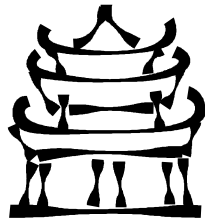


CHINA ORIENTATION HANDBOOK

A GUIDE TO TRAVELING, LIVING,
WORKING AND STUDYING IN CHINA FOR
FACULTY & STUDENTS



Institute of Chinese Studies (ICS)
Florida Gulf Coast University

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DRAFT

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FOREWARD

China today is arguably the most rapidly changing country in the world – both culturally and economically. These days, in cities throughout China, it is not unusual to see old men driving mule-driven carts being passed by brand-new BMW and Mercedes sedans. Modern China is a land of paradox, and it's becoming increasingly so in this era of unprecedented socioeconomic change.

Relentless change – seen so clearly in projects like the Yangtze River dam and the resulting relocation of thousands of people – has been an elemental part of China's modern character. Violent revolutions in the 20th century, burgeoning population growth (China is the world's most populous country) and economic prosperity (brought about largely by increasing openness to the outside world) have almost made that change inevitable. China's cities are being transformed – Beijing and Shanghai are probably the most dynamic cities in the world right now. And the country's political position in the world is rising. China was granted World Trade Organization membership status in 2001 and the 2008 Olympics will be held in Beijing.

China has always been one of the most attractive travel destinations in the world because of its rich history, increasing modernization, and growing international prominence. China's rice paddies may have sprouted cities and manufacturing centers, and the streets may be clogged with cars and pollution, but the people remain rooted in a rich cultural heritage. They still burn *joss sticks* and consult *feng shui* experts for good luck in an enterprise – even as they iron out the details of that enterprise on a cell phone. From the windswept plains of the Gobi Desert and Mt Everest's notorious northern face to its vast cities with modern glass skyscrapers and bustling shopping centers, China is a country of great contrasts.


The most important aspect of your experience, however, is about the people you will meet, the friendships you will forge, and the difference you will make in the lives of those you encounter. The most important prerequisite for a favorable experience in China will be an open mind. Those who go with an open mind and try to understand rather than judge typically have the most favorable experiences. Being prepared physically, emotionally and culturally is essential. Those who benefit most will do so because they

come to learn more about the country, its people and its culture so that they may return home better able to teach others about China.

To fulfill the goals of the Institute for Chinese Studies, this program must benefit equally Nankai University and Florida Gulf Coast University. In addition to teaching responsibilities, FGCU faculty may work with Nankai faculty colleagues on collaborative research, on compiling acquisitions lists for an American Studies resource room, on designing new courses, or on organizing national or international American Studies conferences. Faculty and students should also take advantage of opportunities to deepen their understanding of China through activities such as travel to other universities and regions in China, besides the exploration and interaction with students and faculty of Nankai University.

This guide is designed to give you the background necessary to prepare for your experience in China. Parts I, II, and III **must** be read in their entirety by all participating faculty, students, and their families. Part IV is an optional background section on China but it is strongly recommended reading as well. This guide is by no means comprehensive and we suggest further readings as well as discussions with others who have taught, studied or traveled in China. Being informed and prepared will allow you the greatest chance for success in and out of the classroom. China is rapidly changing and the information contained in this guide may be obsolete at times. We encourage your feedback so we may keep this guide as current and relevant as possible.

Thank You!



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II. CHINESE ETIQUETTE & PROTOCOL

A. Getting to Know Each Other

1. **Greetings and Introductions.** The Chinese usually do not like to do business with strangers, and will make frequent use of go-betweens. Whenever possible, try to use established relationships, or an intermediary known by both sides, to make the first contact. Chinese prefer to be formally introduced to someone new. This applies to both Chinese and foreigners.

The Chinese may seem unfriendly when being introduced. They are taught not to show excessive emotion, thus the reference to Chinese and other Asians as inscrutable. Always stand up when being introduced and remain standing throughout the introductions. When being introduced to Chinese, the accepted form of greeting is the handshake, even among Chinese. Chinese may also nod or slightly bow (Unlike the Japanese, the Chinese bow from the shoulders rather than the waist). One would then present a business card.

2. **Business Card Etiquette.** Use both hands when presenting business cards and be sure the writing faces the person to whom you are presenting your card. Cards should also be received with both hands. Do not immediately put the card in a pocket or bag-this is considered rude. Follow with the standard "I am pleased to meet you, or "ni hao" in Chinese. When seated, place cards on the table. This shows respect and is also an excellent way to remember names. Business cards should be printed in English on one side and Chinese on the other. Be sure to use simplified Chinese characters for China, not the classical characters used in Hong Kong and Taiwan. If traveling to China and Taiwan or Hong Kong, it is a good idea to put the different cards in separate boxes to avoid mix-ups. Remember that China is the People's Republic of China and Taiwan is the Republic of China
 3. **Titles & Forms of Address.** The Chinese will state their last name first, followed by the given name (may be one or two syllables). For example, Liu Jianguo, in Chinese would be Mr. Jianguo Liu using the Western style. Never call someone by only his or her last name. Unless specifically asked, do not call someone by his or her first name. Addressing someone by his or her courtesy or professional title and last name conveys respect. In Chinese the name precedes the title. For example, Liu Xiansheng for Mr. Liu, and Liu Jingli for Manager Liu. Women's names cannot be distinguished from men's names. Chinese women use their maiden names even after marriage, but may indicate marital status by using Mrs., Ms., Miss, or Madam. Mrs. Wang might be married to Mr. Liu.
- Chinese who frequently deal with foreigners or travel abroad on business may adopt a Western first name, such as David Liu. They may request that they be referred to as David, once a relationship has been established. Do not use the term "comrade" in China

4. **Personal Questions & Compliments.** Do not be surprised when asked personal questions regarding age, marital status, children, family, income, job, etc. This is done to seek common ground. On the other hand, the Chinese will be uncomfortable with American familiarity, particularly early in a relationship. The arm around the shoulder or pat on the back with "just call me Bob" approach should be left at home.
 - Unlike the Western custom, compliments are not graciously accepted with a "thank you," but rather with "not at all or it was nothing." Accepting and giving direct praise is considered poor etiquette. Do not be gushy with thank you.
5. **Social Distance, Touching & Gestures.** Every culture defines proper distance. Westerners, particularly Americans, find that the Chinese comfort zone regarding distance is a bit too close for their comfort. Instinctively Westerners may back up when others invade their space. Do not be surprised to find that the Chinese will simply step closer.
 - The Chinese do not like to be touched, particularly by strangers. Do not hug, back slap or put an arm around someone's shoulder. Do not be offended if you are pushed and shoved in a line. The Chinese do not practice the art of lining up and courtesy to strangers in public places is not required. People of the same sex may walk hand-in-hand as a gesture of friendship in China.

Western gestures that are taboo in China include:

- Pointing the index finger--use the open hand instead.
- Using the index finger to call someone--use the hand with fingers motioning downward as in waving.
- Finger snapping. Showing the soles of shoes.
- Whistling is considered rude.

Chinese customs that are annoying to Westerners:

- Belching or spitting on the street .
- Lack of consideration when smoking and failure to ask permission to smoke.
- Slurping food.
- Talking while eating

- B. **Dining & Entertainment Etiquette & Protocol.** Entertaining guests at a Chinese banquet is an important way of establishing guanxi. For more formal banquets, invitations will be sent and place cards will be at the table. Guests should sample all of the dishes and leave something on the plate at the end of the meal. A clean plate indicates you are still hungry and it is the host's responsibility to see that you are continually served food and drink. Under no circumstances should chopsticks be placed in the rice standing up. This symbolizes death.

There are no firm rules regarding dinner conversation. Depending on the closeness of the relationship, business may or may not be discussed. Follow host's lead. Drinking is an important part of Chinese entertaining and is considered a social lubricant. The drinking officially begins after the host offers a short toast to the group. It is always a good idea for the guest to return the toast either right away or after a few courses have been served. (This differs by geographic area, so we need to be sure to ask Dr. Zhang the appropriate time for the return toast.) Safe topics for toasts are friendship, pledges for cooperation, the desire to reciprocate the hospitality, and mutual benefit. The Chinese understand if you are unable to drink alcohol. Stating medical reasons is always a good way to get out of drinking alcohol. The most common expression for toasting is Gan bei, meaning "dry cup", or bottoms up. The Chinese are not as understanding of tipsy guests as are the Japanese or Koreans. If you feel you have had enough, smile and politely indicate this to your host. Do not pour your own drink. It shows a lack of protocol. Do not underestimate the importance of participating in dining and after-dinner entertainment. It is an excellent way to build guanxi.

C. Gift Giving. Gifts are an important way of creating and building guanxi in China. Chinese etiquette requires that a person decline a gift, invitation, and other offerings two or three times before accepting. It is expected that the giver will persist, gently, until the gift is accepted. Be sensitive to genuine refusals.

- Chinese and Westerners differ in the approach to gifts. In the West, a sincere thank you or a thank you note is an acceptable way to extend appreciation. In China, a more tangible form, or gift, is preferred.
-
- Never give a gift that would make it impossible for the Chinese to reciprocate- this would cause a loss of face and place them in a very difficult position. The Chinese usually do not open gifts at the time they receive them. When receiving gifts from the Chinese, do not open them unless they insist.

Gifts should reflect the giver and the recipient. Consider gifts from your area. Gifts with a company logo are fine as long as they do not include things that are considered taboo and are not too showy. Gifts of foreign cigarettes, cognac, fine whisky, quality wines are acceptable. Do not give anything in sets of four or gifts that carry the association of death or funerals such as clocks, cut flowers, white objects. Do not give scissors or anything sharp as it symbolizes severing relations. Be cautious when giving food items-it can suggest poverty. Always wrap gifts, but do not use white paper-it symbolizes death. Red and gold are the best. Avoid elaborately wrapping gifts. Never write anything in red ink.

I. PRE-DEPARTURE PLANNING¹

A. **U.S. Passport.** A valid U.S. passport is an essential requirement for any United States citizen to travel to China. To obtain a passport, one may consult any of the passport agencies in major American cities, or the local post office or city hall in smaller cities, for application procedures. This site <http://iafdb.travel.state.gov/> will allow you to find the nearest location to apply for a passport. It is provided by the Department of State's Bureau of Consular Affairs, Office of Passport Services/Customer Service, which designates many post offices, clerks of court, public libraries and other state, county, township, and municipal government offices to accept passport applications on its behalf.

Processing a passport application may take up to six weeks. Needed to apply for a passport is a birth certificate or a previously issued passport as proof of citizenship and identification as well as two 2" x 2" signed passport pictures with full face exposure, taken not more than two years ago. There will be a charge. We suggest you make a copy of your Passport and keep several copies in different locations. Carry one copy with you at all times while in China.

B. **Chinese Visa.** After obtaining a valid U.S. Passport, all travelers to China also must obtain the appropriate Chinese Entry Visa. The Institute of Chinese Studies (ICS) in the College of Business at Florida Gulf Coast University will assist all faculty and students through the process of obtaining the appropriate required Chinese Visa. Faculty and students will be responsible for paying the required fees to the Embassy of the Peoples' Republic of China. Please note that you must first have a valid U.S. Passport in order to obtain a Visa to China for entry into China.

C. **Travel to China.** Faculty and students should plan to arrive in Beijing according to the instructions provided by the staff of the ICS. The ICS will have current information on the dates of the orientation and instructions for preferred arrival

¹ Portions of Part I and Part II of this Handbook were borrowed and edited from the "Fulbright China Guide for US Lecturers." American Center for Educational Exchange. Public Affairs Section. U.S. Embassy – Beijing, P.R. China. May 2005. Other parts were adapted from experience working and living in China.

procedures and dates in China.

Faculty and students should follow the instructions regarding their arrival in China on a specific day, usually one day prior to the orientation, and during a designated time window. Faculty and students should not arrive earlier than that date for a variety of reasons. Arriving as instructed ensures that faculty and students will not spend any appreciable length of time in China before receiving the health and security briefings. In addition, the ICS staff will be better able to pick up faculty and students at the Beijing airport if they arrive on certain indicated days. Faculty and students should not expect to be able to occupy their university residences (and leave luggage) before the date specified by the ICS staff because Nankai University may not be ready to receive and assist them.

Faculty and students should make flight reservations early in order to avoid scheduling problems on the limited number of flights to Beijing. All travelers should inform the ICS staff no later than two weeks before arrival in Beijing of their flight itinerary, including flight numbers, departure date from the U.S., arrival date, and expected time of arrival in Beijing. Be prepared for delays, over-booked flights, and cancellations. It might be a good idea to reserve a seat in the emergency exit row for the leg from the United States to Beijing to give you additional leg room. The leg from the United States to China can take as long as 15 hours.

Airport signs in China are in English and generally easy to follow. Follow the signs to clear customs. You will need to show your passport, visa and declaration form. You may also have to fill out a health form. All of these forms are generally handed out on your inbound flight or are available on the way to the Customs gate. It is a good idea to carry a pen with you on your flight. When asked for your intended destination or residence, put the school name on the form. After clearing customs you can pick up your baggage and proceed to the exit area. There is only one exit area so it is not too difficult to find your contact there if needed. ICS staff will arrange to pick you up at the Beijing Airport and take you to Nankai University in Tianjin.

When departing from Beijing, plan to arrive at least two hours before the flight departs. Expect long lines and delays when checking in. If you are traveling during holiday periods, you may need to allow additional time. You will need to pay an airport tax/construction fee before going to the check-in counter to get your boarding pass and you will need to show this receipt when you go through the security and check before you enter the boarding gates. The airport tax historically has been 50 Yuan for domestic flights and 90 Yuan for international flights. You will need to fill out a health form and a departure card when clearing customs and going to your gate.

Chinese airport security can be strict. Bottles with liquids are often opened to check or simply not permitted. Avoid any object that could be perceived as a weapon. Just as in the US, these items will be confiscated. Most security personnel speak some English. Remember when you go through security for domestic flights, you will be asked to show your passport, ticket with receipt and boarding pass, and airport tax receipt. Having these items ready will speed you through the process.

The airport is likely the first place in China that you will experience a lack of queuing (forming lines to obtain service). The Chinese generally do not form lines for most things unless required to do so. If you hesitate, someone is sure to cut in front of you. Cutting in line generally is not considered poor manners so do not take it that way.

- D. Baggage and Shipping Personal Effects.** Airlines limit the number, size and weight of luggage, and charge for excess, overweight and oversize baggage. Faculty and students should check with their airline for specific information as they make their travel plans.

We suggest that you travel light. Try to carry on bags when you have the opportunity. You are generally allowed 70 pounds on international flights and if you transfer to a domestic flight in China within twenty-four hours, you can avoid an excess baggage charge on this initial leg of your journey. You will only be permitted twenty kilos or about 44 pounds on domestic flights. The excess baggage fee is charge by the kilo and can be several hundred Yuan if you have a lot

of weight. A good strategy is to have one bag checked and one carry on. You may have a briefcase in addition to the carry on. Try to avoid bringing too much clothing. Clothing is relatively cheap and plentiful in China. Depending on your budget, you might consider purchasing some of the clothing you need there to avoid the inconvenience of taking so much with you when you go.

Carry on space can be tight on Chinese domestic flights but when possible, carry your luggage onto the plane with you. Make sure your carry-on piece will fit easily in an overhead bin. You can avoid an overweight fee by carrying on some of your luggage. Carry on heavy objects such as books and papers and check lighter items such as clothing to avoid the excess weight fee.

If you plan to purchase luggage, be sure to purchase heavy duty luggage. Straps are a good feature in addition to zippers. Zippers can burst. It is always a good idea to mark your bags with an unusual colored ribbon to make identification easier at the baggage carousel. Put identification tags inside as well as outside luggage. If you are a shopper, bring an extra or oversized bag to bring home your acquisitions. Beware you will have to clear customs and some items are not permitted entry back to the US.

- E. **Purchasing and Shipping Books.** Faculty should plan to bring copies of the textbooks and supporting materials they plan to use to teach their courses with them. The ICS will coordinate faculty and with Nankai University to ensure that students also have the required texts and supporting materials.

- F. **Personal Computers.** Chinese universities can seldom afford to purchase or maintain computers for the use of their entire faculty, and the equipment they have may be closely guarded or out-of-date. Faculty may find their personal computers indispensable for class preparation, especially if they use Power Point or other software for their lectures. Faculty should plan to bring portable computers and power surge protectors with them. Students also will likely find personal computers to be indispensable during their time in China.

If faculty or students plan to purchase computers or software in China, most internationally recognized brands of computers and supplies are generally

available. However, instruction manuals and programs are often only in Chinese, and reliability, quality and compatibility are potential problems. In addition, Chinese prices for computers, digital cameras, and other technology oriented products often are not significantly different from the prices you would pay in the United States. Print cartridges for most major brands and A4 paper (longer and narrower than U.S. 8.5" x 11" paper) are available, as are diskettes and CD's. Information about where to buy specific parts or accessories for a U.S. or locally purchased computer is sometimes difficult to find. Faculty and students should carry their laptop PC's on board the airplane with them if possible to avoid damage from rough handling.

G. Video Equipment. DVDs are currently the most commonly used format in China. In most cases, DVDs bought in the U.S. can be played on DVD players and computers in China. While CDs, CD-ROMs and DVDs are widely available throughout China, purchasing illegal copies only contributes to the abuse of intellectual property rights protection. The production and sale of pirated goods is against the law in China.

H. Checklist: Pre-Departure Preparations.

1. 12 Weeks before Departure.

- Make international travel reservations
- Obtain passports
- Begin inoculations, esp. Hepatitis B
- Apply for credit or telephone cards for use in China and/or from the U.S.
- Set up online banking services
- Consider supplemental health insurance purchase
- Order texts and reference books

2. 8 Weeks before Departure.

- Continue inoculations
- Draw up power of attorney with U.S. relative/friend
- Arrange for shipping of teaching or other materials
- Apply for Chinese visa

3. 4 Weeks before Departure.

- Assemble documents (see checklist "What to Bring" below)

- Photocopy all documents, leave one copy with U.S. relative/friend
- Provide U.S. relatives/friends with emergency contact information in China
- Ship unaccompanied air baggage, if any
- Purchase international tickets

4. 2 Weeks before Departure.

- Assemble air tickets, visa, and other documents
- Do a "practice" pack to see what fits in luggage and absolutely must go with you to China

I. Checklist: What to Bring.

1. Documents.

- Passports with visas
- Notarized medical examination forms for residence permit
- Extra passport photos, smaller 1 x 1 photos will be useful in China
- Travelers' checks
- Credit and ATM cards
- Bank number for wire transfers – routing number, account number and bank address, usually printed on personal checks
- Children's school records if faculty have accompanying dependents
- International health certificates or immunization records
- Family health record kit
- Health insurance card and claim forms
- Lecture notes for courses and Guest Lectures
- Tax return records
- Business cards for faculty (essential in China for first meetings; can be made in China with Chinese name and characters, inexpensively and quickly)
- Address and fax list for U.S. doctors, insurers, credit card companies, bank, relatives, friends
- Photocopies of all documents (keep one set in U.S.)

2. Health and safety items.

- Prescription medicines with documentation
- Extra eyeglasses or contacts and copy of prescription
- Disposable syringes
- Over-the-counter medicines (especially for children - colds, flu, headache, diarrhea)
- Bicycle helmet, rear view mirror, headlamp

II. ARRIVAL AND SETTLING IN.

A. **University Contacts.** Faculty and students will have two principal contacts at their "work unit" (danwei) - their host Nankai University. One is the FGCU Institute for Chinese Studies department representative. The other is the foreign affairs office (Waiban) at Nankai University that is responsible for administrative matters related to foreign professors, researchers, and students (in some cases, a departmental 'foreign affairs assistant' might be designated to attend to the tasks normally assigned to the foreign affairs office). The Waiban deals with questions concerning foreigner's residence permits (waiguoren juliuzheng), visas, housing, communications, and travel arrangements. Besides providing support and services for foreigners, the foreign affairs office can assist in mediating between faculty and students and university staff who are less acquainted with foreigners.

In practice, Chinese universities face a variety of obstacles that affect the ability of faculty and students to work closely with their Chinese counterparts. Stagnant faculty salaries, especially in the humanities and social sciences, push many faculty members to tutor or consult for extra income, sometimes at the expense of their primary job. Others, particularly young faculty, look to the burgeoning market economy for jobs outside academia. Chinese professors must adjust to the lack of administrative support (transportation, photocopiers, and library staff) during this transitional period as departmental budgets shrink and universities are forced to become economically self-sufficient.

For other types of support from locating the favored restaurants on campus to getting in touch with all of your students, each of your classes should have a class monitor. This prize pupil, nominated by his/her peers, will be able to assist with classroom-related needs, as well as some miscellaneous tasks.

B. **Course Load.** Faculty are expected to carry the same work load (3 courses or 9 credit hours per semester) in China at Nankai University as they do at FGCU in the United States. Class sizes vary from seminars with ten students to lecture courses with forty or more. As a general rule, faculty should not be expected to teach only undergraduate classes. If by mutual consent, a faculty member does teach undergraduate courses and there are more than 30 students in that course,

the faculty member will be provided an assistant to help with such things as translation, grading exams or other responsibilities as necessary for the course. Generally, class size should not exceed 50 students.

Activities outside of the teaching load (e.g., mentoring graduate students, developing curriculum, academic research projects) in which a university seeks a faculty member's participation should be discussed in advance to allow the faculty member adequate time to arrange a schedule. While such activities are encouraged, they may not be required of the faculty member without their concurrence.

In order to ensure that a faculty member has ample time to prepare for their teaching assignment, the Institute for Chinese Studies and Nankai University will arrange a teaching schedule as early as possible to allow adequate time to prepare a syllabus and to purchase and ship course materials. Once a faculty member arrives at Nankai, he or she should meet with the ICS staff to confirm the teaching plan, review room assignments, and class rosters.

Faculty may find that students or teachers drop in to your class or ask your permission to audit your lecture. This is a common practice in China. Chinese are often very interested in listening to native English speakers. Do not permit the auditing of your course by unregistered students. Your classroom may have limited space and students outside the program may prove distracting. All auditing must be approved by the program director first.

C. **ICS Faculty and other "Foreign Experts" at Nankai University.** "Foreign experts" or "foreign teachers," are very common at Nankai University and other Chinese campuses. Foreign experts are generally paid employees of the Chinese university or institution and their contractual commitments concerning teaching load - often eight to twelve contact hours per week -- are usually much heavier than those for ICS faculty. At most Chinese universities, foreign experts generally teach language courses, whereas ICS faculty are seasoned, highly qualified university professors who have been chosen to participate in the ICS program. Because foreign experts' salaries are considerably lower than those of

ICS faculty, foreign experts may be given certain privileges as part of their compensation package, such as subsidized air and train ticket prices and paid leave, compensation which is not always extended to ICS faculty.

- D. Teaching Philosophy.** Traditional Chinese culture emphasizes a teacher centered learning model. The relationship between student and teacher generally is formal. Chinese teachers will enter a classroom and stand or sit and lecture for the class usually with little interaction. Students are expected to take notes and memorize lessons. Chinese culture does not promote students offering their independent thoughts and opinions in class

Florida Gulf Coast University encourages a student centered learning model with a focus on experiential learning. We encourage students to take responsibility for their learning. We encourage faculty to engage students in class and use experiential exercises for learning. We expect students to develop a critical thought process and be able to express original ideas and conduct independent analysis. Because of the difference between the two models, faculty often will need to draw students out and into discussion. The dialectic approach does not come easily. Check with the ICS program director for specific strategies for your course.

- E. Tests, Assignments, and Academic Honesty.** We suggest frequent tests and assignments to provide timely feedback on how students are absorbing the course material. Frequent short assessments will allow you to gauge how students are doing and allow for adjustment. Students will likely do better if the material is divided into smaller pieces for digestion rather than large chunks.

Academic honesty by western standards is not always a widely practiced concept. Faculty must be explicit in explaining the standards for academic honesty. Explain that no credit will be given for an assignment or a failing grade in the course will result for violations concerning academic honesty. In some instances, students will copy directly from sources without citations for written assignments. Students also often cut and paste material from the Internet

without citations. If a paper appears to be written above the students' English level, it probably was written or copied from someone else or some other source. It is important to match your classroom observations of ability with student performance on papers and assignments.

Students will engage in a variety of sophisticated and unsophisticated methods to achieve higher test scores. The most common method is to identify the smartest student(s) in the class and strategically sit next to them during tests and exams. Since competition for seats adjacent to these students is fierce and usually accomplished by the second tier of intelligence in the class, students will resort to copying from any student they believe will provide them with answers. We suggest that you assign seating for exams and provide a space between students. If your classroom is too small, ask for a larger classroom when giving exams. Be prepared for a shocking display of cheating.

Instruct students not to look around during a test and to hand in the test when they are finished. It is common for students to finish a test and then expose the finished exam for others to copy. Students will resort to writing notes on the desk (in Chinese of course) to aid in the exam. Crib notes are also common either under a desk or in books or a jacket, etc. Students will also write notes in their person to provide an advantage during a test.

Instruct students to turn off their cell phones during class as well as during tests. Students will attempt to text message each other during an exam with information.

If you do not explain to students what is not permitted during an exam or test, they will feel that a practice that has not been excluded is fair game. Students may be brash enough to cheat in front of you and act as if nothing has happened.

Do not leave papers unattended on your class room desk/podium. Students may think nothing of going through your papers if you leave the room. Especially if they think there may be a test or some grades in there.

Do not let a test or exam out of your sight. Escort your tests to be copied. It is not uncommon for students to approach other teachers and offer to purchase

test copies. Teacher may feel compelled to help students succeed and provide copies of tests to assist students.

III. LIVING IN CHINA.

A. General Introduction. China is the world's fourth largest country in land mass (after Russia, Canada, and US) and covers a total area of 9.6 million square kilometers (3.7 million square miles). The major cities are Beijing (capital), Shanghai, Tianjin, Guangzhou, Shenyang, Wuhan, and Chengdu. The population was estimated at 1.3 billion as of July 2004.

1. **Time.** The local time throughout China is Eastern Standard Time (EST) plus 12 hours. For example, when it is 9:00 AM in Ft. Myers, it is 9:00 PM in the evening in China on the same date. China does follow daylight savings time. When the US moves to daylight savings time, the time difference between China and the US will be 13 hours. If you have not experienced an extreme time change when traveling, be prepared for jetlag. You may want to consult your physician for advice.
2. **Language.** Standard Chinese or Mandarin (Putonghua, based on the Beijing dialect), Yue (Cantonese), Wu (Shanghainese), Minbei (Fuzhou), Minnan (Hokkien-Taiwanese), Xiang, Gan, Hakka dialects, and other minority languages.
3. **Currency and Exchange.** The currency used in China is the Renminbi (RMB) which can be translated literally as Peoples' Money. It is also called the Yuan (¥) and until July 2005, the value was pegged to the US dollar at 8.27 RMB per US dollar. In July 2005, the exchange rate system was changed so that the RMB is not pegged to a "basket" of currencies (which includes the US dollar) rather than to the dollar alone. The Yuan is divided into 10 jiao or 100 fen. Notes come in denominations of ¥100, 50, 10, 5, 2, and 1. Make sure you exchange your left over Yuan before returning home because it can be exchanged only within China's borders.

Currency is easily exchanged at the Beijing (and Shanghai) airport..
Expect to pay a fee when you exchange currency. Make sure that you bring

clean, new one hundred dollar bills for exchange. U.S. currency will be closely inspected to insure that it is not counter-fit. Bills are often rejected because they have a pen mark on them or some other blemish. Don't assume that you can exchange smaller bills. The bank of China is the only bank in China that is authorized to do currency exchange. It may not be convenient to exchange money at your final destination so the airport is a safe bet.

It is difficult to recommend how much currency to bring. Don't assume that credit cards and travelers checks will be accepted. Unfortunately, the one hundred Yuan note (about \$12) is the largest bill in China. Be prepared to carry a large wad of Yuan if you exchange a large amount of dollars. It is possible to get a cash advance or use an ATM but do not count on it. Expect a cash advance fee and a bank fee when you do this. Again, the bank of China is your best bet. Most US credit cards will charge you a 3% currency exchange fee to use your card over seas. So remember you may encounter a cash advance fee, a bank fee and a currency exchange fee for using your credit card. Check with your credit card company before you depart the U.S.

As always, use common sense when handling money. Although China is very safe as a rule, do not flash large amounts of cash. Divide your funds and keep them in separate locations on your person..

Negotiating the price of items is common in markets in China. However, negotiating price is not the rule in most large department stores. When you can negotiate, assume that you can negotiate 40% off most prices of goods. This is true for hotels also. Most hotels have one price for foreigners and another for Chinese. Expect Beijing and Shanghai to have western prices for most things though. The prices in the provinces are usually lower. If the merchant starts with too high a price however, you may have to walk away. They will loose face by dropping their price too low.

4. **Electricity.** Electrical current is 220 volts, 50Hz. Plug types vary but the two- narrow-pin type are most common. Adapters are generally required and can be obtained at many stores in China. Power outages are relatively

common in China. Faculty should make contingency plans for classis if the power goes out and they use electronic devices as teaching aids.

5. **Important Numbers.** The international access code for China is 86. The outgoing code is 00 followed by the relevant country code.

In the event of an emergency:

110 for Local Police

114 for Operator

119 for Fire Department

120 for Medical Emergencies

122 for Traffic Emergencies

The number of digits in Chinese phone numbers is not fixed - it can be as few as six and as many as ten.

6. **Media.** English services are available on both radio and television in China. China Radio International is popular for both news and music. On Chinese cable television, China Central Television channel 9 (CCTV-9) offers English-only programming, which includes international news, cultural programs, and a Dialogue show. Satellite television, offering CNN, BBC, HBO-Asia, and Star-TV is available only in venues catering to foreigners.

Major international papers and magazines are available in most international hotels in major cities, and college and university libraries receive some subscriptions. If you are in Beijing or a city with a U.S. consulate, you might also check with the Information Resource Center (IRC) for publications or online journals otherwise hard to find.

7. **Climate.** Tianjin and New York are at approximately the same latitude, with similar weather except that Tianjin is much drier. Guangzhou and Miami share similar latitudes and subtropical climates. Changchun winters approach those in upstate New York, but with less snow. Xi'an winters and summers are quite similar to those in Beijing but more moderate.

Temperatures in Shanghai, Wuhan and Xiamen stay above freezing through the winter, but the climate is wet and buildings are not heated. Chengdu is considerably wet and cloudy except for the few warm summer months.

8. **Dining.** Nankai University provides dining rooms where foreign professors and students may eat. Also nearby are a variety of restaurants and cafes. For cooking at home, you might consider buying a microwave oven which are quite inexpensive in China. For drinking water, you might arrange to have large water bottles delivered to your apartment.

Chopsticks (or *kuai zi*) are normally used for dining. Do not expect to find western table ware everywhere you dine. We suggest you practice before you travel to China. Your hosts will be impressed if you can master the use of chopsticks. Food is usually brought in dishes and placed in the center of the table to be shared. A small bowl or plate is placed in front of you to be used as a plate. Just take what you want with your chopsticks. Often a Chinese spoon is provided for soups and other similar dishes.

Chinese table manners are different from western table manners. You may find this liberating or offensive depending on your views. Since many meat items have bones, it is acceptable to spit them on the table and leave a pile there. You are expected to eat first before your host begins.

Tea is usually served with every meal. If you are offered beer (*pi jiu*) or rice wine (*bai jiu*), beware that you may be inviting a drinking contest. *Bai jiu* generally is a type of rice grain alcohol and is very strong. When it comes to the consumption of alcohol, your host may feel obligated to keep pace glass for glass or expect the same of you. This will often lead to karaoke singing.

The guest is usually seated to the right of the most important person at the table. Look for your host to point out your seat. If you clean your plate your host is likely to order more food. You should Leave a little food on your plate to show that you are full and appreciative.

There may often be a lot of slurping, belching, spitting and other non-western table manners going on during your meal. It may be common to eat and talk with one's mouth wide open. Do not be surprised at this and feel free to join in as you like.

Smoking is popular in China (mainly among men) and you may find yourself surrounded by smokers during or after the meal. Don't be surprised if your host and others at the table offer you cigarettes before, during, and after your meal.

The meal often will progress in courses. Pace yourself because there may be large gaps of time between courses. The fish course is often the second to last followed by fruit. This is a sure sign that things are winding down. Chinese meals often end abruptly when the host stands and signals things are done. Pay attention to this and do not continue eating or drinking when this happens.

9. **Clothing.** The Chinese are accustomed to wearing a very limited wardrobe. It is not uncommon to wear the same clothes for several days in a row. That being said, you can pack light with no need for many changes of clothes. For faculty, professional dress is suggested for the classroom and interaction with school officials. Laundry can be done simply at most schools either by hand or machine. Do not expect an automatic dryer. Clothes are usually air dried. We suggest fabrics that are easy care and wrinkle free.

10. **Social and Cultural Norms.** The relationship between a host and guest in China should be understood by Westerners. It is the obligation the ICS staff to make sure that you are comfortable and your requests are attended to. Please be sure to make any requests that you might have to the ICS staff. If you make a request of a Nankai representative and the request cannot be met, the Nankai representative may "lose face" if he or she can not accommodate the request. During your stay in China, you may make a request of someone who will answer yes but then not follow-up on the request. This means that it may not be possible to accommodate your request but the person you make the request of can not tell you this. This paradox is awkward at first but with some sensitivity, you will grow to understand this custom. Try not to be too demanding. Always leave a native Chinese person a way to say no without "losing face".

Gifts are common in Chinese culture. Gifts need not be expensive but as they say, it is the thought that counts. You may receive a gift upon arrival or departure. It may be good manners to present some token of your appreciation to your hosts. Be sensitive to the hierarchy of who's who when doing this. Some simple gift items brought from the U.S. including FGCU gift items are often crowd pleasers.

When interacting with your hosts, it is only common to focus on the English speaking members present. Try to determine who the key leaders are in the group and attempt to communicate with them through an interpreter if they do not speak English. This will show respect for the social order amongst your hosts.

Faculty may sometimes be asked how much he or she earns. This is a common question in China since it is common for people to know everything about everybody. Teachers in China are highly respected but modestly paid. Teachers will earn between 1000 and 5000 Yuan per month (\$125 to \$625) depending on rank and tenure. What may appear to be minor expenditures for US faculty may represent large expenditures for Chinese colleagues. Please be sensitive to this. We discourage you from discussing your compensation with your hosts.

There is no drinking age in China. It is common to see beer served in cafeterias. Students are usually discrete regarding alcoholic consumption. If you are invited to dinner, a toast or series of toasts are common. If you decide to participate, you should toast to cooperation between our schools and countries, good health, good fortune and success. It is customary to tip your glass lower than the person offering the toast. "Gan bei" means cheers or bottoms up. Avoid a toast on personal subjects. If you prefer not to drink alcohol, offer a toast with tea or some other beverage. Once you start to drink alcohol at a meal, it may be difficult to decline further consumption if your host continues and it may be seen as an insult. It is also seen as a sign of weakness. It may be best not to start if you have no intention of keeping pace with your host.

Americans often engage in small talk to break the ice. Often this small talk concerns family or other personal subjects in an attempt to get to know the other person better. It is not suggested that you break the ice with your Chinese hosts with personal questions about family or personal matters. This may be perceived as rude. Choose some neutral subjects to start. If your host moves the conversation to personal and family subjects it will be a sign that they are comfortable with you and you may discuss those items with discretion.

It is common for the owners or employees of a business to live at that business. Many teachers will live in housing provided by the school. The guard for your dorm may live in a small room adjacent to the entrance. If you look carefully at the small local restaurant or shop you visit, you may spot the owners living quarters in the back or overhead.

Spitting, coughing and sneezing are common in China. It is not uncommon for students (and others) to have a finger up their nose as your lecture in class. These are cultural difference and some prior warning may reduce your initial reaction.

Queuing is not common in China. You will seldom see people line up in an orderly fashion. We suggest that you hand back student assignments at the end of class by calling out student names or by student number to avoid chaos and confusion as well as assure grade confidentiality. Students will want to know each others grades and often will search a pile of papers looking at others grades. This is not seen as an invasion of privacy by the Chinese students but we discourage this practice.

The sense of personal space is very different in Chinese culture. People will pack onto a bus or push close together in public spaces and think nothing of it. Americans tend to have a much larger sense of and expectation for personal space relative to their Chinese counterparts. Be prepared for this.

The Chinese will often ask your opinion on the American Government's policy on some matter. They are truly interested in this subject. Feel free to express your ideas. Sensitive issues for the Chinese include the Taiwan issue,

human rights, the Iraq war and US trade policy. Be prepared for strong opinions on these subjects.

Tipping is not common in China. If you offer a tip for service, it may be seen as an insult. Most service providers gladly do their work and a tip is seen as a flashy show of wealth by foreigners. In some large cities, especially at western hotels or on guided tours, the western custom of tipping is now accepted, aggressively. You may be asked to fill out a comment card for tour guides. They will give you a comment card and expect you to fill it out as they wait in front of you.

- II. Transportation (Taxis, Buses, and Trains).** Traffic in China can be a shock at first. You will quickly notice that traffic devices are often treated merely as suggestions. It is not unusual to observe a six way intersection with no traffic control device. Cars, trucks, people bikes, animals and other moving objects will enter this intersection and move in their intended direction with little regard for the other occupants of the intersection.

Vehicles have the right of way in China, not pedestrians. These observations apply pretty much universal to all cities except Beijing where order is more common.

Public transport is generally good and cheap. Get the advice of locals before you venture out. Many western faculty and students have cards written in Chinese so they can show taxi drivers. Make sure the taxi driver understands you or your card before you depart. The taxi meter is easy to understand.

Always get the name of your school written in Chinese and a contact with a cell phone number if possible. Most cities have several universities and they are easily confused. Local travel can be made easier when accompanied by a local student or teacher.

Bus service can be cheap and efficient. Most public buses run a route and are identified by a number. Get a bus that is full. It is likely to get to your

destination faster and with fewer stops. An empty bus will often sit until full. Train service can be very comfortable and reasonably priced. Don't hesitate to ask a Chinese friend, student, or colleague to help you purchase tickets.

12. Useful Web Sites

<http://www.china.org.cn/english/index.htm>
<http://chineseculture.about.com/>
<http://www.cctv.com/english/index.shtml>
<http://www.chinadaily.com.cn/english/home/index.html>
<http://english.peopledaily.com.cn>
<http://202.84.17.11/en/index.htm> (Xinhua News Agency)
<http://chinadigitaltimes.net>

B. **Housing.** To be described at a later date.

C. **Family Concerns and Recreational Activities.** As a rule, we do not recommend that faculty or students bring spouses or family with them. As an alternative, we suggest you arrange for travel with family after you're your teaching assignment (if faculty) or after the conclusion of your coursework (if students).

1. **Education for Children Accompanying Faculty.** For those that choose to bring family, please keep in mind that you will be responsible for all related expenses, plans and preparations. For those that bring children, the TEDA International School offers a curriculum similar to that in American schools (see <http://www.tedainternationalschool.net/index.htm>).

Tuition for one academic year at TEDA International School is expensive at \$9,000 per year. Those who wish to enroll their children in Chinese schools will have to make their own arrangements. Though the tuition at Chinese schools is significantly lower than at international schools, there is often a one time deposit fee required at enrollment up to 20,000 RMB (about \$2,500 in August 2005). This deposit covers books, physical facilities, and other items and is often not refundable. Alternatives to using international or Chinese schools include home schooling, and making arrangements with children's U.S. home schools for materials and lesson plans.

2. **Recreational Activities.** Family members interested in Chinese history and culture will find a wealth of places to visit and things to learn. An accompanying spouse can enroll in Chinese language, cooking, martial arts, calligraphy or music classes, and spend their weekends visiting public parks, temples, and museums. For children's entertainment, department stores sell locally produced toys of all kinds including radio-controlled cars, dolls, kites, balls, ice skates, art supplies, and the like at reasonable prices. The Nankai University foreign affairs office may sometimes offer cultural outings for faculty and students as well.

Faculty and students who like to exercise should remember that the air quality in most Chinese cities including Tianjin is lower than in the U.S. One option is to purchase health club memberships at large hotels to deal with this problem. These memberships can be expensive but many expatriates feel they are worthwhile. Another option would be to explore the Nankai University indoor and outdoor sports facilities.

D. Communications and Finances.

1. Communications.

- a. **Mail.** International letters and parcels mailed by air between China and the United States may take from one to two weeks. Transit time for package mail shipped by surface is uncertain but usually takes two months or more. Contents of packages are subject to customs regulations. A daily fee may be charged for packages left at the post office. Faculty and students will be provided with a mailing

Outgoing letters and packages, domestic or international, should be mailed in envelopes or boxes designated for that purpose. For domestic mail, the proper postal code must be filled in the boxes provided and usually only addresses in Chinese are acceptable. For international mail, some post offices are extremely strict about mailing small packages. Be careful to use the correct packaging and do not seal the box until after

having the contents inspected by customs officials at the international post office. You will need to fill out customs forms and label. You may also choose to register your mail.

- b. **Fax.** Fax machines are still very commonly used in China. You will most likely be able to send and receive faxes through your foreign affairs office.
- c. **Telephone.** The quality of land line connections can vary greatly throughout China. Generally, you cannot dial international calls directly without putting down an expensive deposit.

AT&T, MCI, and Sprint all offer access numbers in major cities in China, allowing callers with direct dial capability to call an American operator and charge the call to their calling credit card. University foreign affairs offices can indicate whether these services can be accessed from apartment phones or, if not, from a direct dial phone in the building. Following are long distance service providers' access codes: AT&T: 10811 MCI: 10812 Sprint: 10813.

There are also services, such as Skype or BigZoo, which allow you to make phone calls very inexpensively via the internet.

If faculty and/or students have access to direct dialing phones from their homes or offices, another long-distance calling option is using a Chinese pre-paid international phone (IP) card. These IP cards are available in 20-200 RMB increments, frequently sold at half their face value from street vendors or at many stores.

An IC card can be used for both local and long-distance calls in pay phones only – coins are uncommon on most of the mainland. Most newsstands and small shops (xiaomaibu) carry both the IP and IC cards.

Yet another telecommunications option is purchasing a mobile or cellular phone. Unlike in the U.S, cell phones are widely used in China in

lieu of fixed line residential phones. Many who have traveled to China have commented on the advantages of having a cell phone as a means of communicating with bilingual colleagues to help interpret confusing Chinese language situations as they arise. Cell phones can also be called directly from the United States. Faculty and students should ask the ICS staff, university foreign affairs office, or student monitor for assistance in purchasing a cell phone and cell phone number.

Faculty and students' family and friends in the U.S. may want to purchase pre-paid phone cards now available in the U.S. that are designed specifically for calling China. These cards, some of which use internet dial-ups offer some of the cheapest rates and are available on many university campuses as well as online. According to recent reports, however, some of these cards have been blocked. Another option is to find an international calling plan on the internet. Cell phones can also be called directly from the U.S.

- d. **Internet.** Faculty and students will have Internet access, although there are sometimes problems with receiving messages from certain providers and viewing certain websites.

The Internet connection might be through the phone line or broadband, which is quickly becoming more common. For dial-up service, the cost recently has been around \$.02 per minute and this charge will appear on your phone bill. Pre-paid cards are also available for dial-up service. Faculty and students should check with the ICS staff, the Nankai foreign affairs office, or student monitor for internet connection options.

2. Finances.

- a. **Transactions.** It is a good idea to be prepared with at least two channels for moving funds (e.g. a bank account and ATM access). Lapses in service are more common and arbitrary than you may expect, and if you have two

modes of access to funds and one fails, the second can be used. The banking sector is changing rapidly in China. There have been several mergers between several American banks and Chinese banks including Bank of America. Because of these changes, banking options will continue to improve with time. Currently, some of the more common methods include:

1. **Exchange of traveler's checks and/or foreign currency.** Traveler's checks and U.S. and other foreign currencies must be converted to Chinese currency at a major bank or a designated exchange counter before making purchases. Major branches of the Bank of China should be a good bet. Most major brands of traveler's checks are accepted in China at major hotels, department stores and tourist retail outlets. For reverse exchange, foreign exchange counters will convert up to fifty percent of the Chinese currency you have exchanged back into dollars, provided you present the receipts from the initial exchange. In remote areas, foreign currency (typically US Dollars) may be the only alternative available.
2. **Automated Teller Machines (ATMs).** Many foreigners use ATMs that allow them to withdraw RMB and have this charged against their U.S. bank accounts. ATMs are widely available throughout China. The withdrawal fee will vary depending for the most part on your U.S. bank account agreement. The maximum amount withdrawn is generally US\$250 to \$300 per day. The ATM exchange rate generally is not as good as using Traveler's checks but some feel the convenience is worth the extra cost. Others feel they should have brought more travelers' checks, because of the many expenses in the first month. Still others feel that travelers' checks were too much trouble.
3. **Opening a local bank account and transferring funds via wire or personal check.** Many have found it helpful to open a bank account at a major Chinese bank, and some have even opened two accounts,

used for different purposes. U.S. dollar checks drawn on your personal checking account in a U.S. bank generally can be cashed at Bank of China main offices throughout China and a few other major banks on presenting proper identification and proof of funds. In some cases an American Express card is preferred.

4. **Credit Cards.** While not nearly as useful as in the U.S., major credit cards are accepted for purchases at large hotels, hotel restaurants, and department stores in major cities. Major airlines and some larger travel agencies accept credit cards for payment, usually with an additional 4 to 5% service charge. Most offices for Chinese airlines and the Chinese railway system do not accept Western credit cards, nor do most small shops, restaurants, or hotels frequented primarily by Chinese citizens.

b. **Income Tax Returns.** Faculty and students who will be in China for a full academic year may need to file their income tax returns while in China. U.S. citizens living abroad may apply for an extension of several months of the filing deadline, but will still have to pay interest and penalties on any tax owed during that period. IRS Form 4868 “Application for Automatic Extension of Time to File U.S. Individual Income Tax Return” would need to be filed with the IRS office corresponding to Lecturers' home addresses. Lecturers preparing and filing their own returns should bring to China copies of records they will need, and arrange to have their W-2 forms or other documents forwarded to them. Other IRS forms and information are downloadable at www.irs.gov.

E. Safety Precautions.

1. **General safety.** For residential security, you should acquaint yourselves and with fire exits in your apartment buildings and plan several escape routes and meetings points in case of fire or earthquake. A devastating earthquake

occurred 30 years ago that was centered in a city called Tang Shan which is located about 100 kilometers from Tianjin so earthquakes are possible in this area. Call blocked exits and other fire hazards to the attention of building maintenance staff.

Although the threat of violence and petty crime is lower in Tianjin and other large Chinese cities than in U.S. cities, take normal precautions to be safe. There are a lot of pickpockets near train, subway, and bus stations, and in areas where foreigners congregate. It is not uncommon to hear stories of (locked) bicycles, wallets and cell phones stolen. Foreigners can sometimes be more of a target than local Chinese.

Also, make photocopies of all important documents (passport, visa, foreigner's residence permit, credit card numbers, travelers check numbers, medical records) and keep them in a safe place, and leave a copy with a friend in the U.S., in case there is a need to report a loss and replace these items quickly.

2. **Transportation safety.** As in the United States, one of the gravest dangers in China is from traffic accidents. Cyclists should bring safety helmets and headlamps, which are not readily available in China. Passengers in motor vehicles should wear seat belts when available and ask the driver to slow down if they feel the speed is unsafe. Pedestrians are especially at risk. Always use under/over-passes when provided, otherwise cross in groups. Look both ways (and front, back, up, down, etc.) when crossing streets and keep looking. In practice, pedestrians are not considered to have the right of way, even on sidewalks.

Take extra care when traveling in the countryside. It is best to travel with a partner or in a group. If one must travel alone, be sure to keep someone informed of your whereabouts. When traveling outside major cities, there can be greater risks, from a lack of adequate transportation safety measures,

emergency response infrastructure, and so on. You are the only person who will take responsibility for your own safety.

3. **Health Safety.** Tap water in China is not safe to drink. Water that is potable at its source is often contaminated in old pipes en route to taps. Many international-standard (four and five-star) hotels have their own water treatment systems. Outside major hotels, one should boil drinking water for at least three minutes. Tea and coffee that are prepared by boiling may be considered safe to drink.

Chinese-standard hotels often provide hot boiled water (kai shui) in thermos bottles for making tea. This can be cooled in a carafe or canteen for room temperature drinking water (liang kai shui). Canned or bottled beverages including mineral water, soft drinks and beer are readily available and safe to drink.

Fruits and vegetables purchased on the street or from local stores should be cleaned before eating. Fruits or vegetables should be washed with water first, even if they are to be peeled or cooked. To disinfect raw produce, use one tablespoon of bleach to one gallon of water to soak for 15 minutes, and then rinse with potable water, but make sure that the produce is dry before serving. Pesticide use is not regulated as closely in China as it is in the United States. For this reason, peeling or washing with dish detergent the edible peels of apples, pears, cucumbers, etc. is advisable. At restaurants try to remember to wipe off any excess water on dishware.

F. Health Information and Medical Insurance

1. Health Information.

- a. **Medical Records.** Faculty and students should bring with them their own health records. If you don't have such records, you should ask your doctor to help complete one before you leave. Having the general health history of each accompanying family member makes it easier to answer a

foreign physician's questions should a medical problem arise. Faculty or students who take prescription medicines should bring a supply to last for their stay. Please note that it might be necessary to arrange this ahead of time with your physician. Be sure to bring a package insert or documentation, which provides generic name, indications and contraindications for the drug, since physicians in China may not be familiar with American commercial pharmaceutical names.

b. Medical Reports:

1. Before departing for China for an extended period, it is strongly recommended that all travelers complete a comprehensive physical medical exam. China requires a physical exam for those who stay for more than 6 months so it is advised that you obtain the examinations required by China as explained below.
2. The Chinese Embassy also requires a "Physical Examination Record for Foreigner" with the Chinese visa application for a stay in China longer than six months. This document is available on the Chinese Embassy website.
3. In addition, a separate medical report is required by the local Chinese quarantine office in your host city when applying for the required residence permit. The residence permit is required for all Z-visa holders regardless of length of stay. The form for the medical report will be provided by Nankai University through ICS staff. Be sure to have the document notarized and carry its original, along with all test result original copies, with you to China.

- c. Pre-Departure Immunizations.** The Chinese government does not require travelers entering China from the United States to have any inoculations. However, as a routine measure, faculty and students should update their inoculations prior to travel, especially to China and other developing countries. The International Health Certificate, a yellow

booklet available from city or county public health agencies or the U.S. Public Health Service, is widely recognized by overseas public health authorities, and provides space for conveniently recording immunizations. Travelers are advised to consult their physicians and the information available from the U.S. Centers for Disease Control (<http://www.cdc.gov>).

- d. **Medications and Health Needs.** Lecturers should bring with them supplies of any prescription medications they may need during their stay, particularly if they have chronic conditions or allergies. Many common American medications are not sold in China. Bring extra contact lenses and eyeglasses, copies of eyeglass prescriptions, and a full supply of any over-the-counter medications, such as pain relievers, that you might commonly use. Some who have traveled extensively in China recommend bringing a first-aid kit. Many medical supplies are not easy for Americans to find, since they are packaged and labeled differently than in the U.S. For instance, thermometers calibrated in Fahrenheit are hard to find. Medications imported into China that are sold by private clinics cost far more than in the U.S.

While medical authorities in China are aware of the importance of proper sterilization or disposal of needles, one cannot be absolutely certain that all hospitals in China follow the protocols necessary for insuring that diseases are not transmitted via contaminated needles. Therefore, Lecturers might consider bringing disposable syringes for added protection against hepatitis or AIDS, should the need arise for an injection or a blood test in a local hospital. (A prescription for the needles could be useful if customs officers raise questions.) Although Chinese hospitals in large cities generally use disposable needles, they may not be available in more remote areas.

- e. **Medical Care in China.** Medical conditions in China can vary widely, reflecting the size and diversity of the country itself. While appointments

are not necessary and fees are minimal, Chinese health care standards tend to be less consistent than in the U.S. Some cities have hospitals specifically designated to treat foreigners. These hospitals usually have the best facilities in the area and offer treatment by foreign-trained Chinese physicians and foreign physicians in medical specialties as well as 24-hour emergency room treatment. The Beijing United Family Hospital (www.beijingunited.com) and the Sino-Japanese Hospital in Beijing, and the Hua Shan Hospital in Shanghai are examples of these. There also are private clinics that cater to foreigners in large cities. The International SOS Clinic (www.internationalsos.com), International Medical Center, Vista Clinic (www.vista-china.net) and the Hong Kong International Medical Clinic in Beijing; and the Worldlink Medical Center in Shanghai are examples in this category. International SOS Clinics are located also in Guangzhou, Nanjing and Tianjin and there is an associated 24-hour alarm center in Shanghai. Their operators can also provide translation services in an emergency situation. Certain hospitals and clinics have pre-paid medical plans that offer discounted rates for access to medical facilities. International SOS Clinics have a plan that combines access to their facilities at a discounted rate with medical evacuation coverage. In addition, major American corporations in China often have their own medical officer who may be willing to treat other foreigners within the city if adequate health is not available. Other foreigners residing in the host city are also valuable sources of information.

The U.S. Embassy in Beijing has a medical unit headed by the Regional Medical Officer (RMO), who provides medical support for U.S. government employees. The Consulates General in Chengdu, Shanghai and Guangzhou have medical units staffed by contract nurses. Chinese doctors are available to consulate employees in Shenyang. These units are funded to ensure availability of medical care for embassy and consulate employees and their dependents, and cannot offer routine care for other Americans, including Lecturers, in China.

- f. **SARS and Related Issues.** Before you come, be aware of what you might need to do in case of the rapid spread of a previously unknown disease, such as the 2003 SARS outbreak. A good start is to become familiar with the most reliable sources of timely reporting and information on the internet:

World Health Organization CSR page: www.who.int/csr/en/

Centers for Disease Control SARS page: www.cdc.gov/ncidod/sars/

2. Medical Insurance.

- a. **Health and Accident Insurance.** Faculty and students should consult their U.S. insurance providers about the coverage available for out-of-country clients. All travelers should carefully consider whether the coverage from their U.S. insurance provider will meet all their needs.
- b. **Medical Evacuation Insurance and Assistance.** Private medical evacuation (medevac) and assistance companies operate in China and in the region to provide travelers and residents assistance in identifying and traveling to in-country and regional/home country medical facilities on an emergency and non-emergency basis. Hong Kong and Singapore are common evacuation points from China. Fees for a medically equipped rescue plane, emergency medical services of doctors and nurses, and miscellaneous landing rights fees can amount to tens of thousands of dollars. For those who have not paid for insurance coverage in advance, the costs of the evacuation must be paid in advance, which usually means signing over a mortgage.

U.S. or overseas-based medical evacuation plans are listed on the Department of State website for travelers at www.travel.state.gov/medical.html. Some medical evacuation insurance and/or assistance plans are offered only in China. Below is the list the provided by the U.S. Embassy through its American Citizens Services Unit.

The following companies provide emergency medical assistance and evacuation coverage for travelers and expatriates in Beijing. They also provide repatriation of remains services. They will obtain the necessary clearances and arrange transportation for the return of mortal remains.

SOS Office in Philadelphia, U.S.A.:
Tel: 1-215-245-1500 (Admin)
1-215-245-4707 (24-hour)
1-800-523-8930 / 215-244-1500
Website: www.internationalsos.com

MedAire Corporate Headquarters
80 East Rio Salado Pkwy
Suite 610
Tempe, AZ 85281
Tel: 1-480-333-3700
Fax: 1-480-333-3592
E-mail: info@medaire.com
Website: www.medaire.com

MEDEX Head Office in the U.S:
8501 Lasalle Road
Suite 200
Towson, MD 21286
Tel: 1-800-537-2029/ 888-MEDEX-00
1-410-453-6300
Fax: 1-410-453-6301
Website: www.medexassist.com

IV. CHINA SYNOPSIS²

A. **Geography.** Situated in the southeastern part of the Asian Continent, the People's Republic of China has a coastline of over 18,000 kilometers, international land borders of more than 20,000 kilometers, and a total land area of 9.6 million square kilometers, third only in size to Russia and Canada. Its territory extends over 50 degrees of latitude from north to south, embracing the equatorial belt, the tropics, the subtropics, the moderate temperate zone and the cold temperate zone. From east to west, China extends over 62 degrees of longitude with land covered by forests, grasslands, deserts, plains, hills and mountains. China shares land borders with Vietnam, Laos, Myanmar (Burma), India, Bhutan, Nepal, Pakistan, Afghanistan, Tajikistan, Kyrgyzstan, Kazakhstan, Russia, Mongolia and North Korea.

1. **Provinces and Administrative Units.** China is divided into 23 provinces, five autonomous regions, four municipalities under the direct jurisdiction of the Central Government, and one special administrative region. The 23 provinces are Hebei, Shaanxi, Liaoning, Jilin, Heilongjiang, Shaanxi,

² Part IV of this handbook was adapted from numerous sources including the Encyclopedia Britannica 2005 Deluxe Edition CD, the YAHOO China directory at <http://dir.yahoo.com/Regional/Countries/China/>, ChinaTravelGuide.com at <http://travelchinaguide.com/intro/>, and the CIA World Fact Book at <http://www.cia.gov/cia/publications/factbook/geos/ch.html>.

Guangdong, Sichuan, Guizhou, Yunnan, and Hainan; The five autonomous regions are Inner Mongolia, Ningxia, Xinjiang, Guangxi, and Tibet; The four municipalities are Beijing, Shanghai, Tianjin, and Chongqing; Hong Kong is the special administrative region.

2. **Regions.** China can be divided into the following 8 regions:

- a. The plateau of Tibet and Qinghai in the southwest.** The Tibetan Highlands average 4,500 meters above sea level, and are often referred to as the 'Roof of the World'. At the southern rim of the plateau is the Himalayan mountain range, with peaks averaging 6,000 meters, among which Mount Everest, known to the Chinese as Qomolangma Peak, reaches more than 8,000 meters. China has 14 of the world's highest peaks; each of these mountains is more than 8,000 meters above sea level.
- b. The Xinjiang-Inner Mongolian Uplands.** This region includes the eastern Ordos Desert, the southern part of the Gobi Desert and the Turpan depression - 150 meters below sea level. This region also boasts the largest inland basin in the world, the Tarim Basin, where the Taklamakan Desert (the largest in China) and China's largest shifting salt lake are situated.
- c. The Inner Mongolian Border Uplands.** This region includes the Gobi Desert and eastern lowlands and is distinguished by a rugged terrain with little agriculture, though the southern area has more fertile soil which has been deposited by the wind.
- d. The Eastern Highlands.** This region includes the Shandong Peninsula and the northeast coastal region. This region is hilly and possesses rich deposits of coal.
- e. The Eastern Lowlands.** This region provides the best farming land in China. There are three main plains in this region: the Manchurian Plain, which also has large coal and iron deposits; the North China plain which produces wheat, although the area is subject to flooding; and the Yangtze

River valley which has flat land with good rainfall and a fertile delta where the cities of Nanjing, Shanghai and Hangzhou are to be found.

- f. The Central Uplands.** This region is located between the eastern lowlands and the Tibetan plateau, and is less than 1,000 meters above sea level.
- g. The Sichuan Basin.** This region has a mild climate and long growing season, and is a good area for agriculture.
- h. The Southern Uplands.** This region covers Southeast China and Hainan Island. The only level area here is the Pearl River delta where the city of Guangzhou is located.

3. Major Cities

- a. Beijing.** Beijing is located in northern China, close to Tianjin Municipality and partially surrounded by Hebei Province. The city covers an area of more than 16,800 square kilometers (6,487 square miles) and has a population of 13.82 million people. Beijing is at its best in late spring and autumn, particularly during the months of May, September, and October when people can enjoy bright sunshine and blue skies.

As the capital of the People's Republic of China, Beijing is the nation's political, economic, cultural and educational center as well as being the China's most important center for international trade and communications. It has been the heart and soul of politics and society throughout its long history. Beijing's long and illustrious history started some 500,000 years ago. It is here that the ancestors of modern Homo sapiens, Peking men, lived in caves. Records show that Beijing has been an inhabited city for more than three thousand years and has endured invasions by war-lords and foreign powers, devastating fires, the rise and fall of powerful imperial dynasties and has emerged each time as a strong and vibrant city. For more than 800 years, Beijing was a capital city - from the Yuan Dynasty to the Ming and Qing dynasties. Thirty-four emperors

have lived and ruled the nation in Beijing and it has been an important trading city from its earliest days.

Although Beijing now is modern, fashionable and full of 21st Century vitality, you can experience authentic Beijing life and become acquainted with "old Beijing" by exploring its many teahouses, temple fairs, Hutongs, and Operas. Beijing has the world's biggest central square - Tiananmen Square - and the Forbidden City - the largest and best-preserved imperial palace complex in the world. Beijing also lies near a superbly preserved section of the Great Wall, as well as the largest sacrificial complex in the world - the Temple of Heaven.

Dwelling too much on the historical past of Beijing may give the false impression that it is little more than an ancient city. This is not the case. Beijing has much in common with any other great metropolis elsewhere in the world. There are towering skyscrapers; busy shopping malls and an endless stream of traffic. In 2008 Beijing will host the Olympic Games, which will showcase Beijing's latest developments alongside its ancient history.

- b. **Shanghai.** Called "Hu" for short, Shanghai is a bustling metropolis located at the mouth of the Yangtze River. Connected with Jiangsu and Zhejiang provinces in the west, the city is exposed to the East China Sea in the east. With a total area of 6,341 square kilometers (about 2,448 square miles) and a population of more than 13 million, Shanghai takes its place among the world's biggest, most booming urban areas.

Shanghai enjoys a delightful climate with four distinct seasons. Annual temperatures average 16C and annual rainfall averages 1,200 millimeters. However, spring and autumn, with their moderate temperatures are the best times to visit Shanghai.

While the city epitomizes modern, urban China, its history is one of its most intriguing features. In particular, in the 1930s and 40s, Shanghai was a paradise for adventurers. Tycoons, millionaires, knights-errant and

great beauties came to this attractive city to realize their dreams, and countless moving stories, both sad and joyful, were played out here.

Because of its open to foreigners and its coastal location, Shanghai is endowed with rich tourist attractions related to its long and complicated history. Many buildings, constructed in various Western styles, are well preserved in the Bund area, and Western tourists will feel a sense of familiarity when strolling around the long street, which resembles those in European cities. This blending of eastern and western styles has given the Bund a reputation as a "World's Fair of Architecture." Many buildings from the 1920s and 1930s have also survived in the Old City section of Shanghai.

Shanghai is a great destination for shoppers, and the best-known shopping street in China - Nanjing Road - is located here. This exciting avenue is lined with well-known shops and department stores selling clothing, food and specialty goods. Shanghai is a paradise for gourmets, too. Here, visitors can enjoy a taste of all the different kinds of food in the world.

- c. **Guangzhou (Canton).** During the 19th century the only place foreigners were allowed to visit in China was Canton, now referred to as Guangzhou, where they traded for silk, tea, porcelain, lacquer screens, lace shawls, ivory fans, and other luxury goods. Since the late 1970s this port city has again become a gateway to areas outside China.

It all began with the Silk Road, when some merchants chose to take their caravans south and transport their silk and other luxuries by sea through the sheltered port of Guangzhou. From Southeast Asia more merchants came to do business, selling pepper, nutmeg, and other spices, bird's nests for soup, and aromatic sandalwood for incense. Gradually they were joined by traders from farther away.

Dominated by Japanese silver; Chinese silk, porcelain, and tea; Indian muslin; Persian damascene; African ivory; and European manufactured

goods, good trade flourished for a century, until Japan closed its doors to the outside world. The Portuguese lost their sea lanes and cargoes to the newly mercantile nations of Europe, led by Britain, which used Macau as a base for doing business in Guangzhou. The British called Guangzhou "Canton," an anglicized version of the Portuguese *cantão*.

Guangzhou lost its pivotal importance as an international trading hub and went into decline. Times were tough for many Cantonese, and in the 19th century tens of thousands of them left in search of a better life, often on coolie ships. Among the scholars who found an education overseas was Dr. Sun Yat-sen, who was born a few miles north of the Macau border. He led the movement to overthrow the Manchus that culminated in the 1911 Revolution.

Guangzhou next became a hotbed of revolutionary zeal and a battleground between Nationalists and Communists. Chiang Kai-shek founded the Whampoa Academy, and Mao Zedong taught at the Peasant Movement Institute, as did Zhou Enlai.

Following the 1949 Revolution, Guangzhou reinstated its biannual trade fairs (April and September) and welcomed foreign business, but it wasn't until the open-door policy of Deng Xiaoping in 1979 that the port city was able to resume its role as a commercial gateway to China. Since then the city has become an economic dynamo; in 1999 it had a population of about 6.7 million.

Because of its rapid modernization during the 1980s and '90s, many parts of Guangzhou no longer evoke the original easygoing port city with its waterfront row of colonial mansions. Today high-rise blocks and new highways dominate the old town, while new suburbs, bristling with skyscrapers and shopping malls, advance toward every horizon along new expressways. Fortunately, the city has preserved some of its heritage in the splendid parks and busy temples, in some excellent museums, and, most of all, on Shamian Island.

d. **Tianjin.** Tianjin, or "Jin" in hip locals speak, or "Diamond of the Bohai Gulf" in chamber of commerce terms, prates as China's fourth largest city, with a staggering nine million citizens. Simultaneously gritty and vibrant, it is a city just beginning to realize its tourism potential. New swanky four and five star hotels decorate the downtown skyline with sophisticated pizzazz, while scrupulous parks and gardens along the Hai River challenge Tianjin's industrial image. Ancient temples and pagodas, and elaborate colonial buildings are no longer blights of neglect, but instead prized pieces of its past turned into the type of brochure-like attractions that prompt tourists to snap several photos of and describe in their journals as "fabulous" with three exclamation points. Plus, its surrounding mountains to the north access, among other jaw-stretching things, China's famous Great Wall. Keep in mind, however, that unlike some of the tourist-first coastal cities, Tianjin's attractions are widely dispersed. They tend to get lost in the city's overwhelming size and fist-shaking traffic, making it less than accommodating for "see-it-all" organized tours. Tianjin, like many other Chinese coastal cities, harbors a history heavy with military squabbles. Following the Opium Wars in the mid-1800s Great Britain, Russia, France and Japan swarmed through its streets and claimed residency. Though a source of local loathing, it did color the city with a mosaic wonder of architectural influences. During the first half of the 1900s, Tianjin was cursed with three successive wars (The Democratic Revolution in 1911, the Anti-Japanese War 1937-1948, and the Civil War 1948), replacing the entrepreneurial motivations of economic progress with the limiting visions of day-to-day survival. It was not until after Mao's Cultural Revolution ended in 1969 that Tianjin began to grow and expand economically. But disaster, in the form of a king-mean earthquake, struck in 1976, killing close to 250,000 people and crumbling much of the city's antiquated infrastructure. Eventual economic relief came when Chinese officials allowed Tianjin to open its proverbial closed doors to foreign investors. Since then, it has become the largest seaport in northern China. Tourism, though growing, remains a

mere subplot to Tianjin's industrial focus.

Tianjin is divided into six city districts:

Heping. Also known as the Peace District, it functions as the city's main stage for human activity. As the former concession area for Great Britain and France, its streets are lined with a weird mix of contemporary skyscrapers and wow-look-at-that colonial buildings. Visitors can choose between the ultra-modern Renaissance Tianjin Hotel and the wonderfully regal looking Tianjin First Hotel built in 1922. Both provide quick access to some of Tianjin's most famous restaurants including the Bader Brauhaus and the Goubili Restaurant. The Tianjin Concert Hall, the Art Museum, the Catholic Church and famous Ancient Culture Street are all within its confines as well.

Hebei. Located north of Heping, it almost feels calm compared to downtown's hypersonic pace. The four-star Holiday Inn and the Ocean Hotel are its prized room and board sites. Both are within walking distance of Ancient Culture Street and the architecturally impressive Notre Dame des Victories. Beining Park is relatively close too (relative as in hop in a taxi) and is highlighted by the Zhiyuan Pagoda.

Hongqiao. Situated northwest of downtown it is best known for where visitors go to snap photos of the Grand Mosque. Otherwise, there is little else to see from a tourist's perspective.

Hexi. Formerly a German colony during Tianjin's "concession years," this district now boasts some of the area's best lodging options including the Sheraton Tianjin Hotel, the city's only five star, the impossibly huge Tianjin Grand Hotel, and the impressive Geneva Hotel. Out of all its dining options, however, the Quanjude Roast Duck Factory ranks as it's most popular. It is one of the only restaurants in Tianjin that serves authentic Beijing duck.

Nankai. Nestled south of downtown it is best known for housing Tianjin University and Nankai University, as well as Tianjin's famously scenic Shuishang Park.

Hedong. Besides the Royal Court Restaurant decorated in the manner of an ancient Chinese palace, this district offers little else in the way of tourism options.

4. **Major Rivers and Lakes.** China abounds in rivers. More than 1,500 rivers each drain 1,000 sq km or larger areas. Most of the large rivers have their source on the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau, and drop greatly from the source to the mouths. As a result, China is rich in water-power resources, leading the world in hydropower potential, with reserves of 680 million kilowatts.

China's rivers can be categorized as exterior and interior systems. The catchments area for the exterior rivers that empty into the oceans accounts for 64 percent of the country's total land area. The Yangtze, Yellow, Heilong, Pearl, Liaohe, Haihe and Huaihe rivers flow east, and empty into the Pacific Ocean. The Yarlungzangbo River in Tibet, which flows first east and then south into the Indian Ocean, boasts the Yarlungzangbo Grand Canyon, the largest canyon in the world, 504.6 km long and 6,009 m deep. The Ertix River flows north from the Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region to the Arctic Ocean. The catchment area for the interior rivers that flow into inland lakes or disappear into deserts or salt marshes makes up about 36 percent of China's total land area. Its 2,179 km make the Tarim River in southern Xinjiang China's longest interior river.

The Yangtze, 6,300 km long, is the largest river in China, and the third largest in the world, next only to the Nile in Africa and the Amazon in South America. Passing through high mountains and deep valleys, the upper section of the Yangtze River is abundant in water resources. Known as the "golden waterway," the Yangtze is a transportation artery linking west and east, its navigation benefiting from excellent natural channels. The areas of the middle and lower Yangtze River have a warm and humid climate, plentiful rainfall and fertile soil, making them important agricultural regions.

The Yellow River is the second largest river in China with a length of 5,464 km. The Yellow River valley was one of the birthplaces of ancient Chinese civilization. It has lush pasturelands and abundant mineral deposits.

The Heilong River is a large river in north China with a total length of 4,350 km, of which, 3,101 km are in China.

The Pearl (Zhujiang) River, 2,214 km long, is a large river in south China. In addition to those endowed by nature, China has a famous man-made river—the Grand Canal, running from Beijing in the north to Hangzhou in Zhejiang Province in the south. Work first began on the Grand Canal as early as in the fifth century A.D. It links five major rivers—the Haihe, Yellow, Huaihe, Yangtze and Qiantang. With a total length of 1,801 km, the Grand Canal is the longest as well as the oldest man-made waterway in the world.

There are numerous lakes on Chinese territory, most of which are found on the Middle-Lower Yangtze Plain and the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau. Freshwater lakes mostly lie in the former area, such as Poyang, Dongting, Taihu, and Hongze; while in the latter are saltwater lakes, such as Qinghai, Nam Co and Siling Co. Poyang Lake, in the north of Jiangxi Province and with an area of 3,583 sq km, is the largest one of its kind and Qinghai Lake, in northeast Qinghai Province and with an area of 4,583 sq km, is the largest one of its kind.

5. **Climate.** China's climate varies from bitter cold in winter to unbearable heat in summer. The Yangtze River serves as China's official dividing line between north and south. Given the size and varied landscape of the country, there is no one time in the year when Chinese weather is ideal. Of course, the warmest areas in winter are to be found in the South and Southwest, such as Sichuan, Banna in Yunnan, and Hainan Island. In summer the coolest spots are in the far northeast.

China has a climate dominated by dry seasons and wet monsoons, which make for clear temperature differences in winter and summer. In winter, northern winds coming from high latitude areas are cold and dry; in summer, southern winds from sea areas at lower latitude are warm and moist.

Climates differ from region to region because of the country's extensive and complex topography. South of the Nanling Mountains, rains are prolific

and the temperature is high all year round. In the Yangtze and Huaihe River valleys in the central part of China, there are four distinctive seasons. In northeast China, summer is short but there is much sunshine, while winter is long and cold. Precipitation is limited in northwest China where it is cold in winter and hot in summer. In southwest China, the land is elevated high, and has characteristically vertical seasonal zones.

There's not really an 'ideal' time to visit the country, so use the following information as a rough guide to avoid temperature extremes.

North. Northern winters, from December to March, can be extremely cold, dry and cloud covered. Further north, near cities such as Harbin, which has a famous winter ice festival, temperatures reaching -40°C are not uncommon. During the summer, from May to August, temperatures in Beijing can reach 38°C (100°F), coinciding with the rainy season for the city. The best time for visiting the north is spring and autumn. Daytime temperatures range from 20°C to 30°C (68°F to 86°F) and drop a lot at night. Precipitation averages 25-28 inches per year.

Central. The Yangtze River valley has long and humid summers with high temperatures from April to October. The city of Wuhan, Chongqing and Nanjing on the Yangtze are often referred to as China's three famous 'furnaces'.

Winters in this region, with temperatures dropping well below freezing, can be as cold as in Beijing, and it is worth noting that in general, there is no heating in public buildings south of the Yangtze.

It can also be wet and miserable at any time apart from summer. Since it is impossible to choose an ideal time to visit, spring and autumn are probably best. Precipitation averages around 76 cm (30 inches) per year.

South. Near Guangzhou (Canton), the summer is a season of typhoons between July and September. Temperatures can rise to around 38°C . Winters

are short, between January and March. It's not as cold as in the north, but you'd better bring warm clothes with you while visiting.

Autumn and spring can be good times to visit, with day temperatures in the 20°C to 25°C (68°F to 75°F) range. Sometimes, it can be miserably wet and cold, with rain or drizzle. Precipitation averages 76 cm (30 inches) per year.

Northwest. The northwest is hot, dry and sunny during the summer. The desert regions can be scorching in the daytime. Turpan, which sits in a depression 150m below sea level, is referred as the 'hottest place in China' with temperatures often approaching 47°C. This area of China experiences little rain, and as a consequence, the air is very dry. Summers, however, can exceed 40°C, while winters may drop to -10°C. Precipitation averages less than 10 cm (4 inches) per year.

Tibet. Undoubtedly, Tibet is one of the harshest places for human existence. It is cool in summer but freezing cold in winter. In Lhasa, the mildest city in Tibet, temperature may exceed 29 in summer while plummeting to minus 16 in winter. Sun radiation is extremely strong in Tibet. The sunlight in Lhasa is so intense that the city is called Sunlight City. The thin air can neither block off nor retain heat so that the temperature extremes can be met in daytime and the same night respectively in Tibet. However it is not impossible to visit the holy snow land. April to October is the best time to visit Tibet.

The average temperature in northern Tibet is subzero. Winter arrives in October and lasts until the following May or June. July and August are the best time to visit the area, enjoying warm temperatures, intense sunshine, beautiful scenery and festive events.

May, June and September is the tourist season in eastern Tibet. In winter, roads are all blocked by heavy snow. Landslides and rock falls frequently occur, which make travel difficult.

Southern Tibet is balmy during May to October. During this period, several festive events are held and so this is the best time to visit Lhasa, Shigatse and Nyingchi.

Most annual rainfall comes during the rainy season which starts runs from June to September. The rainfall may block roads and make travel difficult. Between November and May it is often quite windy in Tibet.

- B. Economy.** Despite China's size, the wealth of its resources, and the fact that more than 20 percent of the world's population lives within its borders, its role in the world economy traditionally has been relatively small. Since the late 1970s, however, when China decided to increase its interaction with the international economy, its role in world trade has steadily grown and its importance to the international economy has also increased apace. China's foreign trade has since grown faster than its gross national product (GNP). The government's decision to permit China to be used by Western firms as an export platform may eventually make the country a competitive threat to its neighbors South Korea, Singapore, and Malaysia.

The Chinese economy thus has been in a state of transition since the late 1970s as the country has moved away from a Soviet-type economic system. Agriculture has been decollectivized, the small nonagricultural private sector has grown rapidly, and government priorities have shifted toward light, rather than heavy, industry. Nevertheless, key bottlenecks continue to constrain growth. Available energy is sufficient to run less than 80 percent of installed industrial capacity, the transport system is inadequate to move sufficient quantities of such critical items as coal, and the communications system cannot meet the needs of a centrally planned economy of China's size and complexity.

China's underdeveloped transport system—combined with important differences in the availability of natural and human resources and in industrial infrastructure—has produced significant variations in the regional economies of China. The three wealthiest regions are along the southeast coast, centered on the Pearl River Delta; along the east coast, centered on the Lower Yangtze River; and near the Bo Hai (Gulf of Chihli), in the Peking–Tientsin–Liaoning region. It is the rapid development of these areas that is expected to have the most significant effect on the Asian regional economy as a whole, and Chinese government policy

is designed to remove the obstacles to accelerated growth in these wealthier regions.

China is the world's largest producer of rice and is among the principal sources of wheat, corn (maize), tobacco, soybeans, peanuts (groundnuts), and cotton. The country is one of the world's largest producers of a number of industrial and mineral products—including cotton cloth, tungsten, and antimony—and is an important producer of cotton yarn, coal, crude oil, and a number of other products. Its mineral resources are probably among the richest in the world but are only partially developed. Although China has acquired some highly sophisticated production facilities through trade with Western countries—and also has built a number of advanced engineering plants capable of manufacturing an increasing range of sophisticated equipment, including nuclear weapons and Earth satellites—most of its industrial output still comes from relatively backward and ill-equipped factories. The technological level and quality standards of its industry as a whole are still fairly low.

Other major problems concern the labor force and the pricing system. There is large-scale underemployment in both urban and rural areas, and the fear of the disruptive effects of major, explicit unemployment is strong. The prices of key commodities, especially of industrial raw materials and major industrial products, are determined by the state. In most cases, basic price ratios were set in the 1950s and are often irrational in terms of current production capabilities and demands. China's increasing contact with the international economy and its growing efforts to use market forces to govern the domestic allocation of goods has exacerbated this problem. Over the years, large subsidies were built into the price structure, and these subsidies grew substantially in the late 1970s and '80s.

1. Resources.

- a. **Mineral Resources.** China is well endowed with mineral resources, the most important of which is coal. Although deposits are widely scattered (some coal is found in every province), most of the total is located in the northern part of the country. The province of Shaanxi, in fact, is thought to contain about half of the total; other important coal-bearing provinces

include Heilongjiang, Liaoning, Jilin, Hebei, and Shandong. Apart from these Northern provinces, significant quantities of coal are present in Sichuan, and there are some deposits of importance in Guangdong, Guangxi, Yunnan, and Guizhou. A large part of the country's reserves consists of good bituminous coal, but there are also large deposits of lignite. Anthracite is present in several places (especially Liaoning, Guizhou, and Henan), but overall it is not very significant.

In order to ensure a more even distribution of coal supplies and to reduce the strain on the less than adequate transport network, the authorities have pressed for the development of a large number of small, locally run mines throughout the country. This campaign was energetically pursued after the 1960s, with the result that thousands of small pits have been established, and they produce more than half the country's coal. This output, however, is typically expensive and is used for local consumption.

China's onshore oil resources are located in the Northeast and in Xinjiang, Gansu, Qinghai, Sichuan, Shandong, and Henan provinces. Shale oil is found in a number of places, especially at Fu-shun in Liaoning, where the deposits overlie the coal reserves, as well as in Guangdong. Light oil of high quality has been found in the Pearl River estuary of the South China Sea, the Tsaidam Basin in Qinghai, and the Tarim Basin in Xinjiang. China contracted with Western oil companies to jointly explore and develop oil deposits in the China Sea, the Yellow Sea, the Gulf of Tonkin, and the Bo Hai. The country consumes most of its oil output but does export some crude oil and oil products.

The extent of China's natural gas reserves is unknown, as relatively little exploration for natural gas has been done. Sichuan Province accounts for almost half of the known natural gas reserves and production. Most of the rest of China's natural gas is associated gas produced in the Northeast's major oil fields, especially DaQing. Other gas

deposits have been found in the Tsaidam Basin, Hebei, Jiangsu, Shanghai, and Zhejiang, and offshore to the southwest of Hainan Island.

Iron ore is found in most provinces, and there are reserves on Hainan Island. Gansu, Guizhou, southern Sichuan, and Guangdong provinces have rich deposits. The largest mined reserves are located north of the Yangtze River and supply neighbouring iron and steel enterprises. With the exception of nickel, chromium, and cobalt, China is well supplied with ferroalloys and manganese. Reserves of tungsten are also known to be fairly large. Copper resources are moderate, and high-quality ore is present only in a few deposits. Discoveries have been reported from the Hui Autonomous Region of Ningxia. Lead and zinc are available, and bauxite resources are thought to be plentiful. China's antimony reserves are the largest in the world. Tin resources are plentiful, and there are fairly rich deposits of gold. There are important deposits of phosphate rock in a number of areas. Pyrites occur in several places; Liaoning, Hebei, Shandong, and Shaanxi have the most important deposits. China also has large resources of fluorite (fluorspar), gypsum, asbestos, and cement.

China also produces a fairly wide range of nonmetallic minerals. One of the most important of these is salt, which is derived from coastal evaporation sites in Jiangsu, Hebei, Shandong, and Liaoning, as well as from extensive salt fields in Sichuan, Ningxia, and the Tsaidam Basin.

- b. **Hydroelectric Resources.** In view of China's extensive river network and mountainous terrain, there is ample potential for the production of hydroelectric power. Most of the total hydroelectric capacity is in the southwest, where coal supplies are poor but demand for energy is rapidly growing. The potential in the Northeast is fairly small, but it was there that the first hydroelectric stations were built (by the Japanese). As a result of considerable seasonal fluctuations in rainfall, the flow of rivers tends to drop during the winter, forcing many power stations to operate at less than normal capacity, while in the summer, on the other hand, floods often interfere with production.

Thus, while China has rich overall energy potential, most remains to be developed. In addition, the geographical distribution of energy places most of these resources far from their major industrial users. Basically the Northeast is rich in coal and oil, the central part of North China has abundant coal, and the southwest has great hydroelectric potential. But the industrialized regions around Canton (Guangzhou) and the Lower Yangtze region around Shanghai have too little energy, while there is very little industry located near major energy resource areas other than in the southern part of the Northeast.

2. Agriculture.

- a. **Farming and Forestry.** As a result of topographic and climatic features, the area suitable for cultivation is relatively small: only about 10 percent of China's total land area. Of this, slightly more than half is not irrigated, and the remainder is divided roughly equally between paddy fields and irrigated areas. Nevertheless, about 80 percent of the population lives in the countryside, and until the 1980s a high percentage of them made their living directly from farming. Since then, many have been encouraged to leave the fields and pursue other activities, such as handicrafts, commerce, and transport; and by the mid-1980s farming accounted for less than half of the value of rural output.

The quality of the soil varies. Environmental problems such as floods, drought, and erosion pose serious threats in many parts of the country. The wholesale destruction of forests gave way to an energetic reforestation program that proved inadequate, and forest resources are still fairly meager. The principal forests are found in the Tsinling Mountains and the central mountains and on the Sichuan–Yunnan plateau. Because they are inaccessible, the Tsinling forests are not worked extensively, and much of the country's timber comes from Heilongjiang, Jilin, Sichuan, and Yunnan.

Western China, comprising Tibet, Xinjiang, and Qinghai, has little agricultural significance except for areas of oasis farming and raising

cattle. Rice, China's most important crop is dominant in the southern provinces, many of which yield two harvests a year. In the North wheat is of the greatest importance, while in central China wheat and rice vie with each other for the top place. Millet and kaoliang (a variety of grain sorghum) are grown mainly in the Northeast and some central provinces, which—together with some northern areas—also provide considerable quantities of barley. Most of the soybean crop is derived from the North and the Northeast; corn (maize) is grown in the centre and the North, while tea comes mainly from the hilly areas of the southeast. Cotton is grown extensively in the central provinces, but it is also found to a lesser extent in the southeast and in the North. Tobacco comes from the centre and parts of the South. Other important crops are potatoes, sugar beets, and oilseeds.

There is still a lack of farm machinery; for the most part the Chinese peasant depends on simple, non-mechanized farming implements. Good progress has been made in increasing water conservancy, and about half the cultivated land is under irrigation.

- b. **Livestock and Fishing.** Animal husbandry constitutes the second most important component of agricultural production. China is the world's leading producer of pigs, chickens, and eggs, and it also has sizable herds of sheep and cattle. Since the mid-1970s, greater emphasis has been placed on increasing the livestock output.

China has a long tradition of ocean and freshwater fishing and of aquaculture. Pond raising has always been important and has been increasingly emphasized to supplement coastal and inland fisheries threatened by over fishing and to provide such valuable export commodities as prawns.

3. **Industry.** The development of industry has been given considerable attention since the advent of the Communist regime. Overall industrial output has grown at a rate of more than 10 percent per year, and China's industrial work force probably exceeds the combined total for all other

developing countries. Industry has surpassed all other sectors in economic growth and degree of modernization.

Among the various industrial branches the metallurgical and machine-building industries have received the highest priority. These two branches alone now account for about one-third of the total gross value of industrial output. In these, as in most other areas of industry, however, innovation has generally suffered at the hands of a system that has rewarded increases in gross output rather than improvements in variety and quality. China, therefore, still imports significant quantities of specialized steels. Much of the country's steel output comes from a small number of producing centers, the largest being An-shan in Liaoning.

The principal preoccupation of authorities in the chemical industry is to expand the output of chemical fertilizers, plastics, and synthetic fibers. The growth of this industry has placed China among the world's leading producers of nitrogenous fertilizers. In the consumer goods sector the main emphasis is on textiles and clothing, which also form an important part of China's exports. Textiles, a rapidly growing proportion of which consists of synthetics, account for about 15 percent of the gross industrial output. The industry tends to be scattered throughout the country, but there are a number of important textile centers, including Shanghai, Canton, and Harbin.

Energy production has increased rapidly, but it still falls considerably short of demand. This is partly due to artificial energy prices that have been held so low that industries have had few incentives to conserve. Coal provides about 70 percent of China's energy consumption. Petroleum production, which began growing rapidly from an extremely low base in the early 1960s, has basically remained at the same level since the late 1970s. There are large petroleum reserves in the inaccessible northwest and potentially significant offshore petroleum deposits, but about half of the country's oil production still comes from the major DaQing oil field in the Northeast. China has much, and mostly untapped, hydroelectric power potential and natural gas reserves

of unknown extent. The government has made plans to develop nuclear power plants in the Shanghai and Canton regions.

Overall, the distribution of industry remains very uneven, despite serious efforts from the mid-1950s to the late 1970s to build up industry in the interior at the cost of the major cities on the east coast. While percentage growth of industry in the interior provinces generally greatly exceeded that of the coastal areas, the far larger initial industrial base of the latter meant that a few coastal regions continued to dominate China's industrial economy. Thus, Shanghai alone produces almost 10 percent of China's gross value of industrial output, and the east coast accounts for about 60 percent of the national industrial output.

- 4. Finance.** China's financial institutions are owned by the state. The principal instruments of fiscal and financial control are the People's Bank of China and the Ministry of Finance, both subject to the authority of the State Council. The People's Bank, which replaced the Central Bank of China in 1950 and gradually took over private banks, fulfills many of the functions of Western central and commercial banks. It issues the currency, controls circulation, and plays an important role in disbursing budgetary expenditures. Furthermore, it handles the accounts, payments, and receipts of government organizations and other bodies, which enables it to exercise detailed supervision over their financial and general performance in the light of the state's economic plans.

The People's Bank is also responsible for foreign trade and other overseas transactions (including remittances by overseas Chinese), but these functions are exercised through the Bank of China, which maintains branch offices in a number of European and Asian countries.

Other important financial institutions include the People's Construction Bank of China, responsible for capitalizing a portion of overall investment and for providing capital funds for certain industrial and construction enterprises; the Industrial and Commercial Bank of China, which conducts ordinary commercial transactions and acts as a savings bank for the public; the Agricultural Bank of China, which serves the agricultural sector; and the

China Investment Bank, which handles foreign investment. A number of foreign banks maintain offices in China's larger cities and the special economic zones.

China's economic reforms greatly increased the economic role of the banking system. Whereas virtually all investment capital was previously provided on a grant basis in the state plan, policy has shifted to a loan basis through the various state financial institutions. More generally, increasing amounts of funds are made available through the banks for economic purposes. Enterprises and individuals can go to the banks to obtain loans outside the state plan, and this has proved to be a major source of financing both for new firms and for the expansion and modernization of older enterprises.

Foreign sources of capital also have become important. China has received loans from the World Bank and several United Nations programs, as well as from countries (particularly Japan) and, to a smaller extent, commercial banks. Hong Kong has been a major conduit for, as well as source of, this investment.

5. **Trade.** Trade constitutes a fairly small portion of China's overall economy. It became important, however, in the country's attempt to modernize its economy, especially before 1985, when China consistently ran trade surpluses. The direction of China's foreign trade has undergone marked changes since the early 1950s. In 1950 more than 70 percent of the total was accounted for by trade with the non-Communist world, but by 1954—the year after the end of the Korean War—the situation was completely reversed, and the Communist share stood at about 74 percent. During the next few years, the Communist world lost some of its former importance, but it was only after the Sino-Soviet breach of 1960, which resulted in the cancellation of Soviet credits and the withdrawal of Soviet technicians, that the non-Communist world began to see a rapid improvement in its position. In 1965 China's trade with other socialist countries made up only some 30 percent of the total.

A significant part of China's trade with the developing countries has been financed through credits, grants, and other forms of assistance. At first, from 1953 to 1955, aid went mainly to North Korea and North Vietnam and some other Communist states; but from the mid-1950s large amounts—mainly grants and long-term, interest-free loans—were promised to politically uncommitted developing countries. The principal efforts were made in Asia—especially to Indonesia, Burma (now Myanmar), Pakistan, and Ceylon (now Sri Lanka)—but large loans were also granted in Africa (Ghana, Algeria, Tanzania) and in the Middle East (Egypt). After Mao Zedong's (Mao Tse-tung's) death in 1976, however, the Chinese scaled back their efforts.

During the 1980s and into the 1990s, China's foreign trade came full cycle. Trade with all Communist countries diminished to insignificance, especially with the demise of most socialist states. By contrast, trade with non-Communist developed and developing countries became predominant. In general, China has run a significant trade surplus with developing countries and a trade deficit with developed countries. Hong Kong became one of China's major trading partners prior to its reincorporation into the country; it remains prominent in domestic trade, notably in its reliance on the mainland for agricultural products. Taiwan also has become an important trading partner.

The vast majority of China's imports consist of industrial supplies and capital goods, notably machinery and motor vehicles. The majority of each category of these goods comes from the developed countries, primarily Japan and the United States. Regionally, almost half of China's imports come from East and Southeast Asia, and about one-fourth of China's exports go to the same destinations.

About 70 percent of China's exports consist of manufactured goods, of which textiles and clothing are by far the most important. Agricultural products, chemicals, and extractive products, including both coal and oil, constitute most of the remaining exports.

6. Administration of the Economy.

- a. **The Role of the Government.** China is a socialist country, and the government plays a predominant role in the economy. In the industrial sector, for example, the state owns outright firms that produce more than 60 percent of the gross value of industrial output, and all but a small portion of the remainder is owned collectively. In the urban sector the government has set the prices for key commodities, determined the level and general distribution of investment funds, prescribed output targets for major enterprises and branches, allocated energy resources, set wage levels and employment targets, run the wholesale and retail networks, and controlled financial policy and the banking system. The foreign trade system became a government monopoly in the early 1950s. In the countryside, from the mid-1950s, the government prescribed cropping patterns, set the level of prices, and fixed output targets for all major crops.

By the 1980s much of the above system was in the process of changing, as the role of the central government in managing the economy was reduced and the role of both private initiative and market forces increased. Nevertheless, the government continued to dominate the urban economy, and its policies on such issues as agricultural procurement still exerted a major influence on performance in the rural sector.

The effective exercise of control over the economy requires an army of bureaucrats and a highly complicated chain of command, stretching from the top down to the level of individual enterprise. The Communist Party reserves the right to make broad decisions on economic priorities and policies, but the government apparatus headed by the State Council assumes the major burden of running the economy. The State Planning Commission and the Ministry of Finance also are concerned with the functioning of virtually the entire economy.

The entire planning process involves a great deal of consultation and negotiation. The great advantage of including a project in an annual plan is that the raw materials, labor, financial resources, and markets are

guaranteed by directives that have the force of law. In fact, however, a great deal of economic activity goes on outside of the scope of the detailed plan, and the tendency has been for the plan to become narrower rather than broader in scope.

There are three types of economic activity in China—those stipulated by mandatory planning, those done according to indicative planning (in which central planning of economic outcomes is indirectly implemented), and those governed by market forces. The second and third categories have grown at the expense of the first, but goods of national importance and almost all large-scale construction come under the mandatory planning system. The market economy generally involves small-scale or highly perishable items that circulate within local market areas only. Almost every year brings additional changes in the lists of goods that fall under each of the three categories.

Operational supervision over economic projects has devolved primarily to provincial, municipal, and county governments. In addition, enterprises themselves are gaining increased independence in a range of activity. Overall, therefore, the Chinese industrial system contains a complex mixture of relationships. In general, the State Council exercises relatively tight control over resources deemed to be of core importance for the performance of the entire economy. Less key aspects of the system are devolved to lower levels for detailed decisions and management. In all spheres, moreover, the need to coordinate units that are in different bureaucratic hierarchies produces a great deal of informal bargaining and the building of consensus.

Although the state controlled agriculture in the 1950s and '60s, rapid changes were made in the system from the late 1970s. The major vehicles for dictating state priorities—the people's communes and their subordinate teams and brigades—have been either abolished or vastly weakened. Peasant incentives have been raised both by price increases for state-purchased agricultural products and by permission to sell excess

production on a free market. Greater freedom is permitted in the choice of what crops to grow, and peasants are allowed to contract for land that they will work, rather than simply working most of the land collectively. The system of procurement quotas (fixed in the form of contracts) is being phased out, although the state can still buy farm products and control surpluses in order to affect market conditions.

From the 1950s to the '80s the central government's revenues derived chiefly from the profits of the state enterprises, which were remitted to the state. Some government revenues also came from taxes, of which the most important was the general industrial and commercial tax. The trend, however, has been for remitted profits of the state enterprises to be replaced with taxes on those profits. Initially, this tax system was adjusted so as to allow for differences in the capitalization and pricing situations of various firms, but eventually more uniform tax schedules were to be enforced.

- b. **Trade Unions.** Chinese trade unions are organized on a broad industrial basis. Membership is open to those who rely on wages for the whole or a large part of their income—a qualification that excludes most agricultural workers. In theory, membership is not compulsory, but in view of the unions' role in the distribution of social benefits, the economic pressure to join is considerable. The lowest unit is the enterprise union committee. Individual trade unions also operate at the provincial level, and there are trade union councils that coordinate all union activities within a particular area and operate at county, municipal, and provincial levels. At the top of the movement is the All-China Federation of Trade Unions, which discharges its functions through a number of regional federations.

In theory, the appropriate trade union organizations are consulted on the level of wages as well as on wage differentials, but in practice their role in these and similar matters is insignificant. They do not engage in collective bargaining—not at all surprising, since their principal duties include assisting the party and promoting production. In fulfilling these

tasks, they have a role in enforcing labor discipline. From the point of view of the membership, the most important activities concern the social and welfare services. Thus, it is the unions that look after industrial safety; organize social and cultural activities; provide services such as clinics, rest and holiday homes, hostels, libraries, and clubs; and administer old-age pensions, workers' insurance, disability benefits, and other welfare schemes.

- c. **Economic Policies.** In the 1950s and '60s a number of far-reaching changes occurred in China's economic policies and priorities. During the First Five-Year Plan period (1953–57), emphasis was placed on rapid industrial development, partly at the expense of other sectors of the economy. The bulk of the state's investment was channeled into the industrial sector, while agriculture, which occupied more than 80 percent of the economically active population, was forced to rely on its own meager capital resources for a substantial part of its fund requirements. Within industry, iron and steel, electric power, coal, heavy engineering, building materials, and basic chemicals were given first priority; in accordance with Soviet practice, the aim was to construct large, sophisticated, and highly capital-intensive plants.

This program could not be financed out of domestic resources, and a large number of the new plants were built with Soviet technical and financial assistance. The policy led to a rapid growth in heavy industry, but a few months after the introduction of the Second Five-Year Plan in 1958—which was to be on the same lines as its predecessor—the policy of the Great Leap Forward was announced. In agriculture, this involved the formation of communes, the abolition of private plots, and the increasing of output through greater cooperation and greater physical effort. In industry, the construction of large plants was to continue; but it was to be supplemented by a huge small-industry drive, making use of a large number of small, simple, locally built and run plants. The Chinese peasant, however, was not ready for the communes, and a spectacular

drop in agricultural production ensued. Meanwhile, the indiscriminate backyard production drive failed to achieve the desired effects and yielded large quantities of expensively produced, substandard goods. These difficulties were aggravated by the withdrawal of Soviet aid and technicians, who made a point of taking their blueprints with them. In consequence, by late 1960 the country faced an economic crisis of the first order.

The response of the authorities was a complete about-face in policy. Private plots were restored, the size of the communes was reduced, and greater independence was given to the production team. There was also a mass transfer of the unemployed from industry to the countryside, and industrial investment was temporarily slashed in order to free resources for farm production. This policy, which led to an immediate improvement in the agricultural situation, was maintained until 1963, when it again became possible to redirect some resources to the capital goods industry. As a result, industrial production and construction gathered some momentum, but care was taken to avoid the earlier mistake of sacrificing food production to iron and steel and similar industries. Then, in 1966 the “Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution” began. Unlike the Great Leap, the Cultural Revolution did not have an explicit economic philosophy. Nevertheless, industrial production was badly affected by the ensuing confusion and strife.

The Cultural Revolution left some difficult legacies for the Chinese economy. In industry, wages had been frozen and bonuses canceled. Combined with the policies of employing more workers than necessary to soak up unemployment and of never firing workers once hired, this action essentially eliminated incentives to work hard. In addition, technicians and many managers lost their authority and could not play an effective role in production in the wake of the movement. The entire urban system, moreover, provided less than minimal incentives to achieve efficiency in production. While overall output continued to grow, capital-output

ratios declined. In agriculture, per capita output in 1977 was no higher than in 1957.

Post-Mao rural economic reform began with major price increases for agricultural products in 1979. By 1981 the emphasis had shifted to breaking up collectively tilled fields into land that was contracted out to private families to work. During this time, the size of private plots (land actually owned by individuals) was increased, and most restrictions on selling agricultural products in free markets were lifted. In 1984 much longer-term contracts for land were encouraged (generally 15 years or more), and the concentration of land through subleasing of parcels was made legal. In 1985 the government announced that it would dismantle the system of planned procurements with state-allocated production quotas in agriculture. Peasants who had stopped working the land were encouraged to find private employment in the countryside or in small towns. They did not obtain permission to move to major cities, however.

The basic thrusts of urban economic reform have been toward integrating China more fully with the international economy; making enterprises responsible for their profits and losses; reducing the state's role in directing, as opposed to guiding, the allocation of resources; shifting investment somewhat away from the metallurgical and machine building industries and toward light industry, while retaining an emphasis on resolving the energy, transportation, and communications bottlenecks; creating material incentives for individual effort and a consumer ethos to spur people to work harder; rationalizing the pricing structure; and putting individuals into jobs for which they have specialized training, skills, or talents. At the same time, the state has permitted a private sector to develop and has allowed it to compete with state firms in a number of service areas and, increasingly, in such larger-scale operations as construction.

A number of related measures were established to enhance the incentives for enterprise managers to increase the efficiency of their firms.

Replacement of the profit-remission system with tax and contracting systems was designed to reward managers by permitting firms to retain a significant portion of increases in production. Managerial authority within firms has been strengthened, and bonuses have been restored and allowed to grow to substantial proportions. Managers have also been given enhanced authority to hire, fire, and promote workers. Reductions in mandatory planning have been accompanied by permission for enterprises to buy and sell surplus goods on essentially a free-market basis. In many cases the prices thus obtained are far higher than for goods produced to meet plan quotas. The state plan has also been used to redirect some resources into the light industrial sector. The state, for example, gives priority in energy consumption to some light industrial enterprises that produce high-quality goods.

The reduction in the scope of mandatory planning is based on the assumption that market forces can more efficiently allocate many resources. This assumption, in turn, requires a rational pricing system that takes into account any and all extant technologies and scarcities. Because extensive subsidies were built into the economic system, however, price reform became an extremely sensitive issue. The fear of inflation also served as a constraint on price reform. Nevertheless, the fact that products produced in excess of amounts targeted in the plan can be sold, in most cases, at essentially free-market prices has created a two-tiered price system that is designed to gradually wean the economy from the administratively fixed prices of an earlier era.

Efforts to create a freer labor market are also part of the overall stress on achieving greater efficiency. As with price reform, tampering with a system that keeps many citizens living more comfortably and securely than would an economically more rational system risks serious repercussions in relations with the public. Changes have proceeded slowly in this sensitive area.

A decision was made in 1978 to permit direct foreign investment in several small “special economic zones” along the coast. The country lacked the legal infrastructure and knowledge of international practices to make this prospect attractive for many foreign businesses, however. In later years steps were taken to expand the number of areas that could accept foreign investment with a minimum of red tape, and related efforts were made to develop the legal and other infrastructures necessary to make this work well.

This additional effort resulted in making 14 coastal cities and three coastal regions “open” areas for foreign investment. All of these places provide favored tax treatment and other advantages for the foreign investor. Laws on contracts, patents, and other matters of concern to foreign businesses were also passed in an effort to attract international capital to aid China's development. The largely bureaucratic nature of China's economy, however, poses inherent problems for foreign firms that want to operate in the Chinese environment, and thus the policies to attract foreign capital have had to evolve continually in the direction of presenting more incentives for the foreigner to invest in China.

The common threads of these reforms are the search for efficiency and an assumption that management of the economy by large governmental bureaucracies is unlikely to produce this result. The changes in China's economic thinking and strategy since 1978 have been so great—with the potential repercussions for important vested interests so strong—that actual practice inevitably has lagged considerably behind declaratory policy. Indeed, by the end of 1989 China's economic policy had again begun to place greater emphasis on centralized planning and on large state-run enterprises, signifying a marked slowdown of the reforms.

C. Brief History

1. The Origins of Chinese Civilization: c. 2200 - 221 BC.

- a. **Xia (c. 2200 - c. 1750 BC).** Not much is known about this first Chinese dynasty -- in fact, it until fairly recently, most historians thought that it was a myth. But the archeological record has proven them wrong, for the most part. What little is known indicates that the Xia had descended from a wide-spread Yellow River valley Neolithic culture known as the Longshan culture, famous for their black-lacquered pottery. Even though no known examples of Xia-era writing survive, they almost certainly had a writing system that was a precursor of the Shang dynasty's "oracle bones."
- b. **Shang (c. 1750 - c. 1040 BC).** There are three things to know about the Shang: one, they were the most advanced bronze-working civilization in the world; two, Shang remains provide the earliest and most complete record of Chinese writing (there are a few Neolithic pots that have a few characters scratched on them; however, a few characters do not a complete writing system make), scratched out on the shoulder blades of pigs for oracular purposes; and three, they were quite possibly the most blood-thirsty pre-modern civilization. They liked human sacrifice -- a lot. If a king died, then more than one hundred slaves would join him in the grave. Some of them would be beheaded first. Some of them were just thrown in still alive. Later dynasties replaced the humans with terra-cotta figures, resulting in things like the underground army. They also did things like human sacrifice for building consecrations and other ceremonial events. The Shang had a very odd system of succession: instead of a paternal system where power was passed from father to son, the kingship passed from elder brother to younger brother, and when there were no more brothers, then to the oldest maternal nephew.
- c. **Western Zhou (c. 1100 - 771 BC).** Most scholars think that the Zhou were much more "Chinese" than the Shang. For one, they used a father-to-son succession system. Also, they weren't too keen on human sacrifice. However, they weren't as good at working bronze as the Shang. Still, it would be centuries before the West was able to cast bronze as well as the Zhou. Some, though not all, scholars believe that the Xia, the Shang, and

the Zhou actually were three different cultures that emerged more or less at the same time in different areas of the Yellow River valley. And the historical record supports this view -- the Shang were conquered from outside by the Zhou, as the Xia had been conquered from the outside by the Shang.

The Zhou actually didn't rule all of what was then China. China was then made up of a number of quasi-independent principalities. However, the Zhou were the most powerful principality and played the role of hegemon in the area. They were located in the middle of the principalities, giving rise to what the Chinese call their country -- the Middle Kingdom. The Zhou were able to maintain peace and stability through the hegemon system for a few hundred years; then in 771 BC, the capital was sacked by barbarians from the west.

- d. **Eastern Zhou (771 - 256 BC); Spring & Autumn Period (722 - 481 BC); Warring States Period (403 - 221 BC).** After the capital was sacked by barbarians from the west, the Zhou moved east, thus neatly dividing the Zhou dynasty into eastern and western periods. As might be expected, the power of the Zhou declined somewhat. The so-called Spring & Autumn period, named after a book (The Spring and Autumn Annals) that provides a history of period saw a proliferation of new ideas and philosophies. The three most important, from a historical standpoint, were Daoism, Confucianism, and Legalism.

Daoism is a can be a very frustrating philosophy to study. It is based on study of the Dao, literally translated, "the Way." For starters, the oldest great book of Daoism, the Dao de Jing, The Way and Virtue, was allegedly written by a man named Lao-zi. However, we don't know 1) if Lao-zi was his real name, 2) if Lao-zi ever actually existed, and 3) if the book is even the work of one author. Then there are the texts themselves. The first line of the Dao de Jing can be translated as "The Way that can be walked is not the enduring and unchanging Way." It can also be translated as "The Way that can be known is not the true Way," as well as several other

translations that, while all having the same general paradoxical meaning, are all different. It is also full of other cryptic and paradoxical sayings, like "The more the sage expends for others, the more does he possess of his own; the more he gives to others, the more does he have himself." Daoists loved this kind of stuff; the story about the man dreaming he was a butterfly, then waking up and wondering if he was a man or a butterfly dreaming about being a man is classic Daoism. Daoism profoundly influenced the later development of Cha'an (also known as Zen) Buddhism.

Confucius, who lived about five hundred years before Christ, basically believed that moral men make good rulers and that virtue is one of the most important properties that an official can have. He also believed that virtue can be attained by following the proper way of behaving, and thus placed a great deal of stress on proper. Most of what is considered 'Confucianism' was actually written down by a disciple named Mencius, who also believed that all men were basically good. Confucius also codified the status of the ruler in Chinese political thought; the Emperor was the Son of Heaven (while Heaven in a Western context is a place, Heaven in the Chinese context is a divine/natural force) and had the Mandate of Heaven to rule.

Legalism derived from the teachings of another one of Confucius' disciples, a man named Xun-zi. Xun-zi believed that, for the most part, man would look out for himself first and was therefore basically evil (remember, this is more than two thousand years before Adam Smith argued that self-interest is what makes markets work and is therefore good). Consequently, the Legalists designed a series of draconian laws that would make a nation easier to control. The fundamental aim of both Confucianism and Legalism was the re-unification of a then divided China, but they took difference approaches. Confucianism depended on virtue and natural order; Legalism used an iron fist. Legalism has been called "super-Machiavellian;" this is not unwarranted, as it called for the

suppression of dissent by the burning of books and burying dissidents alive (maltreatment of the opposition is nothing new in China; because the system starts with the idea that the Emperor is the Son of Heaven and has the Mandate of Heaven to rule, there is no such thing as legitimate dissent and thus no concept of "loyal opposition"). Legalism advocated techniques such as maintaining an active secret police, encouraging neighbors to inform on each other, and the creation of a general atmosphere of fear. In fact, many of the same tactics that the Legalists approved of were later employed by Hitler, Stalin, and Mao.

The politics of the Warring States period were much the same as those of the Spring & Autumn period; the major difference was that while in the earlier period, armies were small and battles lasted only a day, much like in pre-Napoleonic wars, the later period featured what modern strategists would call "total war." Massive armies (half a million per army was not an uncommon figure), long battles, sieges, were all common features of the Warring States battlefield.

2. The Early Empire: 221 BC - AD 589.

- a. **Qin (221 - 206 BC).** In 221 BC, the first Emperor of China (so-called because all the previous dynastic heads only called themselves kings), Qin Shihuangdi, conquered the rest of China after a few hundred years of disunity. There are two major reasons why he won; the first is that he was a devout Legalist (so much so that he burnt all [at least what he thought were all] the books in the country) and did things like execute generals for showing up late for maneuvers (this was later to prove to be his downfall). The other reason is because the state of Qin had a lot of iron, and consequently, at the dawn of the Iron Age, had many more iron weapons than the other armies did. Qin Shihuangdi had a great many accomplishments, not the least of which was the linking together of many of the old packed-earth defensive walls of the old principalities into the Great Wall of China. This is not to say that he built the massive masonry construction that today is called the Great Wall of China; what is today

called the Great Wall was actually built close to two thousand years later, during the Ming dynasty.

In the year 210 BC Qin Shihuangdi died. It wasn't long before the dynasty fell apart, helped in part by a revolution started by a soldier who, when faced with execution because he was going to be late delivering a group of new draftees (it had been very rainy and the roads had turned to mud), convinced his conscripts to rebel with him (they faced execution as well). And while they eventually were caught and duly executed, the revolution they started ended up destroying the old dynasty and set the stage for the Han.

- b. **Earlier Han (206 BC - AD 8); Wang Mang Interregnum (AD 8 - 25); Later Han (25 - 220).** The Han dynasty plays a very important role in Chinese history. For starters, they invented Chinese history as we know it today. Additionally, the overwhelmingly predominant ethnic group in China is called the Han; they are named after the dynasty. But, most importantly, they developed (actually, it was invented by Qin Shihuangdi, but perfected by the Han) the administrative model which every successive dynasty would copy, lock, stock, and barrel.

Why is the development of bureaucracy so important? Well, first of all, because ancient China was a big country. In 206 BC, when the Han dynasty was founded, China stretched from modern Shenyang (some 500 km north of Beijing) in the north to around Guilin in the south; from the Pacific in the east to well past Chongqing in the west. Until Russia lay claim to Far East Siberia, China was the largest country in the world. It was also the most populous (60 million people at the time), and still is (however, India will probably overtake China in terms of population some time early in the 21st Century). This is a management issue of tremendous proportions. How are you going to do things like collect taxes, keep the peace, and basically run a government without bureaucracy? The Chinese bureaucratic system is based on the study of the Confucian Classics, which provide an ideological reference point for proper behavior (which

was often ignored, but it worked well enough) and loyalty to the Emperor. By developing this system, the Han emperors were able to run China with a reasonable degree of efficiency.

During the reign of an emperor named Han Wudi lived a historian named Sima Qian. His most important contribution to Chinese history was that he wrote a book known as *Records of the Grand Historian* (actually, he claimed to just be completing a book that his father, Sima Tan, had started, but most of the book is Sima Qian's). Most history books are very linear: first you talk about the Greeks, then the Romans, then the Dark Ages, and so on. What Sima did was structure his book so that each chapter covered a different topic: one chapter was a political record of the kings and emperors; the next would cover literature; the third, philosophy, and so on. Every dynastic record that followed copied Sima's original. Actually, there is an English-language history of China that loosely follows this model; it's called *China's Imperial Past*, written by Charles O. Hucker.

Between AD 8 and 25, a man named Wang Mang ruled China. He had been part of the Han royal household; he himself, however, was a commoner and had no royal blood in his veins. He had been appointed emperor after a power struggle in the Han house. History is mixed on him. While he did seem to have some good, reform-oriented ideas (e.g. power back to the people), he really wasn't up to the task of ruling. After his death in AD 25, the Han royal family took back the reins of power, and set up the Later Han dynasty.

The later Han were able to keep it together for about 200 years; however, towards the end of their rule, they become more and more dissolute. More importantly, they were unable to deal with two factors: a population shift from the Yellow River in the north to the Yangtze in the south; and they simply could not control barbarian tribal raiders from the north, which were one reason why people were moving to the south. Eventually, in AD 220, the center had lost so much control to the

provinces that it collapsed (a small rebellion in the north helped), plunging China into 350 years of chaos and disunity.

- c. **Three Kingdoms (220 - 265); Dynasties of the North and South (317 - 589).** While there was a great deal of political activity occurring during this period, most of it, consisting as it was of various wars between different kingdoms (one of the great novels of China, *The Romance of the Three Kingdoms*, is about this period), was not terribly important to the later development of China. Perhaps its greatest accomplishment was to reinforce in Chinese thought the importance of having "one Emperor over China, like one sun in the sky."

Socially, though, there were two important developments. The first was that the ethnic Han Chinese kept on moving south, while 'barbarians' moved into the north and were assimilated into Chinese society. The second development was Buddhism, which had had its start in India sometime in the 6th century BC, when the Buddha probably lived. It was introduced into China around the middle of the first century AD (probably about the same time that the early Christians were writing the Gospels), but really didn't catch on until the fall of the Han dynasty.

Buddhism competed strongly with Confucianism, and for a long time, pretty much eclipsed it as a major cultural force. For various reasons -- some political, some social -- it spread very quickly throughout China. It also changed somewhat from the Indian original, which, as far as I know, is not practiced anymore anywhere in the world. From China, Buddhism would spread into Tibet, Southeast Asia, Korea, and Japan.

Buddhism also merged somewhat with Daoism, particularly as a popular religion; and while the process may be compared to Christianity's appropriation of indigenous European beliefs and traditions, Daoism maintained its own identity and was not subsumed into popular Buddhism.

3. **The Second Empire: 589 - 1644.**

- a. **Sui (589 - 618).** The most important thing to know about this dynasty is that it was very short (by dynastic standards) and that it did a pretty good job of re-unifying China. Because it had a northern power base, it was part barbarian, as was the Tang. Despite the fact that the royal houses of Sui and succeeding Tang were not entirely Han Chinese, both of these dynasties are considered to be Chinese, as opposed to the Mongols and Manchus later on.
- b. **Tang (618 - 907).** The Tang are considered to be one of the great dynasties of Chinese history; many historians rank them right behind the Han. They extended the boundaries of China through Siberia in the North, Korea in the east, and were in what is now Vietnam in the South. They even extended a corridor of control along the Silk Road well into modern-day Afghanistan.

There are two interesting historical things about the Tang. The first is the Empress Wu, the only woman ever to actually bear the title 'Emperor' (or, in her case, Empress). The second was the An Lushan Rebellion, which marked the beginning of the end for the Tang.

The Empress Wu was not a nice person. She makes Catherine the Great look like an angel of mercy. While Empress Wu was still a concubine in the imperial Tang household, she deposed of a rival by murdering her own son, and then claiming her rival did it. In her own vicious, ruthless, scheming way, she was absolutely brilliant. Had Machiavelli known of her, he probably would have written "The Princess."

The An Lushan Rebellion had its roots in the behavior of one of the great emperors of Chinese history, Xuanzong. Until he fell in love with a young concubine named Yang Guifei, he had been a great ruler, and had brought the Tang to its height of prosperity and grandeur. He was so infatuated with Yang that the administration of the government soon fell into decay, which was not made any better by the fact that Yang took advantage of her power to stuff high administrative positions with her

corrupt cronies. She also took under her wing a general named An Lushan, who quickly accumulated power.

An Lushan eventually decided that he would make a pretty good emperor, and launched his rebellion. The civil war lasted for eight years, and was, for the years 755-763, pretty destructive. The emperor was forced to flee the capital, and on the way, the palace guard, blaming Yang Guifei for all the problems that had beset the dynasty (to be fair, it wasn't all her fault; there were forces of political economy at work that were pretty much beyond anybody's control), strangled her and threw her corpse in a ditch. There is a legend that what actually happened was that the emperor had procured a peasant look-alike who was actually the one killed, but as far as I know, that is only fiction. Anyway, the rebellion pretty much shattered centralized Tang control, and for the remaining 150 years of the dynasty, the country slowly disintegrated.

- c. **Northern Song (960 - 1125); Southern Song (1127 - 1279).** The Song (pronounced Soong) dynasty ranks up there with the Tang and the Han as one of the great dynasties. Fifty years after the official end of the Tang, an imperial army re-unified China and established the Song dynasty. A time of remarkable advances in technology, culture, and economics, the Song, despite its political failures, basically set the stage for the rest of the imperial era. The most important development during the Song was that agricultural technology, aided by the importation of a fast-growing Vietnamese strain of rice and the invention of the printing press, developed to the point where the food-supply system was so efficient that, for the most part, there was no need to develop it further. There was enough food for everyone, more or less, the system worked, and it became self-sustaining. Because it worked, there was no incentive to improve it; the system thus remained basically unchanged from the Song up until the twentieth century. In fact, many rice farmers in the Chinese interior and in less-developed regions of south-east Asia are, for the most part, still using Song-era farming techniques.

The efficiency of the system not only made it economically self-sustaining, but also re-enforced the existing social structure. Consequently, society and economics were largely static from the Song until the collapse of the dynastic system in the twentieth century. This is important because one of the factors behind the Industrial Revolution in Europe was that they didn't have enough people to work the fields. There was an incentive to create better technology in Europe; there was no need in China. China actually had a surplus of human labor.

While the Song was a time of great advances, politically and militarily, the Song was a failure. The northern half of China was conquered by barbarians, forcing the dynasty to abandon a northern capital in the early 1100's. Then a hundred and fifty years later, the Mongols, fresh from conquering everything between Manchuria and Austria, invaded and occupied China.

- d. **Yuan (Mongol) (1279 - 1368).** While time of Mongol rule is called a dynasty, it was in fact a government of occupation. While the Mongols did use existing governmental structures for the duration, the language they used was Mongol, and many of the officials they used were non-Chinese. Mongols, Uighurs from central Asia, some Arabs and even an Italian named Marco Polo all served as officials for the Mongol government. One of the more significant accomplishments of the Mongol tenure was the preservation of China as we know it in that China wasn't turned into pastureland for the Mongolian ponies which not only was common Mongolian practice for territories they'd overrun but had actually been advocated by some of the conquering generals.

The Yuan dynasty also featured the famous Kublai Khan, who, among other things, extended the Grand Canal. While in many ways, the Yuan was a disaster, the reluctance of the Mongols to hire educated Chinese for governmental posts resulted in a remarkable cultural flowering; for example, Beijing Opera was invented during the Yuan. On the other hand, attempts to analyze the failure of the Song in keeping barbarians out

China led to the rise and dominance of Neo-Confucianism, a notoriously conservative (if not outright reactionary) brand of Confucianism that had originally developed during the Song.

- e. **Ming (1368 - 1644).** The Ming rulers distinguished themselves by being fatter, lazier, crazier, and nastier than the average Imperial family. After the first Ming Emperor discovered that his prime minister was plotting against him, not only was the prime minister beheaded, but his entire family and anyone even remotely connected with him. Eventually, about 40,000 (no, that is not a misprint) people were executed in connection with this case alone. They were also virulent Neo-Confucianists.

In the early 1400s, a sailor named Zheng He (with a fleet of some 300-plus ships) sailed as far west as Mogadishu and Jiddah, and he may (or may not) have gotten to Madagascar. This is nearly 100 years before Columbus had the idea of trying to sail to Asia the long way around. But once the sailors came back, the trips were never followed up on. Conservative scholars at court failed to see the importance of them. For the first time in history, China was turning inwards, clinging to an incorrect interpretation of an outmoded philosophy.

To give the Ming their due, however, they did do some positive things. Among other things, they moved the capital to Beijing, fortified the Great Wall (the massive masonry structure that you see in all the pictures and postcards is, with some recent, Communist-era repair, an all-Ming construction), built the Forbidden City, and gave Macao to the Portuguese.

2. The Birth of Modern China: 1644 - present.

- a. **Qing (Manchu) (1644 - 1911).** In 1644, the Manchus took over China and founded the Qing dynasty. The Qing weren't the worst rulers; under them the arts flourished (China's greatest novel, a work known variously as *The Dream of the Red Chamber*, *A Dream of Red Mansions*, and *The Story of the Stone*, was written during the Qing) and culture bloomed. Moreover,

they attempted to copy Chinese institutions and philosophy to a much greater extent than then the Mongols of the Yuan. However, in their attempt to emulate the Chinese, they were even more conservative and inflexible than the Ming. Their approach to foreign policy, which was to make everyone treat the Emperor like the Son of Heaven and not acknowledge other countries as being equal to China, didn't rub the West the right way, even when the Chinese were in the moral right (as in the Opium Wars, which netted Britain Hong Kong and Kowloon).

To live during the Qing Dynasty was to live in interesting times. Most importantly, the Western world attempted to make contact on a government-to-government basis, and, at least initially, failed. The Chinese (more specifically, the ultra-conservative Manchus) had no room in their world-view for the idea of independent, equal nations (this viewpoint, to a certain degree, still persists today). There was the rest of the world, and then there was China. It wasn't that they rejected the idea of a community of nations; it's that they couldn't conceive of it. It would be like trying to teach a Buddhist monk about the Father, Son, and the Holy Ghost. This viewpoint was so pervasive that Chinese reformers who advocated more flexibility in China's dealings with the West were often accused of being Westerners with Chinese faces.

Other problems that plagued the late (1840 onwards) Qing included rampant corruption, a steady decentralization of power, and the unfortunate fact that they were losing control on too many fronts at the same time. Rebellions sprouted like mushrooms after a rain; apocalyptic cults undermined what little official authority remained. Several of the rebellions, such as the Taiping Rebellion, very nearly succeeded. Compounding the problems was squabbling between various reformers who disagreed on how to best combat the chaos and the West (not necessarily in that order); in hindsight, it is clear that the entire system was slowly collapsing. An excellent account of this period is Frederic Wakeman Jr.'s "The Fall of Imperial China."

The attitude of the Western powers towards China (England, Russia, Germany, France, and the United States, were, more or less, the primary players) was strangely ambivalent. On the one hand, they did their best to undermine what they considered to be restrictive trading and governmental regulations; the best (or worst, depending on your point of view) example of that was the British smuggling of opium into Southern China. Other examples included the 'right' for foreign navies to sail up Chinese rivers and waterways, and extra-territoriality, which meant that if a British citizen committed a crime in Qing China, he would be tried in a British council under British law. Most of these 'rights' came into being under a series of treaties that came to be known, and rightly so, as the Unequal Treaties.

On the other hand, they did do their best to prop up the ailing Qing, the most notable example being the crushing of the Boxer Rebellion in 1900 by foreign troops (primarily U.S. Marines). What the Western powers were interested in was the carving up of China for their own purposes, and that, paradoxically, required keeping China together.

But two things happened to prevent that. First, in 1911, the Qing dynasty collapsed and China plunged headlong into chaos. Second, in 1914, the Archduke Ferdinand told his driver to go down a street in Sarajevo he shouldn't have, and Europe plunged headlong into chaos.

- b. **Republican China (1911-1949).** During World War I, the Chinese Government, such as it was, sided with the Allies. In return, they were promised that the German concessions in Shandong province would be handed back over to the Chinese Government at the end of the war. They weren't, and to add insult to injury, the Treaty of Versailles handed them over to Japan. On May 4, 1919, about 3,000 students from various Beijing universities got together in Tiananmen Square and held a mass protest. The movement that was born at that rally (called, not unsurprisingly, the May Fourth Movement) was the first true nationalist movement in China and has consequently served as an inspiration for Chinese patriots of all

shades, stripes, and ideologies since. The students of the "Beijing Spring" of 1989 intentionally drew parallels with the May Fourth Movement; it is all the more ironic and tragic that June Fourth will now live on in infamy as the day that the tanks rolled in Tiananmen Square.

In the early 1920s, Dr. Sun Yat-sen, as the leader of the (up-to-then unsuccessful) Nationalist Party (KMT), accepted Soviet aid. With the Communist help, Sun Yat-sen was able to forge an alliance with the fledgling Chinese Communist Party (CCP), and started the task of re-unifying a China beset with warlords.

Unfortunately, Sun died of cancer in 1925. The leadership of the KMT was then taken over by Chiang Kai-shek. After Chiang took over the KMT, he launched his famous "Northern Expedition" -- all the way from Guangzhou to Shanghai. This unified Southern China and, more importantly, let the Nationalists control the Lower Yangtze. Once they got to Shanghai, Chiang, who had never liked the Communists anyway, launched a massacre of CCP members. Among those who managed to escape the carnage was a young communist named Mao Zedong.

The Communists were forced to abandon their urban bases and fled to the countryside. There, the Nationalist forces (aided and abetted by German 'advisors') tried to hunt them down, and in the words (more or less) of Chiang, "eliminate the cancer of Communism." In 1934, the Nationalists were closing in on the Communist positions, when, under the cover of night, the Communists broke out and started running. They didn't stop for a year.

This was the Long March. When the Communists started, they had 100,000 people. A year later, when they finally stopped, they had traveled 6,000 miles, and were down to between four to eight thousand people. Part of the problem is that they didn't know where they were going. They started in Jiangxi Province, about 400 km northeast of Guangzhou. Then they headed west, past Guilin, and into Yunnan province, in southwest

China. They would have stopped there, but the local warlords weren't really happy about having them. At Kunming, the capital of Yunnan province, they turned north, past Chengdu in Sichuan province, and eventually ended up in Shaanxi, near Yan'an. From then on, being a Long Marcher was the mark of aristocracy in the CCP. Deng Xiaoping, the former paramount leader of China, was a Long Marcher. With Deng's passing, there are few, if any Long Marchers left in the Party elite.

While in Yan'an, on the periphery of Nationalist power, Mao consolidated his position (gained during the Long March) as the sole leader of the Revolution. The classic book on this period is Edgar Snow's "Red Star over China," which includes some texts by Mao himself.

While all this was going on, the Japanese were busy occupying Manchuria. This proved helpful for the Communists -- the troops sent by Jiang to the North to contain and eventually eliminate the CCP much preferred to spend their time fighting the Japanese. In late 1936, Jiang's own generals kidnapped him and held him captive until he agreed to fight the Japanese before fighting the Communists.

In 1937, the Japanese invaded China proper from their bases in Manchuria, using the notorious "Marco Polo" incident as an excuse. Once whole-scale war had been launched, it didn't take the Japanese long to occupy the major coastal cities and commit atrocities. By the time that the war had ended in 1945, 20 million Chinese had died at the hands of the Japanese. The Nationalist Government fled up the Yangtze to Chongqing from Nanjing.

In 1939, World War II started. This initially had little effect on the situation in China, as the Japanese were not involved with war in Europe. However, after the attack on Pearl Harbor in 1941, the main thrust of the Japanese war effort turned away from fighting the Chinese and towards fighting the Americans.

After the Americans entered the war, the Communists started to consolidate their control over North China in preparation for the resumption of the civil war that would occur after the Japanese had been defeated.

The Nationalists, in contrast to the Communists, were disorganized and corrupt, problems that would only intensify after the war. Moreover, their attempts to fight the Japanese were ineffective at best. The general in charge of US efforts inside China, General Stillwell, lobbied Washington (ineffectively) to channel some aid to the Communists; this was not because Stillwell was sympathetic to their cause but because the CCP, employing guerrilla tactics they had independently developed during the civil war, was simply doing a better job fighting the Japanese than the Nationalists.

At the end of World War II, the war between the Nationalists and the Communists started up again. The Communists were hampered by the fact that the Japanese were under orders to surrender only to the Nationalists, not the Communists. This, however, did not end up making much of a difference. By early 1949, the Nationalists were hamstrung by intractable corruption and huge debts; they paid off their debts by printing more money, which only led to hyperinflation.

By that October, the Nationalists had fled to Taiwan and Mao Zedong had proclaimed the creation of the People's Republic of China. Curiously, while the Red Army was busy re-unifying the south, they didn't bother re-unifying either Macau or Hong Kong, even though it would have been extremely easy, and neither Britain nor Portugal would have been in much of a position to protest.

- c. **The People's Republic of China (1949-)**. In 1950, China intervened in the Korean War to save the North Koreans from being wiped off the map, and by 1953, the Korean War was over (actually, South Korea and North Korea are still technically at war with each other, even though the fighting stopped in 1953).

In 1958, Mao, who was growing increasingly distant from Moscow, launched the Great Leap Forward. The idea was to mobilize the peasant masses to increase crop production by collectivizing the farms and use the excess labor to produce steel. What ended up happening was the greatest man-made famine in human history. From 1958 to 1960, poor planning and bad management managed to starve 30 million people to death. Officially, the government blamed it on "bad weather."

By 1962, the break with the Soviets was complete, and China started to position itself as the 'other' superpower while it recovered from the Great Leap Forward.

In 1966, Mao launched the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution. The origins of the Cultural Revolution are vague, but probably stem, in part, from a growing separation between Mao's clique and the rest of the CCP. Mao called upon students to rebel against authority, and they did, forming units of Red Guards. China promptly collapsed into anarchy. Schools shut down, offices closed, transportation was disrupted -- it was so bad that even today, the full history is still far from known. In terms of the chaos, blood, and destruction, it was comparable to the French Revolution, though it lacked the same political impact. At one point, Red Guards were fighting pitched battles with Government troops outside of the Foreign Ministry building. Later on in the Cultural Revolution, Red Guard units ended up fighting each other for supremacy. In the summer of 1967, there were massive riots in both Hong Kong and Macau.

One of the reasons why Mao was able to pull off something like the Cultural Revolution was because he was taking on the trappings of an emperor -- indeed; Mao himself often compared himself to the First Emperor of China. Another reason was the political support of the People's Liberation Army, spearheaded by a general named Lin Biao. During the glory years of the Cultural Revolution, Lin became very close to Mao, and was appointed his heir-apparent. Lin was also in charge of developing the 'cult of personality' around Mao. But after 1969, Lin's

position began to deteriorate, and he vanished in 1971. Lin apparently died in an airplane crash in Mongolia; the official story is that he was fleeing to Russia. Many people believe that Mao had him murdered. It is doubtful that the whole story will ever be told; particularly as the principles involved (Mao and Lin) have taken their secrets to the grave.

While the Cultural Revolution 'officially' ended in 1969 and the worst abuses stopped then, the politically charged atmosphere was maintained until Mao's death in 1976. Deng Xiaoping, who was purged twice during the Cultural Revolution (once at the beginning; once again right before Mao died); eventually emerged as the paramount leader in 1978, and promptly launched his economic reform program.

Deng's actions, initially limited to agricultural reforms, gradually started to spread to the rest of the country. One of his favorite sayings is "It doesn't matter if the cat is black or white; what matters is how well it catches mice." This is in direct contrast to the ideology of the Maoist years, where a favored slogan was "Better Red than Expert," which meant, in practice, that totally unqualified ideologues were put in charge of projects that really needed technical expertise.

The authorities switched to a system of household and village responsibility in agriculture in place of the old collectivization increased the authority of local officials and plant managers in industry, permitted a wide variety of small-scale enterprises in services and light manufacturing, and opened the economy to increased foreign trade and investment. The result has been a quadrupling of GDP since 1978.

Measured on a purchasing power parity (PPP) basis, China in 2004 stood as the second-largest economy in the world after the US, although in per capita terms the country is still poor. Agriculture and industry have posted major gains especially in coastal areas near Hong Kong and opposite Taiwan and in Shanghai, where foreign investment has helped spur output of both domestic and export goods. The leadership, however, often has experienced - as a result of its hybrid system - the worst results

of socialism (bureaucracy and lassitude) and of capitalism (growing income disparities and rising unemployment). China thus has periodically backtracked, retightening central controls at intervals.

The government has struggled to (a) sustain adequate jobs growth for tens of millions of workers laid off from state-owned enterprises, migrants, and new entrants to the work force; (b) reduce corruption and other economic crimes; and (c) keep afloat the large state-owned enterprises, many of which had been shielded from competition by subsidies and had been losing the ability to pay full wages and pensions. From 100 to 150 million surplus rural workers are adrift between the villages and the cities, many subsisting through part-time, low-paying jobs.

Popular resistance, changes in central policy and loss of authority by rural cadres have weakened China's population control program, which is essential to maintaining long-term growth in living standards. At the same time, one demographic consequence of the "one child" policy is that China is now one of the most rapidly aging countries in the world. Another long-term threat to growth is the deterioration in the environment - notably air pollution, soil erosion, and the steady fall of the water table especially in the north. China continues to lose arable land because of erosion and economic development.

As part of its effort to gradually slow the rapid economic growth seen in 2004, Beijing says it will reduce somewhat its spending on infrastructure in 2005, while continuing to focus on poverty relief and through rural tax reform. Accession to the World Trade Organization helps strengthen its ability to maintain strong growth rates but at the same time puts additional pressure on the hybrid system of strong political controls and growing market influences.

China has benefited from a huge expansion in computer Internet use, with 94 million users at the end of 2004. Foreign investment remains a strong element in China's remarkable economic growth. Shortages of

electric power and raw materials may affect industrial output in 2005. More power generating capacity is scheduled to come on line in 2006. In its rivalry with India as an economic power, China has a lead in the absorption of technology, the rising prominence in world trade, and the alleviation of poverty; India has one important advantage in its relative mastery of the English language, but the number of competent Chinese English-speakers is growing rapidly.

As expected, Jiang Zemin stepped down from the Chinese presidency at the 10th National People's Congress in March 2003, although he kept control over the country's military authority and maneuvered to keep or put his protégés in key positions. Five men on the nine-member Political Bureau Standing Committee were close Jiang associates: Vice Pres. Zeng Qinghong, Chairman of the National People's Congress Wu Bangguo, State Council Vice-Premier Huang Ju, Chairman of the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference Jia Qinglin, and Li Changchun, the former CPC secretary of Guangdong province.

Accordingly, the political events for much of the year were interpreted as a post succession struggle between Hu and Jiang and their respective protégés. Hu was typically cast as a progressive and a reformer, while Jiang's forces were seen as opposed to any political change. Hu and new Premier Wen Jiabao were believed to be practical men who favored economic reforms to better the people's standard of living, while Jiang and his allies were viewed as doctrinaires who sought economic reforms that favored the business elite.

Hu worked to set his policy line apart from Jiang's. In December 2002 he took three opportunities to address issues that had been much neglected by his predecessor. During Hu's participation in the celebration of the 20th anniversary of China's constitution, he emphasized the authoritativeness of the constitution and the rule of law. In the following two days, Hu sought to establish his credentials as the champion of the poor when he paid a visit to Xibaipo, the site of a historical 1949 speech to

the party faithful by Mao Zedong on the importance of serving the masses. Later in the month, he hosted the first study session of the Political Bureau to study the constitution. Hu reinterpreted Jiang's policy of "three represents"—that the CPC should represent the interests of all the people, including the business class, rather than just the working class—by emphasizing Mao's dictum "to be close to the masses." For such public gestures intended to identify him with the old-time communist virtues of self-sacrifice and devotion to the downtrodden, Hu won praise from the party faithful and the public as well as from many intellectuals.

The significance of the arrest of Shanghai business tycoon Zhou Zhengyi was multifaceted. It signaled that Shanghai upstarts were not immune from criminal prosecution and that the Shanghai protégés of former president Jiang might no longer be exempt from investigations into corruption and criminal misdeeds. The new administration sought to portray itself as a government for the masses. During the year the CPC Central Discipline and Inspection Commission sentenced or removed 10 senior government and party officials, ranging from governors to ministers. Two of them were sentenced to death and two others to life in prison.

At midyear a senior labor-union official called for direct elections of local union bosses by factory workers, an arrangement that had not been seriously discussed for years. Moreover, a group of senior party officials wrote letters that urged Jiang to step down from all his positions. In June the main CPC publication, *Seeking Truth*, included an article calling for more democracy within the party. This would mean more transparency in decision making and more leeway for CPC cadres to pick leaders such as provincial and municipal party bosses. It was also regarded as a first step toward democracy for the whole country. In late July the same periodical carried another piece calling for democratic reform within the party through the setting up of standing committees at municipal and county levels to which CPC secretaries would report between annual party

congresses. A few cities in Sichuan province experimented with regular meetings of party congresses, where deputies could exercise some form of supervision over party authorities.

At about the same time, six articles that called for political reform ran in *Study Times*, a CPC publication put out by the Central Party School, and in early August an article appeared that called for party committees to stop influencing government agencies, an idea that had last been promoted before Jiang came to power.

Wu Bangguo, the chairman of the National People's Congress, chaired a special committee on constitutional reform that considered two main additions to the current constitution—one a provision protecting private property and the other an enshrining of Jiang's "three represents." If the "three represents" were to be written into the constitution, Jiang's legacy (and the influence of his group) would be secured, and he would be accorded a status almost equivalent to that of the other two paramount Chinese leaders, Mao and Deng Xiaoping. In late June leading academics and a few government officials held a conference on constitutional reform, openly criticizing the "three represents." In late summer, after having given the intellectuals some latitude in discussing these reforms, the CPC ordered a cessation of the discussions. At the end of the year the CPC formally called for protection of private property and the theory of the "three represents" to be included in the constitution.

In September the authorities announced cuts of 200,000 troops, including 200 generals, within the next two years in order to reduce the size of the army to about 2.3 million. The reform was said to be needed in order to accelerate the modernization of the army. As chairman of the Central Military Commission, Jiang described the move as part of a worldwide trend in military reform in which the focus was shifting from mechanized warfare to information warfare. The announcement came after China had announced a 10% increase in its annual defense budget in

March. On December 15 China issued a terrorist list that included 4 Muslim separatist groups in Xinjiang province and 11 individuals.

Political turmoil engulfed Hong Kong in 2003 when the territory's chief executive had to postpone a vote in the legislature over a controversial security bill. The most objectionable provision would have allowed the government to ban in Hong Kong groups that had links to any organization that for national security reasons Beijing had prohibited from operating in the rest of China. Mass popular demonstrations, with more than 500,000 participants in one instance, the resignation from the cabinet of the leader of a pro-government political party, and the big victory for pro-democracy candidates in the November local elections underlined the seriousness of the issues and the determination of the Hong Kong populace to have a voice in the territory's governance.

D. People and Language, Religion, and Culture

1. **People and Language.** The population composed of a large number of ethnic and linguistic groups. Thus, the basic classification of the population is not so much ethnic as linguistic. The Han (Chinese), the largest group, outnumber the minority groups of minority nationalities in every province or autonomous region except Tibet and Xinjiang. The Han, therefore, form the great homogeneous mass of the Chinese people, sharing the same culture, the same traditions, and the same written language. Some 55 minority groups are spread over approximately three-fifths of the total area of the country. Where these minority groups are found in large numbers, they have been given some semblance of autonomy and self-government; autonomous regions of several types have been established on the basis of the geographic distribution of nationalities.

The government takes great credit for its treatment of these minorities, including care for their economic well-being, the raising of their living standards, the provision of educational facilities, the promotion of their national languages and cultures, and the raising of their levels of literacy, as well as for the introduction of a written language where none existed

previously. It must be noted, however, that some minorities, Tibetans in particular, have been subject to varying degrees of repression. Still, of the 50-odd minority languages, only 20 had written forms before the coming of the Communists; and only relatively few written languages—for example, Mongolian, Tibetan, Uighur, Kazak, Thai, and Korean—were in everyday use. Other written languages were used chiefly for religious purposes and by a limited number of persons. Educational institutions for national minorities are a feature of many large cities, notably Peking, Wuhan, Chengdu, and Lanzhou.

Four major language families are represented in China: the Sino-Tibetan, Altaic, Indo-European, and Austro-Asiatic. The Sino-Tibetan family, both numerically and in the extent of its distribution, is the most important; within this family, Han Chinese is the most widely spoken language. Although unified by their tradition, the written characters of their language, and many cultural traits, the Han speak several mutually unintelligible dialects and display marked regional differences. By far the most important Chinese tongue is the Mandarin, or Putonghua, meaning “ordinary language” or “common language.” There are three variants of Mandarin. The first of these is the northern variant, of which the Peking dialect, or Peking hua, is typical and which is spoken to the north of the Tsinling Mountains–Huai River line; as the most widespread Chinese tongue, it has officially been adopted as the basis for a national language. The second is the western variant, also known as the Chengdu or Upper Yangtze variant; this is spoken in the Sichuan Basin and in adjoining parts of southwestern China. The third is the southern variant, also known as the Nanjing or Lower Yangtze variant, which is spoken in northern Jiangsu and in southern and central Anhui. Related to Mandarin are the Hunan, or Hsiang, dialect, spoken by people in central and southern Hunan, and the Kan dialect. The Hui-chou dialect, spoken in southern Anhui, forms an enclave within the southern Mandarin area.

Less intelligible to Mandarin speakers are the dialects of the southeast coastal region, stretching from Shanghai to Canton. The most important of these is the Wu dialect, spoken in southern Jiangsu and in Zhejiang. This is followed, to the south, by the Fuzhou, or Northern Min, dialect of northern and central Fukien and by the Amoy-Swatow, or Southern Min, dialect of southern Fukien and easternmost Guangdong. The Hakka dialect of southernmost Kiangsi and northeastern Guangdong has a rather scattered pattern of distribution. Probably the best known of these southern dialects is Yüeh, particularly Cantonese, which is spoken in central and western Guangdong, Hong Kong, and in southern Guangxi—a dialect area in which a large proportion of overseas Chinese originated.

In addition to the Han, the Manchu and the Hui (Chinese Muslims) also speak Mandarin and use Chinese characters. The Hui are descendants of Chinese who adopted Islam when it penetrated into China in the 7th century. They are intermingled with the Han throughout much of the country and are distinguished as Hui only in the area of their heaviest concentration, the Hui Autonomous Region of Ningxia. Other Hui communities are organized as autonomous prefectures (tzu-chih-chou) in Xinjiang and as autonomous counties (tzu-chih-hsien) in Qinghai, Hebei, Guizhou, and Yunnan. Increasingly, the Hui have been moving from their scattered settlements into the area of major concentration, possibly, as firm adherents of Islam, in order to facilitate intermarriage with other Muslims.

The Manchu declare themselves to be descendants of the Manchu warriors who invaded China in the 17th century and founded the Ch'ing dynasty (1644–1911/12). Ancient Manchu is virtually a dead language, and the Manchu have been completely assimilated into Han Chinese culture. They are found mainly in North China and the Northeast, but they form no separate autonomous areas above the commune level. Some say the Koreans of the Northeast, who form an autonomous prefecture in eastern Jilin, cannot be assigned with certainty to any of the standard language classifications.

The Chuang (Chuang-chia) are China's largest minority group. Most of them live in the Chuang Autonomous Region of Guangxi. They are also represented in national autonomous areas in neighbouring Yunnan and Guangdong. They depend mainly on the cultivation of rice for their livelihood. In religion they are animists, worshipping particularly the spirits of their ancestors. The Puyi (Chung-chia) group is concentrated in southern Guizhou, where they share an autonomous prefecture with the Miao (Hmong) group. The Tung group is settled in small communities in Guangxi and Guizhou; they share with the Miao group an autonomous prefecture set up in southeast Guizhou in 1956. The Tai speakers are concentrated in southern Yunnan and were established in two autonomous prefectures—one whose population is related most closely to the Tai of northern Thailand and another whose Tai is related to the Shan people of Myanmar (Burma). The Li of Hainan Island form a separate group of the Chinese-Tai language branch. They share with the Miao people a district in southern Hainan.

Tibetans are distributed over the entire Qinghai-Tibetan plateau. Outside Tibet, Tibetan minorities constitute autonomous prefectures and autonomous counties. There are five Tibetan autonomous prefectures in Qinghai, two in Sichuan, and one each in Yunnan and Gansu. The Tibetans still keep their tribal characteristics, but few of them are nomadic. Though essentially farmers, they also raise livestock and, as with other tribal peoples in the Chinese far west, also hunt to supplement their food supply. The major religion of Tibet has been Tibetan Buddhism since about the 17th century; before 1959 the social and political institutions of this region were still based largely on this faith. Many of the Yi (Lolo) were concentrated in two autonomous prefectures—one in southern Sichuan and another in northern Yunnan. They raise crops and sometimes keep flocks and herds.

The Miao-Yao (Hmong-Mien) branch, with their major concentration in Guizhou, are distributed throughout the central south and southwestern provinces and are found also in some small areas in eastern China. They are subdivided into many rather distinct groupings. Most of them have now lost

their traditional tribal traits through the influence of the Han, and it is only their language that serves to distinguish them as tribal peoples. Two-thirds of the Miao are settled in Guizhou, where they share two autonomous prefectures with the T'ung and Puyi groups. The Yao people are concentrated in the Guangxi-Guangdong-Hunan border area.

In some areas of China, especially in the southwest, there are many different ethnic groups that are geographically intermixed. Because of language barriers and different economic structures, these peoples all maintain their own cultural traits and live in relative isolation from one another. In some places the Han are active in the towns and in the fertile river valleys, while the minority peoples depend for their livelihood on more primitive forms of agriculture or on grazing their livestock on hillsides and mountains. The vertical distribution of these peoples is in zones—usually the higher they live, the less complex their way of life. In former times they did not mix well with one another, but now, with highways penetrating deep into their settlements, they have better opportunities to communicate with other groups and are also enjoying better living conditions.

While the minorities of the Sino-Tibetan language family are thus concentrated in the south and southwest, the second major language family—the Altaic—is represented entirely by minorities in northwestern and northern China. The Altaic family falls into three branches: Turkic, Mongolian, and Manchu-Tungus. The Turkic language branch is by far the most numerous of the three Altaic branches. The Uighur, who are Muslims, form the largest Turkic minority. They are distributed over chains of oases in the Tarim Basin and in the Dzungarian Basin of Xinjiang. They mainly depend on irrigation agriculture for a livelihood. Other Turkic minorities in Xinjiang are splinter groups of nationalities living in neighbouring nations of Central Asia, including the Kazaks and Kyrgyz. All these groups are adherents of Islam. The Kazaks and Kyrgyz are pastoral nomadic peoples, still showing traces of tribal organization. The Kazaks live mainly in northwestern and northeastern Xinjiang as herders, retiring to their camps in the valleys when

winter comes; they are established in the I-li-ha-sa-k'o (Ili Kazak) Autonomous Prefecture. The Kyrgyz are high-mountain pastoralists and are concentrated mainly in the westernmost part of Xinjiang.

The Mongolians, who are by nature a nomadic people, are the most widely dispersed of the minority nationalities of China. Most of them are inhabitants of the Inner Mongolia Autonomous Region. Small Mongolian and Mongolian-related groups of people are scattered throughout the vast area from Xinjiang through Qinghai and Gansu and into the provinces of the Northeast (Jilin, Heilongjiang, and Liaoning). In addition to the Inner Mongolia Autonomous Region, the Mongolians are established in two autonomous prefectures in Xinjiang, a joint autonomous prefecture with Tibetans and Kazaks in Qinghai, and several autonomous counties in the western area of the Northeast. Some of them retain their tribal divisions and are pastoralists, but large numbers of Mongolians engage in sedentary agriculture, and some of them combine the growing of crops with herding. The tribes, who are dependent upon animal husbandry, travel each year around the pastureland—grazing sheep, goats, horses, cattle, and camels—and then return to their point of departure. A few take up hunting and fur trapping in order to supplement their income. The Mongolian language consists of several dialects, but in religion it is a unifying force; most Mongolians are believers in Tibetan Buddhism.

A few linguistic minorities in China belong to neither the Sino-Tibetan nor the Altaic language family. The Tajik of westernmost Xinjiang are related to the population of Tajikistan and belong to the Iranian branch of the Indo-European family. The Kawa people of the China-Burma border area belong to the Mon-Khmer branch of the Austro-Asiatic family.

2. **Religion.** Because of China's vast land and its large population, a variety of religions grew and matured during China's history. There are now mainly five religions including Buddhism, Taoism, Islam, Catholicism and other Christian religions. Confucianism, a philosophy rather than a religion, surprisingly

ruled China for 2,000 years. There are still other primitive religions and beliefs followed by some ethnic groups.

Buddhism spread into China during the Han dynasty, and played an important role in Chinese history and culture.

Taoism was founded in China during the Han dynasty. The Chinese philosopher, Lu Xun once said: "China roots deep in Taoism. If one wants to comprehend Chinese history and culture, one must comprehend Taoism first."

Islam arose in China's coastal cities during the Tang dynasty (618 - 907 AD) and gradually spread to many other areas of China. Arab traders who landed on the southern coast of China established their mosques in great maritime cities like Guangzhou and Quanzhou.

Catholicism was introduced in China during the Tang dynasty (618 - 907), but the enthusiasm soon waned. During the Ming dynasty (1368 - 1644), Catholicism made a comeback when the Italian priest Matteo Ricci, was permitted to set up churches. After the end of the Opium Wars during the mid 19th century, Catholicism developed rapidly in China.

Other Christian religions (i.e. Presbyterian, Lutheran) were introduced to China during the 1930s, when there was a large influx of missionaries.

3. **Culture.** Chinese culture is remarkable for its duration and diversity. Skeletal remains and stone implements date to the Paleolithic stage of cultural development, from the 29th to the 17th millennium BC. Decorated artifacts, primarily marked pottery vessels, have been found in dozens of sites, dating from the 12th to the 2nd millennium BC.

The Bronze Age includes the first historically verified dynasty, the Shang (18th–12th century BC), and China's first written records. The Late Shang is well known from oracle bones recovered from the site of the last Shang capital near An-yang. Writing became linked to authority in a way that endured throughout pre-modern Chinese history. During the Shang and Chou (1111–255 BC) dynasties the art of bronze casting became highly developed.

Finely cast and richly decorated pieces included cooking and serving vessels, bells, drums, weapons, and door fittings.

Written language is central to China's culture. Scholars have identified ideographic inscriptions on pottery dating to about 4000 BC, and written Chinese has developed continuously since the Late Shang period. Chinese culture is inextricably bound up with the writing system in three ways. First, writing is the medium for the preservation and dissemination of culture. Indeed, China's word for culture (*wen-hua*) means "to become literate." Second, command of the writing system distinguishes the Chinese and their culture, seen as the centre of the world, from all non-Chinese peoples, categorized by the Chinese as "barbarians." Third, culture and the writing system are inseparably linked to statecraft in that a command of writing and knowledge of the written tradition were necessary and requisite skills for holding office. Thus, from the Shang dynasty oracle bones to the products of the modern printing press, culture in the form of written works has been a key instrument in the development of political thought and a tool of governance.

The oldest art forms in China are music and dance. A 5,000-year-old pottery bowl from Qinghai Province is painted with a ring of 15 dancers, adorned in headdresses and sashes and stepping in unison. Music played an important role in early Chinese ritual and statecraft. Bronze bells were instruments of investiture and reward. More than 120 instruments were unearthed from the same tomb, including stringed zithers, mouth organs, flutes, drums, and stone chimes. Music and related rituals helped to provide a structure for activities in the courts of rulers at all levels in the feudal hierarchy.

The *Shih Ching* ("Classic of Poetry"), an anthology of poetry given definitive form in about 500 BC, is one of China's oldest classics and contains 305 folk songs and ritual psalms. Although the T'ang dynasty (AD 618–907) is called the Golden Age of Chinese poetry, having produced the poets Tu Fu and Li Po, there are poets of renown from every dynasty, and the writing of

poetry was practiced by most well-educated Chinese for both personal and social reasons.

China's tradition of historical narrative is also unsurpassed in the world. Twenty-five dynastic histories preserve a unique record from the unverified Hsia dynasty (22nd–19th/18th century BC) to the Ch'ing (AD 1644–1911/12), and sprawling historical romances have been a mainstay in the reading of the educated since the spread of printing in the 11th and 12th centuries AD.

The May Fourth Movement (1917–21) attacked much of this great literary and cultural tradition, viewing it as a source of China's weakness. Students and faculty at Peking University abandoned the demanding literary language and created a new popular fiction, written in a more accessible colloquial language on themes from the lives of ordinary people. Literary culture continued to be a subject of intense debate. Mao Zedong, who composed poetry in both contemporary and traditional styles, dictated that art must serve politics in his talks at Yen-an in 1942. Throughout the following decades, writers received both admiration and ridicule. Indeed, the fate of most important writers was closely linked to the vicissitudes of national politics from the 1950s onward. Only in the mid-1980s did writers again begin to enjoy a period of relative freedom in which there was some official tolerance of “art for art's sake.”

Painting and calligraphy, like poetry, was the domain of the elite and most educated Chinese traditionally boasted of some competence in them. There are early anonymous and folk-oriented paintings on tomb and cave walls, and many works are known from the Han dynasty (206 BC–AD 220). Fine-art painters are known by name from as early as the 6th century AD from historical records and serially copied versions of their works. Chinese painting is predominantly of landscapes, done in black pine-soot ink on fine paper or silk, occasionally with the addition of faint color washes. The most vigorous period for landscape painting spanned the years from the Sung (960–1279) to Ming (1368–1644) dynasties.

Calligraphy rivals painting as a fine art in China, and paintings are often captioned with artfully written poems. Calligraphy reveals the great fondness the Chinese have for their written characters, and it ranges in style from meticulously and laboriously scribed “seal” characters to flamboyant and unconstrained “grass” characters. Calligraphy, as painting, is prized for a number of abstract aesthetic qualities, described by such terms as “balance,” “vitality,” “energy,” “bones,” “wind,” and “strength.”

Painting has undergone numerous style changes in the 20th century. Prior to 1949 painters such as Ch'i Pai-shih (1863–1957) developed distinct new styles that internationalized traditional Chinese aesthetics. After 1949 pressure for socialist realism made painters shift their focus to such subjects as factory scenes, peasant villages, and convoys of tour buses. But with the liberalization of the arts that followed Mao's death in 1976, more traditional values reasserted themselves.

Sculpture and carving date back to the Chou dynasty (c. 1111–255 BC). Tombs frequently contained burial dolls, said to have been made to replace live sacrificial victims, and many early jade carvings are related to burial practices and include body orifice stoppers and bangle bracelets. Of all the arts, sculpture received the greatest boost from the introduction of Buddhism to China during the Han dynasty and from the spread of Buddhism during the Six Dynasties (AD 220–589) and T'ang periods.

Theatre is the most important popular art in China. It originated in early religious dances, performed at festivals to exorcise demons, reenact important historical events, or prepare for harvest, hunting, or warfare. Urban storytelling and theatrical genres are well documented from the Sung dynasty but are known to have matured during the Yüan dynasty (1206–1368). Yüan dramas, or operas as they are more accurately called, consisted of virtuoso song and dance organized around plots on historical or contemporary themes. The operas were performed in special theatres, with elegant costumes and decorated stages. From Yüan drama later forms developed, including

contemporary Cantonese and Peking operas, that feature song and dance, elaborate costumes and props, and displays of martial arts and acrobatics.

During the Cultural Revolution, an enormous number of cultural treasures of inestimable value were seriously damaged or destroyed and the practice of many arts and crafts was prohibited. Since the early 1980s, however, official repudiation of those policies has been complemented by vigorous efforts to renew China's remarkable cultural traditions. China's culture thus remains highly complex, encompassing ancient traditions and modern experiments, in what sometimes appears to be a rather tenuous mix.

E. China Fast Facts

Full Country Name: The People's Republic of China

Area: 9,600,000 sq km

Population: 1.24 billion

Capital City: Beijing (pop 12 million)

People: Han Chinese (93%), plus Mongolian, Zhuang, Manchu and Uighur minorities

Language: Putonghua (Beijing dialect mandarin)

Religion: Officially atheist; Confucianism, Buddhism, Taoism (no states available); Muslim (14 million), Christian (7 million)

Government: The National People's Congress

Head of State: Hu Jintao, President

Official Country Name: The People's Republic of China

Government: The National People's Congress

Geography: China is the world's third-largest country, after Canada and US.

Population: 1.26 billion (July 2000)

Area: 9,600,000 sq. km

Coastline: 14,500 km

Capital City: Beijing (12 million population)

Languages: Official Language: Mandarin Chinese or Putonghua, based on the Beijing dialect. Other Languages: Seven other major Chinese dialects, Yue

(Cantonese), Wu (Shanghainese), Minbei (Fuzhou), Minnan (Hokkien-Taiwanese), Xiang, Gan, Hakka.

Religions: 69% Non-religious or atheist; 20% orthodox Chinese beliefs, mainly Confucianism and Daoism; 9% Buddhism, 2% other, including Muslim and Christian.

Largest Metropolitan Areas: Shanghai 14,150,000; Beijing 12,510,000; Tianjin 9,420,000; (1995 estimates)

Climate: Extremely diverse, tropical in the south to sub-arctic in the north.

Ethnic Groups: Han Chinese: 92%; Zhuang, Uygur, Hui, Yi, Tibetan, Miao, Manchu, Mongol, Buyi, Korean, and other nationalities: 8%

Nature Resources: A wide range of minerals are to be found in China, among them coal, iron, copper, aluminum, mercury and others. The size of Chinese mineral reserves is rated third largest in the world. China is also rich in oil and natural gas resources

Industries: Services sector contributes 32% to the Chinese economy, industry contributes approximately 53% and the balance, 15% in agriculture and forestry

Main Export Products: Machinery and equipment, clothing and toys

Main Export: 21% to the United States, 17% to Hong Kong and approximately 14% to Japan

Main Import: 18% from Japan, 12% from Taiwan, 10% from South Korea. 8% from United States

Main Trading Partner: United States, Japan and Taiwan

GDP - Per capita: Estimated at 5,000 US dollars

Monthly Wage: 800 - 2,500 Yuan (between 30 - 97 dollars) as of April 2004.

Average monthly salary in the financial sector as well as in business with foreign investments is very much higher.

V. CHINA FULBRIGHT 2004 READING LIST³

A. General Background

[U.S. Department of State, Consular Information Sheet, China](#)

B. Intercultural Teams

[Managing communication within virtual intercultural teams](#), Christine Uber Grosse, *Business Communication Quarterly*; New York; Dec 2002.

Abstract: As global companies increasingly rely on virtual teams to conduct short- and long-term projects, business students need to be prepared to manage the communication of

³ This reading list was taken from the "Fulbright China Guide for US Lecturers." American Center for Educational Exchange. Public Affairs Section. U.S. Embassy – Beijing, P.R. China. May 2005.

intercultural teams. Communicating across cultures using technology can be a difficult task. It requires understanding the advantages and limitations of technology and how to build relationships via technology. Virtual team members need to choose an appropriate communication channel for their purposes and be sure to balance distance work with face-to-face communication. Team leaders should encourage open communication and brainstorming, and avoid assignment of blame. Other strategies for success include: 1. Develop a network of good relationships built on trust and understanding. 2. Show respect for other cultures and languages. 3. Understand how diversity strengthens the team.

[When Culture and Style Aren't About Clothes: Perceptions of Task-Technology "Fit" in Global Virtual Teams](#)

ACM 2001, September 30-October 3, Boulder, Colorado.

In this paper, we will explore how cultural tendencies, specifically country-of-origin differences relate to communication styles and how these may influence perceptions of task-technology fit by members of global virtual teams. (uses Individualist-collectivist terms)

C. "Globalization" Opinions

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