparency of the worksheet and blanks may now be filled in. Extension activity may also be used here.

Extension Activities:

1. Give students a map of Asia and allow them to fill in the countries that surround China.
2. Research questions not filled in on the matrix may be assigned as a homework assignment.
From World War to Cold War

The post-World War II period was one of great difficulty for U.S.-China relations. While President Harry S Truman and Chairman Mao Zedong both showed a willingness to continue normal bilateral relations, international and domestic events drove the two countries far apart. In December 1945, Truman sent General George C. Marshall to negotiate Communist and Nationalist participation in a coalition government. Marshall’s mission ended in failure, and he returned to Washington in January 1947 to become Secretary of State.

The Department of State Hands

During the late 1940s, the Department of State relied on the expertise of its “China Hands.” Some Foreign Service officers, such as John Paton Davies and John Stewart Service, had been born in China and had long years of service in the Far East. Davies was instrumental in creating the U.S. Army Observer Group in Yan’an during the war, and Service was the first U.S. diplomat sent to observe the Communists in July 1944. Their realistic assessment of Mao’s movement brought them under suspicion from Washington’s powerful “China Lobby,” which supported Chiang Kai-shek’s Nationalists. In August 1949, the Department of State published a white paper that praised the Department’s wartime reporting as balanced and incisive. It also concluded that the reporting had no impact on the Chinese civil war.

By 1949, the Communists gained control of the government and of mainland China. In April 1950, as O. Edmund Clubb, the last American diplomat in Beijing, lowered the flag at the U.S. Embassy for the final time, the political mood in Washington turned decisively against continued relations. The new and intense Cold War between the United States and the Soviet Union, the outbreak of the Korean War that June, and the domestic atmosphere resulting from McCarthyism, all came together to lead to a major turning point in U.S.-China relations.

President Truman felt that he had to halt the spread of communism in Asia, while Chairman Mao was not yet prepared to break with the Soviet Union. When U.S. and Chinese forces came to blows in Korea in October 1950, all hope of continued ties between Beijing and Washington vanished for the next generation.

A Gradual Thaw and Nixon’s “Opening to China”

During the late 1950s and early 1960s, a few isolated voices began to call for a reassessment of U.S. policy toward China. In May 1959, California Senator Clair Engle called for a more conciliatory approach to the PRC, while the Senate Foreign Relations Committee asked scholars to formulate alternative approaches to current U.S. policy. In December 1965, the
Department of State’s modification of its China travel ban signaled the first, very small thaw in attitudes toward China. Unfortunately, the impact of the Cultural Revolution within China, and the effect of the war in Vietnam on the United States prevented any further advances.

Only after Richard M. Nixon took office in 1969 did the United States and the PRC start decisively down the path towards formal relations. From the start of his administration, President Nixon privately signaled his willingness to change American policy toward China and begin a dialogue with Beijing. To do so, he enlisted the leaders of both France and Pakistan as intermediaries. In February 1971, Nixon referred to China as the People’s Republic of China for the first time, and in March the Department of State removed all restrictions on the use of U.S. passports for travel to China.

**Ping Pong Diplomacy**

In the spring of 1971, the United States Table Tennis Association team was one of a number of competitors participating at an international competition in Japan. An American player named Glenn Cowan missed the team bus and ended up riding on the PRC team bus. One of China’s top players, Zhuang Zedong, gave Cowan a silkscreen of the Hangzhou Mountains. A few days later Cowan presented Zhuang with a T-shirt with a red, white, and blue peace symbol. On April 6, 1971, the Chinese asked their startled American counterparts to visit China. More policy changes followed. On April 14, the United States allowed France to ship vehicles with American-made engines to China, breaking the long-time trade embargo. In April, Premier Zhou En-lai replied to a December 1970 message from President Nixon, paving the way for more intense bilateral exchanges.

Diplomatic backchannel communications culminated in National Security Advisor Henry Kissinger’s secret visit to Beijing in July 1971. Kissinger prepared the way for President Nixon’s historic trip to China in February 1972, dubbed by Nixon as “the week that changed the world.” Nixon and Mao agreed on the Shanghai Communiqué, a statement of broad principles rather than a plan for action, and an agreement to begin the process of reestablishing diplomatic ties. In 1973, both governments set up Liaison Offices in the other’s capital.

After a prolonged series of talks, the two sides agreed to normalize relations on January 1, 1979, during the administration of President Jimmy Carter. Under the terms of this agreement, the United States recognized the PRC as the sole legal government of China, “acknowledged the Chinese position that there is but one China and Taiwan is a part of China,” and stated that it would maintain cultural, commercial, and other unofficial relations with the people of Taiwan. In February 1979, Deng Xiaopeng became the first leader of the PRC to make an official visit to the United States.

Normalization did not mean the end of all disputes; rather, it brought with it a new emphasis on using diplomacy to deal with those disagreements that had previously been handled with generally antagonistic unilateral statements. In fact, these diplomatic channels both kept U.S.-China relations moving forward, and guided the two nations towards areas of growing common interest.
1. The “China Hands” were an element in Senator Joseph McCarthy’s telegram to President Harry S Truman. Research this telegram and cite the other “China Hands.”

2. Research the “Red Scare” and McCarthyism.

3. Research what individuals were included on the BLACK LIST. What were the ramifications of being blacklisted?

4. Ping pong diplomacy and shuttle diplomacy are attributed to President Richard Nixon and his National Security Advisor (and later Secretary of State) Henry Kissinger. Research the events that lead to President Nixon’s historic trip to China in 1972.

5. Transportation improvements were on the rise especially for aeronautics. Research how the new technology aided diplomacy efforts especially with the Chinese.